This is a digital copy of a book that was preserved for generations on library shelves before it was carefully scanned by Google as part of a project to make the world's books discoverable online.

It has survived long enough for the copyright to expire and the book to enter the public domain. A public domain book is one that was never subject to copyright or whose legal copyright term has expired. Whether a book is in the public domain may vary country to country. Public domain books are our gateways to the past, representing a wealth of history, culture and knowledge that's often difficult to discover.

Marks, notations and other marginalia present in the original volume will appear in this file - a reminder of this book's long journey from the publisher to a library and finally to you.

Usage guidelines

Google is proud to partner with libraries to digitize public domain materials and make them widely accessible. Public domain books belong to the public and we are merely their custodians. Nevertheless, this work is expensive, so in order to keep providing this resource, we have taken steps to prevent abuse by commercial parties, including placing technical restrictions on automated querying.

We also ask that you:

+ *Make non-commercial use of the files* We designed Google Book Search for use by individuals, and we request that you use these files for personal, non-commercial purposes.

+ *Refrain from automated querying* Do not send automated queries of any sort to Google's system: If you are conducting research on machine translation, optical character recognition or other areas where access to a large amount of text is helpful, please contact us. We encourage the use of public domain materials for these purposes and may be able to help.

+ *Maintain attribution* The Google "watermark" you see on each file is essential for informing people about this project and helping them find additional materials through Google Book Search. Please do not remove it.

+ *Keep it legal* Whatever your use, remember that you are responsible for ensuring that what you are doing is legal. Do not assume that just because we believe a book is in the public domain for users in the United States, that the work is also in the public domain for users in other countries. Whether a book is still in copyright varies from country to country, and we can't offer guidance on whether any specific use of any specific book is allowed. Please do not assume that a book's appearance in Google Book Search means it can be used in any manner anywhere in the world. Copyright infringement liability can be quite severe.

About Google Book Search

Google's mission is to organize the world's information and to make it universally accessible and useful. Google Book Search helps readers discover the world's books while helping authors and publishers reach new audiences. You can search through the full text of this book on the web at `http://books.google.com/`

Per. 23271 e. $\frac{416}{52-3}$

THE

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE

AND

COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

EDITED BY

WILLIAM B. DANA.

VOLUME FIFTY-SECOND,

FROM JANUARY TO JUNE, INCLUSIVE, 1865.

New York:

WILLIAM B. DANA, PUBLISHER AND PROPRIETOR

CHAMBER OF COMMERCE AND UNDERWRITERS' BUILDING,

Nos. 61 AND 63 WILLIAM STREET.

1865.

ALPHABETICAL INDEX

TO SUBJECTS CONTAINED IN THE

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE & COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

VOLUME LII.

FROM JANUARY TO JUNE, 1865, BOTH INCLUSIVE.

EDITED BY WILLIAM B. DANA.

A.

PAGE

Accidents, railroad and steamboat, list of for ten years..... 137
Accidents, railway, causes and cure.. 342
Albany lumber trade..... 395
Atlantic telegraph cable..... 328
Amendments to national currency law 389
America, the house of Hapsburg in, 249, 364
Anthracite coal, the price and prospects of..... 349

B.

Banking, currency, and finance, journal of.....66, 128, 212, 292, 385, 448
Bankruptcy and Insolvency, the law of bankruptcy considered and examined.....100, 193, 280
Bank of the Netherlands, history of, &c..... 106
Banks of New York, weekly returns 68, 130, 216, 294, 387, 450
Banks of Philadelphia, weekly returns 69, 130, 216, 294, 387, 450
Banks of Boston, weekly returns,.70, 130, 216, 295, 388, 452
Banks, National..... 67
Bank of England returns....72, 132, 219, 295, 389, 453
Bank of France, weekly returns..73, 132, 219, 295, 389, 454
Banks of Massachusetts, returns of .. 71
Banks of Rhode Island, do. 71, 452
Banks of Ohio, do. .. 71
Banks of Wisconsin, .. 71
Banks of New York State, do. 217, 451
Bangor lumber trade..... 397
Biography and engraving of Cornelius Vanderbilt..... 9
Biography and engraving of William Sturgis..... 169
Biography of Hon. Thurlow Weed... 268
Biography and engraving of Abraham Lincoln..... 329
Biography and engraving of Jacob Little..... 409
Boards of Trade, convention at Detroit..... 437
Book Trade.....87, 167, 248
Brazil and United States, commerce between..... 133
Bridge over the Mississippi at Fulton 145

C.

Canadian gold fields..... 243
Canada trade, and depression of..... 228
Canada and the Reciprocity Treaty, 75, 427
Canals of New York..... 238
California: her production, trade, &c., for 1864..... 219
Checks, certified, are they money?.. 449
China: Taeping rebellion; its rise and fall..... 38
Chinese in Cuba..... 186
Chicago, trade and growth of..... 239
Commercial chronicle and review.60, 110, 205, 287, 379, 443
Commerce and trade of the port of New York,.....117, 230
Commerce and trade, statistics of 133, 230, 392, 455

PAGE

Commerce between Brazil and United States..... 133
Commerce of the United States..189, 198
Commercial failures in 1864..... 146
Commercial regulations....168, 243, 460
Commercial law, No. 17, interest and usury..... 51
Commercial law, Nos. 18, 19, and 20, bankruptcy and insolvency...100, 193, 280
Commercial law, No. 21, The law of place where contract is made. ... 374
Commercial law, No. 22, The law of shipping..... 439
Cotton, trade of, in 1864..... 236
Coal, the price and prospects of..... 349
Currency and finance, journal of..66, 128, 212, 292, 385, 448
Cuba, production and trade for 1864. 398

D.

Debt of U. S., and how it can be paid 418
Debt of U. S, statement of..... 380
Deep and shallow oil: Petroleum... 185
Dry goods, imports of.....126, 446
Detroit, and the proposed convention of merchants..... 437

E.

Engraving and biography of Cornelius Vanderbilt..... 9
Engraving and biography of William Sturgis..... 169
Engraving and biography of Abraham Lincoln..... 329
Engraving and biography of Jacob Little..... 409
England, Bank of, returns,...72, 131, 218, 295, 389, 453
Extinguishment of the Scheldt dues. 145
Exchange, rates of 65, 212, 291, 384

F.

Failures, commercial, in 1864..... 146
Finances, national, how they should be and how they are managed....226, 271
Finance, banking, currency, journal of 69, 128, 212, 292, 385, 448
Fishery, annual statement for 1864.. 134
France, taxes collected in, for 1864.. 227
France, bank returns of,.73, 132, 219, 295, 389, 454
France, Trade of, for 1864..... 406
Fulton, bridge over the Mississippi at 145

PAGE

G.

Gold fields in Canada..... 243
Gold fields in Connecticut..... 241
Gold, movements of specie and price of.....64, 116, 210, 291, 383, 447
Grain trade of the Upper Lakes..... 132
Great Britain, revenue of..... 227
Great Britain and France for 1864, trade of..... 400

H.

Hapsburg, family of, in Mexico..249, 364

I.

Interest and usuary, law respecting, considered and examined 51
Insurance companies for 1864, Marine 166
Insolvency and bankruptcy, law of, considered and examined.....100, 193
Imports of dry goods, general merchandise, &c. 126

L.

Lands, public, mines and patents.... 86
Law of Congress—the loan act of 1865 390
Law of Congress—Amendments to National Currency Law..... 389
Law of Congress—Amendments to the U. S. Internal Revenue Law..... 301
Law concerning interest and usury discussed and examined 51
Law on bankruptcy and insolvency discussed and examined.....100, 280
Law of place where contract is made 374
Law respecting ownership and transfer of ships, etc..... 439
Late victories, etc., effect on price of gold..... 370
Legal tender act—is it constitutional. 259
Legal tender and national finances.. 271
Lee, General, surrender of..... 385
Little, Jacob, life of, with engraving. 409
Lincoln, Abraham, life of, with engrav. 329
Loan Act of 1865 390
Louisiana, sugar crop of..... 394
Lumber trade of Albany, Bangor, and Toledo..... 395

M.

Marine insurance companies for 1864 161
Massachusetts bank returns 71
Maximillian in Mexico.....249, 364

PAGE

Michigan census returns..... 456
Mines, public lands and patents 86
Mississippi at Fulton, bridge over... 145
Mining statistics. Gold mining in Connecticut 241

N.

National finances, how they should be managed..... 22
Naval forces of the United States... 81
National savings and national taxation, No. 2..... 97
National banks of the U. States..153, 452
Naval ordnance 160
National finance with legal tender.. 271
National currency law, amendments of 389
Netherlands, bank of..... 106
New York, trade and commerce of the port of 117, 238
New York, canals of..... 238
New York, banks of, 68, 130, 216, 294, 387, 450
Newspaper trade..... 328
New textile 229
New York wholesale prices for 6 years 117

O.

Ohio banks, returns of.....71, 452
Oil regions, physical features of..... 336
Oil, deep and shallow..... 185
Ordnance, naval, armaments of ships of war, etc..... 160

P.

Patents, mines and public lands 86
Pacific railroad to be completed 144
Panics of the past four years 287
Peace, and its effect on prices..... 181
Petroleum-its location and production 89
Petroleum, trade review of..... 119
Petroleum, deep and shallow oil.... 185
Petroleum, physical features of the oil regions..... 336
Philadelphia banks, returns of, 69, 130, 216, 294, 387, 450
Population, etc., of Michigan..... 456
Postmaster-General, report of 158
Prices United States paper, 63, 113, 289, 384, 447
Prices of 16 articles.....61, 290, 379, 445
Prices at New York, wholesale, for six years..... 117
Prices, how to be affected by peace.. 181

PAGE

R.

Railroad and steamboat accidents... 137
Railways in Spain—The Pyrenees to be tunnelled..... 144
Railroad, Pacific, to be completed... 144
Railway shares, prices of 289, 447
Railway accidents considered—their causes and cure..... 342
Revenue, prohibitory duties 49
Reciprocity treaty—should it be continued.....75, 427
Report of the Treasury examined.35, 148
Regulations, commercial....163, 243, 460

S.

Salt business of Michigan..... 458
Sandwich Islands, commerce of..... 455
Scheldt dues, extinguishment of..... 145
Secretary of the Treasury, report of. 148
Shipping, law respecting 439
Spain, its railways—the Pyrenees to be tunnelled..... 144
Specie, movements of, and prices of gold.....64, 116, 210, 291, 383, 447
Sturgis, Wm., life of, with engraving. 169
Statistics of trade and commerce, 133, 230, 392, 455
Steamboat and railroad accidents.... 137
Stringency in the money market, and the cause..... 110
Sugar crop of Louisiana..... 394

T.

Taxation, national, how the finances should be regulated 97
Taeping rebellion—its rise and fall.. 38
Tariff, prohibitory—why the gold revenue is falling off 49
Taxes and revenue of England and France..... 227
Tariff, the new law..... 296
Tariff, decisions under..... 471
Telegraph cable, Atlantic..... 328
Textile, a new..... 329
Toledo lumber trade..... 397
Treasury report—the past and future policy 55
Trade and commerce of the port of New York 117, 238
Trade with the South, rules and regulations respecting..... 468
Treasury, report of Secretary 148
Trade in Canada, depression of..... 228
Treasury, receipts of, for year..... 111
Treaty, reciprocity 75, 427

PAGE

Treasurer's report, effect of..... 62

U.

United States, commerce between Brazil and..... 133
United States, commerce of..... 139
United States, national banks of.... 153
United States for 1864, commerce of. 198
United States, naval forces of..... 81
United States, paper & gold prices of, 63, 113, 289, 384, 447
United States currency law, amendments to..... 389
United States internal revenue law, amendments of..... 301
United States, the loan act..... 390
United States, public debt of..... 380
United States debt, how it can be paid 418
United States 7 3-10 bonds, right of conversion..... 61
United States ten-forty loan..... 111
Usury and interest, law respecting.. 51

V.

Vanderbilt, Cornelius, life of, with engraving..... 9

W.

Weed, Hon. Thurlow, life of..... 268
Whale fishery for 1864..... 134
Wool, wheat, &c., produced in Michig'n 456
Wisconsin banks, returns 71
Wool imports, etc..... 234

GEORGE W. WOOD, Printer, No. 2 Dutch Street, N. Y.

C. Vanderbilt

y
e
r
e
i-
d
e
h
r,
k
at
d
ie
e-
:o
ly
w,

al
ed
id
k
ve
ve
nd
'o-

ias
a

THE

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE

AND

COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

JANUARY, 1865.

CORNELIUS VANDERBILT.

The influence of one earnest, energetic life upon the world is scarcely appreciated. Where that life has given birth to some grand idea, we readily see the effect upon society. The inventor of the cotton gin, for instance, worked a revolution apparent to all wherever cotton cloths are made or used. But when one's life, though successful, is not thus signalized, its influence upon the present and future is not so readily appreciated. In a biography, too, we must fail to show it, for it is only now and then that the acts of even our most prominent men attain publicity. The steady flow of their lives carries with it a power felt by every one, although not always acknowledged or even known. Like the current of a river, noiseless though it be, yet making every object it touches on either bank bend beneath its influence, until the land itself is shaped by the river that thus flows through it, so the acts, views and purposes of all men, yes and the external and internal policy of the country itself, are shaped by the few who have a decided and single purpose in life, and the energy, perseverance and will faithfully to pursue it. To measure that influence—to state in every instance its extent and potency, is not, as we have already said, possible: yet by referring to their more public acts we can show, but only in part, the work that has been accomplished.

Especially is this true in the case of those eminent in the commercial world. Is not the progress and glory of this city inseparably connected with, and almost made up of, the lives and works of the merchants and commercial men who have held, and now hold, the foremost rank? Without the results they, and others like them in sister cities, have accomplished, would not the wealth of the country be still unproductive and its commerce undeveloped? Lawyers and politicians may claim and obtain the official positions, but if there is progress, the power that propels the ship must come from commercial men.

We place at the head of this article the name of one whose life has thus contributed very largely to the general prosperity of the country; a

name inseparably connected with our commercial history, and synonymous with the rapid growth of our merchant navy. His enterprise, genius and success are known and felt the world over, and we propose to follow the course of his life, briefly noting, in many instances, the motives of action as well as the acts themselves, and thus adding a valuable page to history, while furnishing incentives to young men everywhere.

The sturdy Knickerbocker habits of industry, developed so early, and forming, as it were, the corner-stone in the character of Commodore VANDERBILT, may be traced to his ancestors, who left Holland for America at an early period in the history of New York. His father, whose name was also CORNELIUS, settled on Staten Island, living very comfortably and pleasantly on his own farm. At that time the Island was divided into large estates, being worked by those living there, for the purpose of raising supplies for the city. Communication with New York was of course a necessity, and many of the Islanders, therefore, kept small sail-boats, for the purpose of carrying their products to market. As the inhabitants increased, other facilities for communication became necessary, and Mr. VANDERBILT, Sr., would, at times of leisure, undertake to convey those not having boats themselves. Out of this, and the demand for some public and regular communication, grew up a ferry, which he established in the form of a perryauger, departing every morning for the city and returning every afternoon.

In the meantime, however, and on the 27th day of May, 1794, a son, the subject of this sketch, was born to Mynheer VANDERBILT. Young CORNELIUS was not one of those sleepy babies, making no trouble (the pride of our Dutch ancestors) but very early showed that he had voice, will, muscle, and mind. As the days of his infancy merged into those of boyhood, his naturally ambitious temperament began to develope itself and assume shape. Books he did not seem to fancy. It was the practical of life rather than the theoretical that engaged his thoughts. Even thus early his aim appeared to be to strike out new and untried paths, rather than to walk along the well-worn old ones. A school was too confining for his restless nature, and neither the urgent entreaties of his mother, nor the more forcible logic of his father, could convince him of the great importance of a thorough school education. His disposition led him to draw his knowledge from another source, making nature his instructor: and so absorbed did he become in the execution of his many plans and ideas, that it was with difficulty he could find time for his meals.

But it was not until he was sixteen years of age that he entered upon his first independent business venture. Living upon the Island, being of necessity much upon the water, he early developed a fondness for that kind of life, as affording the widest scope for his ambition. Thus far he had acted for others, but now he wished to strike out for himself, and determined, therefore, to have a sail-boat of his own. He went to his father and made known his plan and desire. Little encouragement did he receive, his father deeming it rather a dangerous and uncertain business for so young a boy. Not discouraged, he continued to plead his cause with the greatest earnestness, and finally received the qualified promise that if he could accomplish a certain amount of work on the farm the money

should be furnished. The task set was no slight affair. To do it would require time—more time than he could consent to give, with his enterprise delayed. In the absence of his father, therefore, he determined to make the job a short one. Being popular with his companions in the neighborhood, young VANDERBILT imparted to them his secret, and summoned them to his aid. Meeting with a hearty response, they all went to work with a will, and soon completed the allotted task. At once he reported to his mother the successful achievement, and claimed the boat. Her aversion to his proposed business was as great as his father's, and she also tried to dissuade him. But it was of no use. His purpose was fixed, and fearing that if this cherished project fell through he might carry out his oft expressed intention of running away to sea, she gave him the hundred dollars as being the lesser evil. With the money in hand, he was soon at the Port-Richmond shore, where the selected boat was snugly moored to the dock. The purchase was made at once, and with a proud heart he took possession of his long-coveted prize. One can easily imagine the sensations of this boy of fourteen, as he first walked the deck of his little craft, and set sail for home. He was now a full-fledged captain—a man of business—dependent upon his own exertions. What visions must have danced through his head of future successes! But every picture has its shadows. As the little boat, freighted with so many hopes, was cutting its way through the water, a rock in the Kills was struck, and our, as yet, inexperienced sailor was only able to run the boat ashore before it sunk. Here was certainly a discouraging accident. Still, nothing daunted, the young captain at once brought to his service the needed assistance, and in a few hours all damage was repaired, and his little craft safe and sound at the Stapleton dock.

An important point had now been gained. No great work to be sure had been accomplished, but the means to an end were obtained. He had stepped out from under his father's care, and was the owner and captain of a boat. The world was now before him. Launched upon life's broad sea, his character must at once show itself. In every community there will be found three classes of young men: those who boldly put forth their energies and cleave for themselves a way through life; those who simply float along the play of every wind and tide; and those who sink at once. The latter class would have taken this little boat, enjoyed a pleasurable but brief existence, while indulging every folly and every passion of youth, and making a speedy shipwreck of their characters and hopes. Another, with little force of character, would have wistfully looked out upon the vast expanse before him, waiting for fortune to come, half frightened, leaning upon friends for support, and thus, by using these life-preservers, have been able just to keep his head above surrounding waves. But the hero in the strife makes good and bad fortune equally his servant. Striking always with a strong arm and a brave heart—prepared alike for failure or success—a way is soon cleared: even the most discouraging circumstances becoming subservient to his wishes. Thus, young VANDERBILT was now in a position to choose what should be his future: the question to be decided was, should he rise, float or sink. Many and varied difficulties at once beset him. Young and inexperienced as he was, he must necessarily compete with older heads, long used to the work, and with reputations made. He felt, therefore, that he could not simply float,

he must fight or fail, and feeling thus, at this early day, when but sixteen years old, he set up his first opposition line—a prophetic miniature of later efforts.

Of course, in such a position, and with such ideas, VANDERBILT could not be idle. He at once made the necessary effort to obtain business, and succeeded wonderfully. At that time the fortifications of Staten and Long Islands were being built by Government, and the carrying of labourers to and from New York furnished work for him and his perryauger, which was quite remunerative. Amid, however, these first successes one fact troubled him. The money that bought his boat came from his mother; and this being so, he could not feel that perfect independence his spirit craved. Day by day, therefore, from his first earnings, he scrupulously laid by every cent that could be saved, for the purpose of returning this sum; and but a little time elapsed before he quietly placed in his mother's lap the hundred dollars. Probably a happier, prouder child never lived than CORNELIUS VANDERBILT at that moment; and he had certainly won the right to be so.

We thus see with what spirit and earnestness, this mere boy laid hold of the stern realities before him. His life was regulated by self-imposed rules, and with a fixedness of purpose as invariable as the sun in its circuit. Among other things he determined to spend less every week than he earned. We have already seen the first fruit of this careful management; but it speedily produced other results, for very soon he was able to extend his business, by purchasing with his savings a vessel of larger dimensions than his first little craft. Thus, for three or four years, he went on daily adding to his worldly means, until on his eighteenth birth-day, he found himself part owner and captain of one of the largest perryaugers in the harbor of New York, and shortly after became also interested in one or two other smaller boats engaged in the same business. In the meantime he almost lived on the water, carrying freight and passengers, boarding ships, and doing everything else coming within his line. Not satisfied with working all day, he undertook, and continued through the whole war of 1812, to furnish supplies by night to one of the forts up the Hudson, and another at the Narrows. In fact his energy, skill and daring became so well known, and his word, when he gave it, could be relied upon so implicitly, that "Corneile, the boatman," as he was familiarly called, was sought after far and near, when any expedition particularly hazardous or important was to be undertaken. Neither wind, rain, ice nor snow ever prevented his fulfilling one of his promises. At one time, during the war, (sometime in September, 1813,) the British fleet had endeavored to penetrate the port during a severe South-easterly storm just before day, but were repulsed from Sandy Hook. After the canonading was over, and the garrison at Fort Richmond had returned to quarters, it was highly important that some of the officers should proceed to headquarters, to report the occurrence, and obtain the necessary reinforcements against another attack. The storm was a fearful one—still the work must be done, and all felt that there was but one person capable of undertaking it. Accordingly, VANDERBILT was sought out, and upon being asked if he could take the party up, he replied promptly—"*Yes, but I shall have to carry them under water part of the way!*" They went with him, and when they landed at Coffee-House Slip, there was not a dry thread in the party. The next day the garrison was reinforced.

VANDERBILT also showed in these earlier days, what he has frequently exemplified in his later life, that he was very tenacious of his rights, and determined that no one should infringe them. On one occasion, during the same war, while on his way to the city with a load of soldiers from the forts at the Narrows, he was hailed by a boat coming out from the shore, near the Quarantine. Seeing an officer on board, young VANDERBILT allowed it to approach him; but as it came nearer, he saw that it belonged to one of his leading competitors, and that the owner himself was with the officer. Still he awaited their approach, preparing to defend himself in case of any unauthorized interference. No sooner, however, were they alongside of his boat than the officer jumped on board, and ordered the soldiers ashore with him in the other boat, for inspection, etc. Young VANDERBILT seeing that the whole affair was a trick to transfer his passengers to his competitor, at once told the officer that the men should not move, that his order should not be obeyed. The military man, almost bursting with rage, hastily drew his sword, as if about to avenge his insulted dignity, when young VANDERBILT quickly brought him, sword and all, to the deck. It did not take him many minutes more to rid himself of the officer and his companion, and quickly getting under way again his soldiers were soon landed, without further molestation, at the Whitehall dock.

But we have not room to dwell longer on these boyish exploits. They are important, however, as they forcibly illustrate the life and character of the man. Thus, the labors of young VANDERBILT having been rewarded with success, he now felt that the time had come when he might prudently carry out a long cherished wish. Having previously wooed and won Miss SOPHIA JOHNSON, of Port Richmond, Staten Island, they were married on the 19th of December, 1813. They settled temporarily on the Island, remaining there till the fall of 1814, when they moved to New York. About this time VANDERBILT became the master and owner of the new perryauger Dread, just launched, then by far the finest and largest craft traversing the bay of New York. In the summer of 1815 he built, in connection with his brother-in-law, DE FOREST, a schooner remarkably large for her day. This vessel justly elicited the praise of others, and the pride and satisfaction of its owners. It was called the Charlotte, was commanded by DE FOREST, and profitably employed as a lighter, carrying freights between numerous home ports. Thus up to the year 1817, with varied experience, but always with success, VANDERBILT continued interested in the business we have indicated, improving the construction of vessels, and adding to his reputation among nautical men. Seven years were passed in this manner, from the time he was sixteen till some months after his twenty-third birth-day, laboring incessantly. During the last four years he had laid up nine thousand dollars of his earnings; yet his ambition was by no means satisfied. A new element had within a few years been made subservient to the purposes of navigation, and quick to see the importance of this powerful agent steam, as thus applied, he determined to devote himself to exploring and developing its mysteries, as soon as an opportunity could be obtained. About this time he became acquainted with THOMAS GIBBONS, of New Jersey, a large capitalist, then extensively interested in the transportation of passengers between New York and Philadelphia. Very soon GIBBONS proposed to take him into his employ, and offered him the position of captain of a little steamer, at a salary of one thousand dollars a year. For

one who had always been his own master, and was then making enough to lay up nine thousand dollars in four years, such a position would appear to offer few inducements. And if he had studied alone his present interests, certainly he would have declined it at once. But as we have already stated, he was not acting with the expectation of obtaining an immediate return—he saw with his clear head the future triumphs of steam, and determined to participate in, if not direct them.

With such motives, in the Fall of 1817, VANDERBILT entered upon the duties of captain of his first steamboat. This boat was so little that its owner soon after changed its name, re-christening it "The Mouse of the Mountain." In a few months he was promoted, and put in charge of the Bellona, a much larger boat, being then just completed and ready for her trial trip. This vessel was at once employed on the Philadelphia line, in carrying passengers between New York and New Brunswick. About this time VANDERBILT left New York for Elizabethport, and after a residence at that place of a few months, moved with his family to New Brunswick, his business engagements requiring him to spend his nights there. It will be remembered that the passengers *en rout* for Philadelphia remained at New Brunswick over night, to be in readiness for the early stage to Trenton, where they again took boat for Philadelphia. Mr. GIBBONS himself owned the Stage House, where the passengers then remained over night, and of course the proper reception and treatment of travellers was an indespensable condition to the prosperity of the whole rout. He, therefore, having become unfortunate in the management of his hotel, shortly after VANDERBILT moved to New Brunswick, offered it to his new captain, free of rent, if he would, in addition to his other duties, take charge of it. VANDERBILT finally accepted this proposition, and continued at the head of the house during the remainder of his business connection with Mr. GIBBONS, conducting it so successfully that it proved a source of considerable profit. In 1827, while still in the employ of Mr. GIBBONS, he leased of him the New York and Elizabethport ferry for seven years, and ran it on his own account. At the end of that lease it was renewed for seven years more. This enterprize was managed so skilfully that it also brought him in large returns, although previous to his taking the lease, the working of the ferry had proved unremunerative.

In the meantime VANDERBILT began to think it was time for him to act for himself again. He had been in the employ of Mr. GIBBONS for twelve years, and during those years had, with such faithfulness, care and persevering industry, watched over the interests intrusted to him, that the line rapidly advanced in prosperity until then it was netting nearly forty thousand dollars a year. Every new boat constructed under his supervision, was made better and fleeter than its predecessors, enabling him to drive away all opposition, while his quick and active mind took hold of every new circumstance arising, making it subservient to his purposes.

To understand some of the difficulties with which VANDERBILT was surrounded, at the time he first became captain of the Bellona, we must recall the early history of steam navigation. It will be remembered that in 1798, an act was passed by the Legislature of New York repealing a previous act, and transferring to Mr. LIVINGSTON the exclusive privilege of navigating the waters of the State by steam. This act was from time to time continued, and FULTON was finally included in its provisions. In 1807,

after the trial trip of the Clermont, the Legislature, by another act, extended this privilege, and in the following year subjected any vessel propelled by steam to forfeiture, which should enter the waters of the State without the license of those grantees. These acts were in force when VANDERBILT entered the employ of Mr. GIBBONS, and the Philadelphia line violated the privilege thus granted, in case the boats stopped at the city of New York; and, hence, for a long time, whenever VANDERBILT ran a steamer in on the New York side of the river, as he was instructed by the owner to do, he was arrestsd if he could be found. As an expedient, to avoid arrest, he taught a lady how to stear the boat, and when it neared the New York dock, he would turn it over to her charge, and disappear himself; so that the officers were frequently compelled to return their writs against him "*non est.*" At this time, it will also be remembered, the New York Court of Errors had pronounced these acts constitutional, the New Jersey Legislature had passed retaliatory acts, and a suit against GIBBONS was in progress in the United States Court. To make this line prosperous under such difficulties, and against such opposition, was, of course, no ordinary task. Still it was at once accomplished as we have stated. At length, and in 1824, the GIBBONS case was decided, Chief-Justice MARSHALL delivering the opinion of the Court, to the effect that, under the Constitution of the United States, no State could grant an exclusive right of navigation, by steam or otherwise, on any of the principal rivers of the country; and, as a consequence, navigation on the Hudson and elsewhere became free to all. With this obstacle removed, VANDERBILT went to work with renewed vigor, steadily pushing forward his employer's enterprise, until it produced the remarkable revenue noted above.

Thus having labored faithfully for others with such brilliant results, he now felt at liberty to look after his own interests more exclusively, and to commence business again on his own account. Therefore, in 1829, he informed Mr. GIBBONS of his plan to leave him.—"You must not," he replied, "I cannot carry on this line a day without you." He then offered to increase his salary to five thousand dollars, or more, if money was his object. But VANDERBILT had thought well before he decided on the step he was about to take, and at once refused the offer. Finally, GIBBONS told him he could not run the line without him, and that he might have the Philadelphia rout, saying, "There, VANDERBILT, take all this property, and pay me for it as you make the money." This tempting offer was also declined, for he was unwilling to put himself under such an obligation to any one, although fully sensible of the great kindness that prompted it. Thus ended VANDERBILT'S engagement with Mr. GIBBONS, and soon after Mr. GIBBONS sold out the line to other parties, finding that the life of it was gone.

Once again the captain was now his own master. He had served a long time in a severe school to make himself thoroughly acquainted with the details and practical management of steam navigation. The next twenty years of his life we must pass over rapidly. At once applying himself to the work before him, with the same wisdom and that earnest, steadfast zeal he had ever shown, successful results followed. During this period he built a very large number of steamboats, and established steamboat lines on the Hudson, the Sound and elsewhere, in opposition to corporations and companies having a monopoly of the trade, and making travel too expensive to

be enjoyed by the many. His plan was always to build better and faster boats than his competitors, to run them at their lowest paying rates, and thus furnish passengers with the best and cheapest accommodations. That he has made enemies in doing this we will admit, but that society at large has been greatly benefitted thereby, we fearlessly assert. We do not claim that VANDERBILT by his every act has sought alone the public welfare —that he has never allowed himself to be influenced by self interest—but let the man that is without sin in this respect (if sin it be) cast the first stone. Besides, as we have already said, the great result of his opposition has been decidedly good to the country. Commercial growth presumes rivalry, and there can be no healthy trade without competition. Brand every man with approbrious epithets who undertakes to compete with another, and their will be an end to all enterprize—an end to our prosperity and growth as a nation. The property of individuals or corporations may suffer in the conflict, but the country at large does not and should not care for that, so long as it is better served—so long as the great result is progress.

Thus engaged, these twenty years were past, contributing greatly to the rapid growth and development of steam navigation. In the meantime, the gold of California had been discovered, and the rush of passengers and the pushing forward of merchandise to that remote portion of our country necessitated the building of the Panama Railroad, and the establishment of the Pacific Mail Steamship Company to run in connection with it.* The immense travel over this route led VANDERBILT to determine to seek another transit route, in connection with which he could put on a competing line between New York and California. With this intention on the 12th of August, 1849, he obtained from the government of Nicaragua a charter for a ship canal and transit company. This charter was subsequently amended by additional stipulations granting to CORNELIUS VANDERBILT and his associates the exclusive right to transport passengers and merchandise between the two oceans by means of a railroad, steamboats, or otherwise, and separating the transit grant from the canal grant. In 1850 VANDERBILT built the Prometheus, and left in her on Christmas day of that year for Nicaragua. The party were three weeks exploring the region, and during the whole of that time they were either on foot, on horse-back, or in an open boat, satisfying themselves of the practicability of the route. The original plan was to make Realegjo the Pacific port, but finally the then but little known harbor of San Juan del Sur was fixed upon. Thus having explored and mapped out the transit route from ocean to ocean, he at once went to work to put the line in operation. Having built the little steamboat Director to run up the San Juan River, he towed it all the way to Nicaragua, and personally superintended the laborious, wearisome, and difficult task of taking her up over the rapids. This accomplished, the transit company was formed, the route was opened, and a semi-monthly line to California, via Nicaragua, was established in July, 1851. We can scarcely appreciate now the difficulties of this undertaking; yet all will agree that it required a man with a clear head, and a will that never yields to obsticles, to plan and execute it. Under his management, also, the route became a favorite one, and the price of passage between New York and San Francisco

* The Railroad was surveyed in 1849, and finished in 1855. The P. M. steamships ran in 1848.

was permanently reduced from six hundred to three hundred dollars. He constructed very many first-class steamers for both the Pacific and Atlantic sides of this line, and it was continued in successful operation until January 1st, 1853, when VANDERBILT sold his steamers on both sides to the Transit Company. After that he acted as the company's agent for a few months, and then his connection with it ceased, until January, 1856, when he was chosen president. In the meantime, WILLIAM WALKER had landed in Nicaragua, and VANDERBILT having taken ground against his "filibusterism," and refused to carry his men and munitions, WALKER issued a decree on the 18th of February, 1856, annulling all grants to the company and the acts of incorporation. After this there was a long series of plots and counter plots, all of which would be interesting in a history of Wall Street, but we have not room for it here. We will add, however, that very many unsuccessful attempts were made by different parties to obtain the right to open this route, until finally, when every difficulty of that kind had been removed, it was found to have become almost impracticable—a sand bar having formed at the mouth of the San Juan River.*

About the time VANDERBILT sold out his interest in the Nicaragua California line he had laid the keel of a new steamship, to be called the North Star. She was built, as all his vessels have been, under his own supervision in a very complete manner, and splendidly fitted up with all that could tend to gratify or please. He had now become a man of great wealth. From the little boy of sixteen with his hundred dollar sail-boat, he had gradually but surely crept up, accumulating and so using his accumulations, that now his vessels plowed almost every sea, and his enterprising spirit was felt in every part of our country. It has never been his plan to put away his money in a chest, nor yet to simply invest it, but rather, in the fullest sense of the word, to use it. Consequently, it is said that to-day he employs more men, directly and indirectly, than any other person in the land. Having, then, from so small a beginning, worked out such great results, he proposed in May, 1853, to make the tour of Europe, with his family, in the North Star. The undertaking was a novel one, and yet, as has been said, in some respects a grand one. By means of this excursion a display of American enterprise and skill was made which was of essential service to the country. But besides that, for a single individual, without rank, without prestige, without national authority, to build, equip, and man such a noble specimen of naval architecture, and to maintain it before all the courts of Europe with dignity and style, was an extremely happy and suggestive illustration to the old world of what the energies of man may accomplish in this new land, where they are allowed to have full play, uncramped by oppressive social institutions, or absurd social traditions. CORNELIUS VANDERBILT is a natural, legitimate product of America. With us, all citizens have full permission to run the race in which he has gained such large prizes, while in other countries they are trammeled by a thousand restrictions.

For the purposes, then, of this excursion the North Star was built and furnished. This was the first steamer fitted with a beam engine that ever attempted to cross the Atlantic. Many steamship men considered engines thus built impracticable for ocean steamers, but VANDERBILT, by his experi-

* This route is, however, now used, passengers being landed in small boats.

ments on this and many other vessels, has, we think, established the fact, that they are eminently suited for sea purposes as well as river navigation. But we shall not attempt any description of the capabilities, or of the beauty and elegance of this vessel as it then was.* It is enough to say it was perfect in all departments. Thursday, the 19th of May, 1853, was the time fixed for sailing, but as she was leaving her berth the strong current of the ebb tide caught her on the quarter, and swung her upon a reef of rocks at the foot of Walnut Street. The damage being slight, however, was soon repaired, and on the following day she was on her way to Southampton. To give an account of this excursion, or even a small portion of what was seen or was said, would require more space than we can spare, and besides is foreign to our purpose. In almost every country visited they were received by all the authorities with great cordiality, as well as great attention. At Southampton the North Star formed the topic of conversation in all circles, and the party was honored with a splendid banquet, at which about two hundred persons sat down. When in Russia, the Grand Duke CONSTANTINE and the Chief Admiral of the Russian Navy visited the ship. The former solicited and obtained permission to take drafts of it, which duty was ably performed by a corps of Russian engineers. In Constantinople, in Gibraltar, and Malta, the authorities were also very cordial and polite. But in Leghorn (under the government of Austria) the vessel was subjected to constant surveillance, guard boats patrolling about her day and night—the authorities not being able to believe that the expedition was one of

---

* We give the following, however, from articles published in English papers after the arrival of the party at Southampton, showing the opinions, on these points, of those who are certainly not inclined to flatter Americans.

In regard to the peculiarities of the vessel, the *London Times* of June 3, 1853, says:

"Most of the old fangled notions of builders of English ocean steamers are completely discarded in the North Star; and although it may be questionable whether the adoption of so much of the principle of the American lake and river boats into the uses of trans-Atlantic steamships is, in the long run desirable, yet it is certain that this beautiful ship is in the highest degree worthy of attention. * * * * Her model is the perfection of nautical beauty, and gives promise of the highest speed at the least expenditure of motive power."

In regard to the interior of the vessel the same article says:

"The fittings of the cabin are the especial theme of admiration of most of the visitors, and it is difficult to believe that any royal or imperial yacht could be supplied with greater luxuries or conveniencies, or with greater taste and elegance."

The *London Herald* of the same date says:

"The North Star is one of the finest steam yatchs ever seen. She is fitted up in the most gorgeous style."

The *London Chronicle* of June 9, 1853, says:

"The saloons and furniture appeared yesterday magnificent in the extreme. Everything on board the North Star is American, and it is very evident that in many of the useful and ornamental arts the Americans are our equals in point of taste and skill."

The *London News* of June 3, 1853, has the following:

"Handsome flights of stairs lead to the saloon, which is larger and more magnificent than the saloon of any ocean steamer afloat, and even surpasses in splendor the Queen's yatch, the Victoria and Albert. The carpets and furniture are superb, etc."

We might multiply these extracts indefinitely, but have given enough to convey an idea of the vessel in the estimation of Europeans.

pleasure, but imagining that the steamer was loaded with munitions and arms for insurrectionary purposes. Thus, after a very charming and delightful excursion of four months, they returned home, reaching New York September 23, 1853, having sailed a distance of fifteen thousand miles. This certainly was an expedition worthy and characteristic of the man who undertook it, and met with that decided success which his efforts ever seem to ensure.

This visit of Commodore VANDERBILT to Europe satisfied him that the interests of our growing commerce required that the facilities of communication between Europe and America should be increased. Consequently, soon after his return he made an offer to the Postmaster General to run a semi-monthly line to England, alternating with the Collins line, carrying the mails on the voyage out and home for fifteen thousand dollars. It will be remembered that the Cunard line was at that time withdrawn from the mail service on account of the Crimean war, and his plan, therefore, was to provide for weekly departures, filling up those thus left vacant. This proposition, however, was not accepted; nevertheless, not willing to abandon the idea, on the 21st of April, 1855, he established an independent line between New York and Havre. For this purpose he built several new steamships, and among them the Ariel, and finally the Vanderbilt, and the line was kept up with great spirit and very successfully. Subsequent to the building of the Vanderbilt, there was an exciting contest of speed between the boats of the different lines. The Arabia and Persia, of the Cunard, the Baltic and Atlantic, of the Collins, and the Vanderbilt of the Independent line, were the competitors. Great interest was taken in the contest, as all will remember, but the Vanderbilt came out victorious, making the shortest time ever made by any European or American steamer.

The subsequent history of this vessel, and the use which is now being made of it, is well known. In the Spring of 1862, when the administration needed, immediately, large additions to its navy, to aid in carrying on its military operations, (an occasion which many were too eager to turn to their own advantage, at their country's expense,) Commodore VANDERBILT illustrated the nature of his whole-souled patriotism, by making a free gift of this splendid ship to the Government. The following resolution of thanks, passed by Congress, and approved by the President, January 28, 1864, is a fitting, though late, acknowledgement of his magnificent gift:

Whereas, CORNELIUS VANDERBILT, of New York, did, during the Spring of eighteen hundred and sixty-two, make a free gift to his imperilled country of his new and staunch steamship "Vanderbilt," of five thousand tons burthen, built by him with the greatest care, of the best material, at a cost of eight hundred thousand dollars, which steamship has ever since been actively employed in the service of the republic against the rebel devastations of her commerce; and whereas the said CORNELIUS VANDERBILT has in no manner sought any requital of this magnificent gift, nor any official recognition thereof,—Therefore,

Resolved by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That the thanks of Congress be presented to CORNELIUS VANDERBILT, for his unique manifestation of a fervid and large-souled patriotism.

SEC. 2. *And be it further resolved*, That the President of the United States be re-

quested to cause a gold medal to be struck, which shall fitly embody an attestation of the nation's gratitude for this gift; which medal shall be forwarded to CORNELIUS VANDERBILT—a copy of it being made and deposited for preservation in the library of Congress.

How appropriate it seems that the man who has spent his life in developing the commerce of the country, should give this, his best effort, for the defence of that commerce! He may be sure his country will never forget it.

But time would fail us were we to attempt to speak of all the prominent acts, and varied interests, in steamboats and steamships, of Commodore VANDERBILT during his life, or even for the last few years—nor is it necessary. Wherever a line could be established profitably, he has always been ready to undertake it. He has built and owned, exclusively himself, upwards of one hundred steamboats and steamships,* and has never had the misfortune to loose one of them by any accident. He has extensive machine shops, where he makes his own machinery, according to his own ideas, and his vessels have been generally built by days' work, under his constant supervision, and from plans entirely his own. Consequently, there have never been wanting those who have predicted disaster at every new launch. The North Star, we were told, would certainly go to the bottom, with all the excursionists on board. The Ariel could never cross the ocean; while the Vanderbilt was a dead failure. Still they have all managed to sail regularly, safely and speedily. It is his practice to employ the most deserving and trustworthy commanders, and never to insure a vessel or cargo of any kind —believing that good vessels and good commanders are the best kind of insurance; and, more than that, if corporations can make money in the business of insurance, he can.

His time and money have not, however, been alone employed in developing the steamship interest. Railroads, and all other commercial enterprises, have received a large share of his attention. In fact, wherever his money would do the most work, there he has ever placed it; thus greatly extending and invigorating every commercial interest. Of late years, however, and especially since the commencement of this war, he has been gradually retiring from the shipping business, and within a few months has sold his last steamship, transferring a much greater proportion of his wealth to railroads, until now he is the largest railroad proprietor in the United States. The steamboat king is thus turned into a railroad king, as Wall

---

* The following are the names of the principal steamboats and steamships built by him:—

Steamships.—Prometheus, Daniel Webster, Star of the West, Northern Light, North Star, Granada, Ariel, Vanderbilt, Ocean Queen, Galveston, Opelousa, Magnolia, Metagorda, Champion, Costa Rica, Port Jackson, New York.

Steamboats.—The Citizen, Cinderella, West Chester, Union, Nimrod, Champion, Lexington, Cleopatra, Augusta, Clifton, C. Vanderbilt, New Champion, Commodore, Gladiator, Staten Islander, Huguenot, Sylph, Hunchback, Red Jacket, Kill Von Kull, Westfield, Clifton No. 2, Westfield No. 2, Clifton No. 3, Cornelius Vanderbilt, Wilmington, North Carolina, Geo. Dudley, Traveler, Director, Central America, Clayton, Bulwer.

Street well understands. His property has, in the meantime, accumulated rapidly. Perhaps there are two or three men wealthier than he in New York city —but no more; and all of this vast wealth is the product of his own labor.

Were we asked the secret of this success, we could answer it no better than by pointing to the history of his early life, which we have already given. As a boy, we have found him an indefatigable worker, ever exhibiting remarkable judgment, inflexible will and untiring perseverance; full of enterprise, self-dependent and self-reliant. The prize, therefore, was clearly his from the beginning. GEORGE STEVENSON would never allow that he possessed any faculty pre-eminently except perseverance. We cannot agree with him in this estimate of himself, and yet admit that the man who is never discouraged, even though the prospect be dark and gloomy, possesses one great requisite for success, and has an immense advantage over his timid neighbors. But still, one may walk forever on the wrong road and not reach the desired haven; the power to judge correctly is, therefore, as necessary as perseverance. In this particular Commodore VANDERBILT has ever excelled. He appears to possess an intuitive judgement of men and things. Consequently, all his plans are first carefully considered; every possible contingency provided against; so that when he executes them he strikes with a strong arm, because a confident one. We see this illustrated in the first efforts of the boy, and in every conflict and undertaking of the man. With, then, such judgment, and with the energy and perseverance he has ever exhibited, unusual success was the natural result.

Yet amidst his close and continued application to the business of life, the kindly feelings of childhood have remained unchanged. The eagerness with which he has anticipated every desire of an aged mother, is only an evidence of the heart within him. He was as devoted to her in manhood, as she to him in early youth. The pretty home-like cottage constructed for her under his eye, and in accordance with the taste of both, surrounded by luxuriant vines and evergreens, was a continual joy to her during her life. There, near her old home, and overlooking the water, the scene of his early exploits, she happily lived, tenderly cared for, and only a few years since as happily and peacefully died. How consistent with all his conduct towards her was the thoughtfulness which prompted him, upon returning from his triumphal tour of Europe, to stop the steamer in passing up the bay, and give that mother his first greetings, and receive her welcome home. Few, as they read at that time the newspaper accounts of his arrival, could have failed to notice, among the more exciting items, the statement of this simple fact, and to feel that it was an honor to the son as well as to the mother.

This same kindliness of feeling he has always exhibited in every other position in life. Deceit and underhand dealing he has ever quickly detected and thoroughly hated, but frankness and honesty of speech and act have been sure to find a ready and kind response. During all his contests with men, he has exemplified the truth of this, ever being ready to act with the greatest generosity, when thus approached. A certain captain, interested in a line of boats to Hartford, took steps which VANDERBILT considered dishonorable, to injure his line of boats to the same place, and therefore VANDERBILT determined to run him off, and did it. About that time, Captain BROOKS, who is an intimate friend of the Commodore, met the defeated party and asked him how he got on. "Why, I have put my hand in VANDERBILT'S mouth, and of course I must give up," he replied. "But,"

said BROOKS, "go and see him, and if you are frank to him, he will be generous to you." "Go!" said he, "he would not see me." Yet afterwards he concluded to go, and, sure enough, he came back not only with the difficulty healed, but with obligations conferred, which he will very long remember.

Many other similar instances might be mentioned, but it is needless. All remember the account of the storm which overtook the Ariel in 1859, on her voyage from Havre. After the vessel had received severe damage from the fury of the gale, and those in command were exerting themselves to their utmost to avert the destruction that threatened, a tremendous sea broke upon the forward deck, causing a fatal injury to Captain LUDLOW. He only revived sufficiently to say a few words, the last of which were, "Tell the Commodore I died at the post of duty." These words proving, as they do, the unflinching devotion of Captain LUDLOW, speak also very strongly in praise of the one to whom the message was sent. The man who can inspire another with so noble a sense of the trust and responsibility committed to him, must possess great warmth of heart as well as strength of mind.

THE NATIONAL FINANCES.

BY HON. AMASA WALKER.

Two things are alike indispensable in war, men and money. So said the great JULIUS before the Christian era, and if true then, how much more so now.

The expenses of war increase as civilization and the arts advance, and, as these are rapidly progressing, so are the expenditures incident to war. An old line-of-battle-ship, such as those with which NELSON fought at the Nile, cost a hundred thousand pounds, but a "Warrior," a modern iron-clad, requires a million sterling. A forty-eight pounder was once a formidable gun, but now we talk familiarly of shot weighing half a ton. In time of peace, a standing army costs one thousand dollars per man annually; in time of war, vastly more.

Such being the case, the finances of a nation become a matter equal in interest to that of its military force. The two cannot be separated; the latter is dependent on the former. You may, indeed, have money without men, but cannot have men without money. To every one who can comprehend the condition of our national finances at the present time, they become a matter of greater anxiety than the military resources of the government.

Our finances are depressed; from what cause?

They ought to be restored; in what way?

These two questions we propose to answer.

That the finances are depressed, cannot be a matter of dispute. The price of gold at the time of writing this is quoted at 240. One thousand dollars in gold will purchase $2,400 of United States bonds bearing in-

terest at six per cent, payable in coin. This is sufficient evidence of the great depression of the public stocks.

In examining into the causes of this extraordinary depression we shall endeavor to speak plainly. Deception is not patriotism, and the good of the country does not require false statements, or specious arguments. It is true of a nation as of an individual, that nothing is gained by self delusion. The individual who finds himself embarrassed, if he is a wise man, will look carefully into his affairs, and ascertain, as near as possible, just how he stands. He will exercise the utmost scrutiny to know the best and worst of his condition. He will not hesitate, or fear to do this. Just so should it be in regard to national difficulties.

In order to accomplish the object proposed it will be necessary to give a brief history of our financial operations since the commencement of the war.

Many false statements have been made in regard to the condition of the Treasury at the time Mr. CHASE came into office. It has been said that the country was then in a very flourishing condition, "the Treasury well supplied, the national revenue abundant." All this is untrue. The national Treasury was empty. It had been robbed. It was deranged in all its departments. There was no adequate system of taxation, and the revenue from customs had been almost annihilated. The six per cent stocks were sold as low as 83 cents; five per cent at 75 cents. The public debt was $100,000,000.

And yet under these circumstances, a fearful avalanche of expenditure was hurled upon the Treasury. An army of 500,000 men was to be raised, armed, equipt, and supported. No financier in all history ever had such responsibilities to meet as Secretary CHASE. The labors that devolved upon a COLBERT, NECKAR, CARNOT, or PITT, were light compared with those of the American Minister of Finance.

No public man in the nation practically unacquainted with the laws of currency and finance, was perhaps better qualified to meet the crisis than Mr. CHASE. His character and antecedents inspired universal confidence, and his personal appearance and bearing were in the highest degree favorable to the successful discharge of the duties that devolved upon him.

THE BANKS LOAN THEIR WHOLE CAPITAL TO THE GOVERNMENT.

But under such depressing and difficult circumstances, what could the Secretary do? As there was no money in the Treasury he must go abroad and get it. He went to the banks of the three great commercial cities. Where else could he go? The banks responded in the most prompt and patriotic manner. Their generous conduct ought never to be forgotten. They loaned $50,000,000, and when that was gone $150,000,000 more—finally, indeed, they loaned *all their capital* to the Government; for the next annual returns will doubtless show that the banks of the loyal States hold a larger amount of stocks than their aggregate capital; not that every bank has loaned all its capital in this way, but some have loaned much more, so that in the aggregate, we doubt not it is strictly true, that the banks hold a greater amount of governmental securities than the sum total of their capital stock.

But all this amount, so liberally furnished, was but a small part of what

was needful to meet the demand of the war, and by authority of Congress, Treasury notes (greenbacks) were issued. In this manner matters went on quite comfortably until the last day of 1861, when the Government and banks suspended specie payment.

MR. CHASE UNJUSTLY CENSURED.

Blame has been thrown upon Mr. CHASE for this suspension, but quite unjustly. That he might by some arrangement with the banks, in regard to the circulation of their notes, have postponed the suspension for a short time, we do not doubt; but it could not have been long avoided. Mr. CHASE had a broken down currency to start with. The banks of the United States on the 1st of January, 1861, had $459,000,000 of immediate indebtedness, while they held but $87,000,000 of specie, equal to but 19 cents on the dollar. How was it possible to go through a great war with a currency of so little strength? It could not be done. Suspension was inevitable.

The Government and banks having stopped specie payments, a new state of things was inaugurated. At first the banks contracted their engagements, in view of a speedy resumption, but the Government went on issuing its notes, as it was obliged to do, and it soon became evident that no resumption would take place. The banks, therefore, changed their policy, and increased their own issues.

RISE OF PREMIUM ON GOLD.

The currency of course was expanded, and in a short time, say in about two months, there began to be a small premium on gold. In June it had advanced to 2½ per cent, and from that time rose rapidly. The Government continued to issue greenbacks to meet the pressing exigencies of the nation, the banks issued their notes to increase their dividends, and between them both, on the 1st day of December, 1862, they had carried the premium up to 33½ per cent.

This was an alarming state of things. All who could appreciate the condition of the currency felt it to be so. An important crisis had arrived, and it was as certain as anything could be, that the financial policy of the Government must be changed, or national insolvency would ultimately be the consequence.

CONGRESS ASSEMBLES.

This was perhaps the gloomiest hour of the great struggle. Every thing seemed adverse to the national cause, and its best friends were despondent. Congress assembled. The members felt the solemnity of the crisis, and the majority were ready to do anything which the Secretary of the Treasury should recommend. Bold and efficient measures were indispensable, and had such been brought forward by Mr. CHASE, they would have been carried, for there was no lack of confidence in the Secretary, or want of cordiality between the different branches of the Government.

Up to this point the management of Mr. CHASE had secured as much success as could reasonably have been expected. He had used a feeble and defective bank currency wisely, and had issued the Government notes only as the most imperative necessity required. But this course could be

safely pursued no longer. The frightful premium on gold of 33½ per cent was an unmistakeable indication, that although he had been able to furnish thus far the funds required to carry on the war, it was a temporizing policy which should no longer be followed. Unless the rise in the price of gold, and of course of all other commodities, could be arrested, the Government would grow weaker and weaker.

The credit of every Government is more or less depressed in time of war. It has always been, and always must be so. The expenditures are vast, the consumption of capital rapid, the duration of the contest always uncertain, the fortune of war constantly varying, and the final results wholly unknown. It is not possible that public credit should be unaffected by such adverse circumstances. And this must be especially true of a Government suddenly plunged into the most fearful conflict in human history. The wonder is not that the credit of the nation suffered so much, but that it suffered so little—that the capitalists of the country responded so cheerfully and heartily.

Had the bank currency of the country been reliable at the commencement of the war, it might have been kept so without difficulty, and there would, of course, have been no premium on gold. The prices of all commodities being determined by a correct standard, the national expenditures would have been lessened, and whatever of depreciation there really was in the national credit, would have shown itself in the discount at which Government bonds would have been negotiated.

THE GOLD PREMIUM HAS TWO ELEMENTS.

But it was far otherwise, and a heavy premium on gold and corresponding rise in prices were the necessary consequence. It is important to understand that this premium on gold, so irresistable in its influence, in the present case, is composed of two elements; first, that which arises from a redundant currency; secondly, that which comes from the depreciation of the public credit incident to a state of war. But from whichever cause it may arise, its effects upon the national finances are equally unfavorable. These effects we must notice.

EFFECTS OF THIS PREMIUM.

1*st. Effect on prices.* All commodities advance in price as the standard by which they are measured declines in value. When it requires two and a-half dollars of the currency to purchase one dollar in gold all commodities will advance in proportion—that is two and a-half times above their natural price.

2*d. Effect on governmental expenditures.* These are increased in the same proportion, and the Treasury is therefore obliged to disburse twice and a-half as much as would be required if its purchases were made with a currency equivalent to gold—that is, with a sound or convertible currency.

3*d. The effect on the national debt.* That is growing twice and a-half as fast as it would be if the standard were gold instead of paper, or mere credit. Debt to the amount of one dollar is created for every 40 cents of value received by the Government—certainly a wasteful mode of conducting the most stupendous war the world has ever seen.

4th. The effect on labor. The wages of the laborer are not raised as much as the commodities which he consumes. Wages are higher than they would be under a value currency, but not as high in proportion as all articles of commerce. Why is this? For the reason that for all commodities there is both an actual and a speculative demand, while for labor there is only the actual demand. The speculative demand always enhances the price of property, but the wages of labor cannot be bought up and held like flour or coffee for a rise, and, therefore, it is that the laborer is certain to suffer from any inflation of the currency which induces speculation.

5th. Effect on imports. A redundant currency always increases importation, especially of luxuries, and causes a demand for gold for exportation. It is commonly supposed that importations are greatly influenced by tariffs; but the statistics of the national Treasury show indisputably that importations are governed by the currency. The larger the volume of the currency the greater the amount of foreign imports. Nothing is more certain than the operation of this law.

6th. The effect on speculation. As we have already intimated, a redundant currency induces speculative operations, and these become wild and extravagant as the quantity becomes excessive. It is a certain and inevitable consequence which cannot be avoided. It has always been, and always will be so. It is an effect. Many persons denounce speculation and the speculator, but that is entirely idle. The thing to be denounced is the cause. Every man and woman, in every sphere of life, may, and in fact, does speculate.

When prices were constantly rising from day to day, and the prudent housewife sent to the grocery for five pounds of tea instead of one, because "every thing is rising," she speculated as truly as the grocer who purchased fifty chests of tea instead of ten, for the same reason. Under such great excitement as a vast inflation of the currency causes, it may be literally said, that speculation is universal, and its effects highly prejudicial to the public morals and public interest; but remove the cause, and you remove the evil. Preserve a sound currency and speculative gambling will be almost unknown. With these remarks upon the effects of a premium on gold we return to our review of the national finances, and would recal the condition of things on the 1st day of December, 1862, when the 37th Congress assembled for its last session.

WHAT THE SECRETARY ASKED FOR.

As we have before said, it was a dark hour in our history, and it was evident to all who could understand the signs of the times, that the financial policy of the Government should be greatly changed.

The first object should have been reduce the currency, and bring back gold to par. This was a *sine qua non;* yet the Secretary had no proposal of the kind to make, but in the bill "to provide ways and means for the support of the Government," he wished for loans, Treasury notes on interest, Treasury notes not on interest (greenbacks,) fractional currency, and subsequently, for a system of National Banks.

LOANS GRANTED.

The bill was debated through the session, but finally loans to the amount

of $900,000,000, 10-40 coupons, 6 per cent, payable in coin were authorized. This was well. Coin had been previously given for interest, and it was not practicable then, perhaps, to change the policy, but it was nevertheless a mistaken one at the outset. The Government should never have recognized any difference between its own notes and specie. Greenbacks should have been sufficiently good for all purposes, for the soldier and the capitalist, the importer and the manufacturer.

TREASURY NOTES.

Another proposition was for $300,000,000 of Treasury notes of ten dollars and upwards, bearing interest, payable semi-annually in coin at the rate of one and a-half cent per day, or 5.47 per annum.

When this measure was brought forward it was objected by a member from Massachusetts, that the rate of interest was an unusual one, to which the people were not accustomed, and was less than the common rate, and therefore would not be satisfactory; that the interest was payable semi-annually, which, on small notes, would be inconvenient and expensive; was payable in coin when it should be payable in lawful money.

COMPOUND INTEREST NOTES PROPOSED.

Instead of this, the objector proposed—

1st. That the notes should be issued payable in three years, principal and interest.

2d. That they should bear six per cent compound interest.

3d. That principal and interest should be paid in lawful money.

4th. That interest for each six months should be computed and engraved on the back of each note.

5th. That they should be paid out to contractors, soldiers, officers, and other creditors of the Government, so that they might secure a wide diffusion.

If these notes were so issued, it was argued that they would be *hoarded*; that they would inflate the currency but little, if any, as they would be laid by for investment by all who could afford to keep them, and thus be demonetized; that such notes were precisely what all persons having trust funds, like executors, guardians, trustees, etc., would wish to obtain and hold; that they would be especially acceptable to savings banks, who by retaining these notes would be drawing compound interest, and yet be ready at any moment to meet such calls as might be made for their deposits; that they would, in short, constitute a popular loan to the Government, and thus aid the national Treasury; while at the same time millions of people would thus become personally interested in the stability of the public finances—a matter of no small moment in a time of great distress and embarrassment; and lastly, that they would not interfere with any other Government loan.

The bill was recommitted, and finally reported with authority to issue $400,000,000 of Treasury notes of $10 and upwards, at a rate not exceeding six per cent, payable not exceeding three years.

MORE GREENBACKS AUTHORIZED.

In the same bill authority was given to issue $150,000,000 of Treasury

notes without interest, (greenbacks,) and $50,000,000 of fractional currency. The act was approved March 3, 1863.

Besides this, Mr. CHASE had on hand some $300,000,000 of 5-20's previously authorized, making in all, $1,200,000,000.

Such, however, had been the delay of Congress in acting upon the finance bill, such the expansion of the currency in the meantime, and such the discouraging aspect of military affairs, that gold on the day of the adjournment was at a premium of 65 per cent.

How did the Secretary use the vast power placed in his hands by the national Legislature? The ample provisions, which, despite a violent opposition had been made by Congress, inspired confidence amongst capitalists, and the 5-20 bonds sold rapidly. They became more popular from week to week, until the subscriptions amounted to two or three millions per day.

These sales reduced the circulation, as they were made for greenbacks, and gold rapidly declined to about 40 per cent. The victories of Gettysburg and Vicksburg, which took place about the 4th of July, gave additional impetus to the fall of gold, and it went down to 23½ during that month.

THE 10-40'S ISSUED AT FIVE PER CENT.

The condition and prospect of the Treasury was now encouraging, and it seemed only necessary that Mr. CHASE should go forward in the same direction to secure all the funds the Government required. The 10-40 bonds were even more desirable, if issued at 6 per cent, as the Secretary was authorized to issue them, than the 5-20's. If promptly put into market they would have sold as rapidly. But Mr. CHASE seems to have supposed that the 5-20's having sold so well, he could issue the 10-40's at five per cent, and thus make a large saving to the Government; and he accordingly fixed the rate of interest at five per cent. This proved, as all shrewd financiers expected, a great mistake. The demand for bonds fell off at once from two millions to two hundred thousand per day, notwithstanding they were widely advertised. But this was not all, nor the worst of the matter. By issuing these bonds at five per cent instead of six, the Secretary virtually depreciated his own currency by the difference, because it required 1.20 in greenbacks to purchase an equal income or interest on five per cent, which 1.00 would purchase on bonds bearing interest at six. Consequently the price of gold was thereby raised 20 per cent, and of course the price of all the Government must purchase to carry on the war. The economical intention of the Secretary proved a most uneconomical operation for the country. The popular current seemed to be running strongly in favor of the Government credit while the sale of the 5-20's was going on, but the 10-40's offered at five per cent changed the face of affairs, and the current set strongly in the opposite direction.

ISSUE OF TREASURY NOTES ON INTEREST.

But there was still another way in which the Secretary might have greatly reduced the premium on gold.

He was authorized to issue $400,000,000 of Treasury notes at not exceeding six per cent, as before stated, and it was expected that he would

make them at six per cent compound interest, and of suitable size for circulation as had been proposed in Congress. But he did no such thing. He first issued $50,000,000 at five per cent on two years, $50 notes and upwards. These, all or mostly, went into the banks in Philadelphia, New York, and Boston, where they displaced and drove out into circulation $50,000,000 of currency. This, instead of benefitting the Government, absolutely made matters worse, and carried the gold premium still higher. The Secretary then made the experiment of issuing $150,000,000 of five per cents, for two years, with coupons attached, but under the strange restriction, that the coupons should not be cut off, except by an officer of Government! These, too, to a great extent, went into the banks, and operated to expand the currency and carry up the premium on gold. So that notwithstanding the success of the war, it went up to 98 on the 15th of June last.

THE GOLD BILL.

And now came the crowning folly of financial legislation.

Congress, as it is understood, at the instance of the Secretary of the Treasury passed an act "prohibiting the sale of gold in certain cases." The measure was utterly absurd, and produced an effect precisely opposite to that intended. The price of gold advanced more rapidly than ever before, and went up to the extreme rate of 285. All confidence in the actual market value was destroyed, and speculation became more rife than ever.

Alarmed at the results of its own folly, Congress repealed the obnoxious act, and gold again receded. The victories of GRANT, SHERMAN, and SHERIDAN, which soon followed, carried the price down to about 200, from which point it has risen to its present rate.

Such is a brief outline of the financial operations of the national Treasury. The results are now before us, and the question presents itself, whether a different course from that pursued might not have been adopted with great advantage to the country, and whether even now such a course should not be attempted.

WHAT MIGHT HAVE BEEN DONE.

Suppose that instead of the plan pursued by Secretary CHASE, he had issued his 10-40 bonds promptly at six per cent. They would certainly have met with a ready sale, and he would have been able still further to reduce the circulating medium, and, consequently, the premium on gold, and besides would have furnished himself abundantly with funds. But it may be said that the Secretary could not have carried out this reduction of the currency with entire success, because, as he withdrew the greenbacks, the banks would push out their notes. True, and hence the necessity of such legislation by Congress as should have effectually prevented this. But the experiment showed that the reduction of the currency lowered the gold premium, and that if it could have been fully carried out gold might have been brought to par.

COMPOUND INTEREST NOTES SHOULD HAVE BEEN ISSUED.

Suppose again, that as soon as Congress adjourned the 4th of March,

1863, the Secretary had set about the work of preparing his six per cent compound interest notes, and issued them as he might have done, in a few months. They would have been readily received, and as readily hoarded. Instead of this he never issued a dollar of this kind of notes until June, 1864, fifteen months after he was authorized, and just before he left office, when he only put out a few millions.

The manner in which they were received, and their immediate disappearance from circulation satisfied everybody of the desirableness of this kind of Government notes, and Mr. FESSENDEN, the new Secretary, has since issued them, we believe, exclusively, (so far and so fast as he was able,) and at present there are some $150,000,000 or more in the hands of the people. They have been paid off to soldiers and other creditors of the Government, and, as was confidently predicted, immediately hoarded by those who have the ability and disposition to lay them by, as a safe and most convenient investment. They thus become a three years loan to the Government.

If these three measures had been adopted, (and they were perfectly feasible,) is it not quite clear that such a depressed condition of our national finances as we now witness, would never have existed? That gold would have been brought down nearly to par? If so, then is it not equally clear that what we now suffer from the depreciation of our currency, and the low value of our national stocks, is owing to mistakes and blunders?

The value of our stocks is low, not so much because the ability of the nation to discharge all its indebtedness, or the disposition of the people to sustain the Government, is doubted, but that owing to our mistaken management, a redundant currency has been allowed to accumulate in the country, until the standard of value is so reduced that our stocks actually bring only 40 or 50 cents on the dollar.

WHAT IS THE REMEDY?

First. The currency must be reduced until prices are restored to something like their natural rate, and gold goes down to par.

It is in vain to hope for any reform or essential improvement until this is done.

If it be said that this cannot be accomplished, then the finances cannot be saved. But it is not true that this cannot be done. Intelligence and determination on the part of Congress, and efficiency and perseverance on the part of the Secretary of the Treasury, are all that is required even now, low as the public stocks have fallen, to retrieve the national credit and restore the finances.

THE BANK CURRENCY MUST BE WITHDRAWN.

That the undertaking is an arduous one we shall not deny. There are now some 1,500 banks competing with the Government in issuing currency. This competition neither the Government or the people can stand much longer. The nation must have the advantage of its entire credit to carry on the war. Of all forms of credit, that in the shape of currency is the most available, and used only to a reasonable extent, the most profitable.

The bank currency of the nation, at the present time, reckoning the circulation at $250,000,000, and the deposits at $450,000,000, is $700,000,000. The country does not need a dollar of that circulation. There are $457,000,000 of greenbacks, besides fractional currency, and these are all that the country needs, all it *can possibly bear*, and preserve the standard of value. Every dollar, therefore, put in circulation by the banks, inflicts injury upon the nation, and goes to break down our finances and weaken the Government. The bank circulation, at the present time, is a public nuisance that must be abated.

Such being the case, it becomes the imperative duty of Congress to impose a severe tax upon the circulation of the banks. Probably a three per cent tax for the first six months, and five per cent for the next, with prohibition after twelve months, would be found entirely effective. This would cause a gradual withdrawal of all bank circulation, and the Government currency would form the only circulating medium. This would be ample, and upon it the people would gain the entire interest. This currency the Government might enlarge or diminish from time to time, according to the wants of trade.

If this be so, why should not the reform be at once commenced, and continued until the desired object be attained?

What objection can there be to such a course of proceeding?

WILL THIS DESTROY THE BANKS?

Will it be said that such taxation must destroy the banks? Not at all. Not a dollar of their capital will be touched; they will still possess every right and privilege attached to banking, except the assumed right of manufacturing currency, a right that belongs exclusively to the Government of the country. Will it be said that it will prevent them from making fair dividends? That cannot be true, for the capital of all the banks, of whatever kind, is invested in Government stocks, and upon them the banks draw six per cent annually in coin; they also have their deposits on which to make loans, and thus increase their profits, besides all they can make upon exchanges, no small source of income. The banks can do as well as any other interest; as well as the farmers, mechanics, or merchants, without swelling their profits by issuing their promises in the form of currency, and thus injuring all classes of the community, and weakening the Government in the hour of its distress and peril.

Do banks exist for the benefit of the country, or the country for the benefit of the banks? That is the primary question to be settled. But there is, in truth, no real collision of interest if the matter be looked at in its true light. That which is beneficial to the banks in the long run, is equally so to the country; that which is detrimental to the one, is equally detrimental to the other.

THIS COURSE FOR THE INTERESTS OF THE BANKS.

Of all classes banking institutions are the most interested in having their own notes entirely withdrawn from circulation, because they, above all others, have the most at stake in the success of the national finances. If the Government securities are repudiated, the banks are utterly ruined. That they must know very well. Other interests and institutions may

suffer much by a failure on the part of the Government, but the banks will be annihilated. How anxious ought they to be, then, that a policy should be adopted which shall expel all bank circulation, and thus afford great additional strength to the Government, by reducing its expenditures and curtailing the national debt, which at the best will be of formidable dimensions.

BANK STOCKHOLDERS.

No far seeing stockholder can desire that the present inflation of the currency should continue, much less that it should be carried farther; for he must see that if this is done, final bankruptcy and repudiation are inevitable.

There is still another reason why a bank stockholder, who understands the nature of currency and his own interests, cannot wish for an excessive currency, and that is, that he *gains nothing, but absolutely loses by it.* He increases his dividends to be sure, but at the same time raises the price of every thing he has occasion to purchase. That this is very bad economy may be seen by the following illustration:

A has an income from various sources of.....	$5,000
From bank stock.....	1,000
Whole income.....	$6,000

In consequence of an increase of circulation by the banks he gets an increase of $500 in his dividends, making his income $6,500. But prices of all commodities have advanced 25 per cent in consequence. What he could have bought for $6,000 he must now pay $7,500 for. So he has lost $1,000 by the operation! There is nothing imaginary or fictitious in this statement of the case. It is a plain matter of fact that any person can appreciate who will give a little consideration to the subject. It is very strikingly illustrated at the present time, when incomes for the purchase of commodities have scarcely half their former value; and it is ever true, that those who receive dividends from bank stock *always suffer when those dividends are increased by inflating the currency.* It is a law from which none can escape, and the holders of bank stock, for their own interest, should be utterly opposed to such inflation.

☞ Therefore, the proposition we now insist upon, that all bank notes shall be withdrawn from circulation, is one that, so far from being injurious, will be *absolutely beneficial* to those who hold bank stocks.

It may perhaps be said, that after all no legislation is needed on this point, because the banks already have the power to call in their issues if they see fit. True they have the power, but will they universally have the disposition to do so? A few of the more enlightened bank managers are quite ready for the movement, but can they secure concerted and unanimous action? That is not to be expected, and hence the action of Congress is indispensable.

NATIONAL BANKS INCLUDED.

But it may be inquired, perhaps with some surprise, whether we intend to say that the currency of the National Banks shall share the fate of that

of the State Banks, and be expelled from circulation? We answer, Yes we mean just that. But it may be asked, was not the National Bank system a special pet of the late Secretary, and did he not insist upon it as essential to his financial system? Certainly. But on what ground are the National Banks to be favored at the expense of the Government and the peril of the national finances? They, like State banks, exist for the benefit of the public, and are to be maintained and cherished only so long as they answer that end. The last section of the act by which they were established, says, "Congress may at any time amend, alter, or repeal this act." The banks accepted their charters under this condition, and without it the bill never could have become a law, for a large majority of both houses had little confidence in the measure, and voted for it mainly because it was so strongly urged by the Secretary. A full majority of Congress never gave their sanction to it. In the Senate, the vote was 23 to 21, and 4 absent. In the house, 77 to 64, and 38 absent.

As a *measure of finance* the National Bank system was of slight importance. It was urged in behalf of it, that a large demand would be made for the bonds of the Government, but such was not the case. Existing banks, having their capital already in stocks, had no occasion to purchase in order to come into the new system, and when new banks were got up, it was generally by those who were already holders of Government bonds.

As financial agents there was no necessity for these banks, because the State banks could act as such efficiently, and as they held Government bonds so largely, could give all the security required, and would have been happy to do so. As a measure of finance, there was really no occasion for the creation of a new banking system.

NATIONAL BANKS, WHY PREFERABLE.

But as *a currency measure*, although it was no suitable time to inaugurate a new system, it may certainly be regarded as a decided improvement upon the old for several reasons.

1. Because all notes issued under it are permanently secured, so far as a Government guarantee can do it.
2. Because the notes will be universally current, and as far as possible, under a credit currency, will equalize exchanges.
3. Because it brings the currency under national legislation and control, where it ever ought to be.
4. Identifies the interests of our monied institutions with the credit of the national Government, and in so far adds to the stability of both.

For these reasons the system may be justly regarded with more favor than that which it is designed to supersede, and there need to be no interference with it, except with the issue of its promises, or credit, as currency. That, under any circumstances, no banks ought ever to do, and under present circumstances, when to do it is in the highest degree to injure the national finances and absolutely endanger the public safety, they ought to be prohibited from it entirely, and rely upon legitimate business for their profits. If such profits, together with the interest in coin which they receive upon their Government bonds, are not sufficient to enable

them to make satisfactory dividends, it is clearly not for the interest of the public that they should exist at all.

BUSINESS MEN, HOW AFFECTED.

But it may be urged as an objection to any curtailment of bank circulation, that business men will thereby be deprived of their accustomed an necessary accommodation in the way of loans.

There is no force in this objection when the circumstances of the case are carefully examined. The banks, we have already shown, have no capital to loan, having already parted with that to the Government. They have nothing but their own credit in the shape of currency. If their currency be withdrawn prices will be so reduced that business men will need only half what they now do, and money will be as plenty with them as ever. Speculators will suffer, but no other class. Their vocation will be ended, and legitimate capital will be employed for legitimate purposes.

We know it may be said, there will be a loss upon stocks on hand if prices are brought down. True, and so there will be whenever we return to a sound currency. The sooner we come to that the better. The longer it is postponed, the worse will it be for all.

THE FAVORABLE MOMENT.

There never was a time in the whole history of the nation when business men had so little necessary connection with the banks. They do not themselves give credit, and they have little occasion to ask credit of the banks. The circulation of the banks merely inflates prices and excites speculation. That fact is well known to all concerned with business and banking, and the gradual withdrawal of bank notes, as proposed, would not only not be injurious, but absolutely advantageous to all engaged in every department of trade and manufacture.

MORE COMPOUND INTEREST NOTES.

In the *second* place, Congress should authorize a further issue of compound interest notes, and the Treasury should pay them out so long as they continue, as at present, to be hoarded, but no longer. Whenever they appear in the currency, that is in circulation, no more should be issued Until that time arrives, there is no more politic or convenient mode of raising funds for the Government; and a measure so eminently successful, thus far, should be followed up till all its advantages and capabilities are realized.

ONLY ONE KIND OF BONDS.

Thirdly, Congress should authorize only one kind of bonds, and those six per cents, on such time as may seem most desirable, say not less than five or more than twenty years. This should be the uniform mode of raising money by loan. Every other description of loan should be discarded. Then all at home and abroad would understand the precise character of our Government stocks, and make their arrangements accordingly.

There should be no temporary loans; no different rates of interest founded on the expectation that the war will soon terminate—that six or

twelve months will be as long as the Government will need to borrow, and therefore it may temporize. Such idle expectations have already cost the nation millions of money and thousands of lives.

THE BRITISH FINANCES.

The British Government, in its great struggle with NAPOLEON, prosecuted the war as if it were to last forever; met its vast demands in the most prompt and resolute manner, imposing the heaviest taxation possible, and negotiating its loans on the best terms it could.

The *discount* or loss upon the sale of its bonds, from 1793 to 1815, was more than 40 per cent, yet the sacrifice was cheerfully submitted to, though in the aggregate it amounted to $1,350,000,000, a sum equal to more than one-half of our whole national debt at the present time! But by this bold and decisive action, the finances of the nation were maintained, and England secured her grandest triumph.

If we would have a like success, we must imitate her example. Our system of internal taxation must not only be kept up, but every effort made to increase it. The revenue must be carefully watched, and every opportunity to enlarge it must be promptly improved, whether by excise, custom house duties, or direct taxation.

PREMIUM ON GOLD NOT DEPENDANT ON MILITARY SUCCESS.

Again, we should not delude ourselves with the false idea that if we have great military successes the premium on gold will disappear. This is a popular delusion, which has already given rise to many temporary and wasteful expedients. The premium on gold will not be permanently affected by any military acheivments whatever. If GRANT should capture the rebel capital, and SHERMAN march his troops to the Atlantic, or the Gulf of Mexico, the quantity of currency will not thereby be changed, and therefore the premium on gold will remain essentially unaltered. Even were peace to come within sixty days, the price of gold could not, until the currency was reduced, go down to par.

ATTEMPTS TO INFLUENCE IT.

And here we would say that no attempts to influence the price of gold should be made by combinations formed for that purpose, or by governmental action. Such has hitherto been the case on more than one occasion. The newspaper press has done its utmost to "bear" down the premium on gold. All such efforts are very far from indicating an enlightened patriotism, however well intended.

They produce no good result nor any permanent effect, but they do greatly interfere with the trade and industry of the country. For example, a great effort was made during the month of September last to bring down the price of gold. On the second of the month it stood at 154, on the 5th of October at 88. A tremendous panic was created mostly by politicians through the newspapers, and the public was made to believe that gold was going down to par, or nearly so. Business men were greatly alarmed, and many sold off their stocks at an enormous sacrifice, because they believed that gold certainly would decline until it reached par value, and of course every species of merchandise would follow gold. So they

sold out at whatever they could get. But all this was a perfectly senseless panic, without the slightest foundation; and therefore, despite of all these efforts, gold went up back to its former average price, and has fluctuated mostly between 210 and 240—which is probably about its actual value as compared with the present currency of the country, by which it is measured. Great injury was inflicted upon innocent parties.

NOBODY BENEFITED.

It may be said we are aware that what the manufacturers, importers, and dealers thus lost, the people, the consumers, gained. That, in the long run, is not true; for such a panic destroys confidence and interrupts business. Men feel that they are not safe in making operations, and hence the industry of the country is paralized, and production is lessened. The country, as a whole, is not benefited by any such movement as that refered to. Gold should be allowed to rise or fall by the laws of value, and not by any extraneous efforts made for that purpose.

WHAT BUSINESS MEN SHOULD DO.

If the matter were well understood by business men, they would pay no attention to the hue and cry raised about the premium on gold, but go straight forward in their operations with entire confidence, that until the quantity of currency is reduced by the action of Government no essential change can take place. Gold may advance from where it now is, and probably will, but it cannot permanently recede, except in the contingency mentioned, that is, by the action of Government.

As a matter of fact, there has been no safer time to do business, for many months, than the present. If Congress should take measures to restore the currency, it will be a gradual movement of which all will be apprized, and can govern themselves accordingly. The true standard might, in that way, be restored, with as little loss and injustice as the nature of the case will admit.

A CHEERFUL VIEW OF THE MATTER.

If the foregoing considerations in regard to the past history and present condition of the finances and currency of the country are correct, then it will follow that the depression and derangement we suffer, are not the result of any want of ability or disposition on the part of the people to sustain the Government in its great struggle, but only to the mistakes of those to whom the management of its affairs have been entrusted.

This is a most cheering view of the case, because if our difficulties are owing to errors in legislation and financial mismanagement, then, if those errors are rectified, the finances may be restored.

We have endeavored to show that this may be done, that Congress may re-establish a sound standard of value, negotiate the public securities upon that basis, and thus greatly reduce public expenditures, and prevent an unwarrantable increase of the national debt.

THE NATIONAL DEBT.

But it may be said that we shall after all be left, when the war is closed, with a great debt. True, and it will be a national incumbrance which

every sensible man must deplore. It is no blessing, as some would fain make the people believe, but will be to the nation what a heavy mortgage is upon an individual estate. The only question is, will that burden be so great as to bear with oppressive weight upon the people? So large as to retard their industry, interfere with the natural increase of population, put a stop to immigration, and consume the capital of the nation? Not at all. Nothing like it. Wisely managed, it can be easily borne, aye more, it can be paid off in thirty years without difficulty. There is not the slightest occasion to fear repudiation from inability to discharge the debt.

Our debt will be less per capita than that of England, while our ability to sustain taxation is practically twice as great as hers. No people ever had so large a margain, over and above their necessary expenditures, out of which to pay taxes, as the people of the United States. But our present population are not alone to pay the debt. That will be done by a greatly augmented population. Nor is the debt always to bear six per cent interest. As fast as it becomes payable, as most of it will, at the pleasure of the Government, in five or ten years, the new loans will be had at not exceeding four-and-a-half per cent. Let the credit of the Government be established as firmly as prior to the war, and its bonds at four-and-a-half per cent would command a premium. This we shall readily believe, if we consider that they are exempt from taxation, which is equal to one per cent annually at least. That would reduce them to five per cent.

Our stocks of every description will eventually be *consolidated* into one having a uniform rate of interest, and then American "consols" will be in general request at home and abroad for permanent investment. A large part of our debt will eventually be held in Europe, where capital yields a much less rate of interest than in this country.

PROSPECTIVE INCREASE OF POPULATION AND WEALTH.

If the population of the country increases in the future as in the past, (and it assuredly will,) in 20 years we shall be 60,000,000. If our wealth increases in the future as heretofore, it will in the same period amount to more than 50 billions, ($50,000,000,000,) or more than three times its present amount. Should our public debt reach the improbable and extravagant amount of four billions, ($4,000,000,000,) it would not be half as great a burden on the people, as the debt of England was upon her population at the close of the wars growing out of the French Revolution

NO REPUDIATION.

There is then, no occasion for repudiation, or danger of it, if we reform our financial system and effectually put down the rebellion. The first the Government ought to do, and if disposed, can do; the latter the people are determined shall be done.

They have resolved that the nationality shall be restored in all its integrity—that at whatever cost of blood and treasure,

> "These States shall be,
> One nation, sovereign, independent, free."

The people comprehend the great issue and are prepared to meet it. We have able generals who know how to fight battles and follow up

victories; men who have no fears whatever of hurting the rebels, or destroying their property, when necessary.

We have brave and veteran troops, who instead of being employed in guarding rebel orchards and hen roosts, are marching in serried ranks to those great victories and achievements which are to decide the fate of their country.

By the will and fiat of a mighty people the war cannot end, or even relax, until all who once formed the American nation shall be reunited under one government, in one great and glorious destiny.

THE TAEPING REBELLION—ITS RISE AND FALL.

T. M. J.

The Taeping rebellion in China, which was expected to open a wide door to increased commercial enterprise, and which, in its early stages, was hopefully regarded by the whole Christian world, has suddenly come to an inglorious end. The bud that promised so well has produced nothing but bitter fruit. The mercantile community has been doomed to disappointment; and the pretended Christianity of the leader of the insurrection has resolved itself into the mad ambition of a rebel chieftain, or, at best, into the wild fanaticism of a crack-brained and self-deceived enthusiast.

Before the present race of monarchs came into power in the East, the old, time-honored and respected Ming dynasty filled the throne of the Celestial Empire. This illustrious line of worthy potentates ruled, according to the Eastern chronicle, full four hundred years, with undisputed authority and power. At the end of that time, however, which was about two hundred years ago, their government was overthrown by the Manchu Tartars, who drove the Chinese monarch from the throne of his fathers, and have from that day to this held the country and ruled it with despotic sway. In many of the high civil positions they placed Tartar officials, and of the 800,000 men who compose the Imperial army, at least one-fourth belong to the victorious race, who, besides being paid, armed, and disciplined in a manner superior to the native Chinamen, occupy a separate quarter in every garrison, and always the one which commands the town. It must not be supposed, however, that the Chinese acquiesed quietly and tamely in a foreign rule, and, bowing their heads, submitted with patient humility to the yoke which the Tartars placed upon them. It was by hard fighting that the conquest was achieved, and much Chinese blood had watered the plain, before the Manchu foreigners ruled peacefully over Cathay. In no part of the Empire was the innovation more obstinately contested, and nowhere did the people struggle more fiercely for the preservation of their ancient government, than in the two provinces of Kwang-tung and Kwang-si. The Kwang district is the most southern portion of China. It contains about twenty-seven or twenty-eight millions of people, and as it has been the last to submit, so has it always been the first to revolt against the rule of the newly established dynasty. It

is a barren, mountainous district, with naked peaks, utterly devoid of vegetation, but presenting scenery grand in the extreme. The Kwang-si Mountains are among the curiosities of the Celestial Empire, and strange stories are told, by native travelers, of the wonderful things they present. Antedeluvian animals are found encrusted with rock, and petrified in the most curious shapes. Whole masses take the forms of animals and represent a cock or an elephant beyond the possibility of mistake. But these are the stories of natives concerning regions for ages unpolluted by the footstep of the foreigner, and require some further investigation before we can consider their existence as established. Nevertheless, the general aspect of Kwang-si is charming and picturesque. But the soil, being suited only to certain kinds of cultivation, is barely able to sustain its crowded population. It is inhabited by a bold and hardy race, inured to fatigue and animated by a heroic spirit of independence, and rivers of blood were shed, before Kwang-si submitted to be ruled by the Manchus. Some of them in fact never submitted at all. Beaten on the plain they would betake themselves to the mountains, and after years of Tartar rule, we find them in their native fastnesses, as banditti or pirates, wandering about this Eastern Switzerland, still unreduced, and acknowle lging the authority of no government whatever. In these men, who considered themselves subjects of no sovereign, and who feared the violation of no law, provided they could escape its penalty, did the armed smugglers of the different commercial nations find useful and willing allies. Long before the English settled themselves at Hong-Kong were these turbulent spirits roving about the country, bent only on mischief, and ready for any wickedness that might happen to turn up. It needed but the example of a few English smugglers, in their armed opium clippers, overpowering the clumsy war junks of the government, which guarded the China seas, to stimulate them to like proceedings. When no other work presented itself, they would attack neighboring Chinese towns, and as it made little difference to them, whom they fought, provided the operation was a paying one, they sometimes cut off their own traders and little coasters, and were even ready, for a consideration, to turn round and assist the Imperial Government in its efforts to destroy "the barbarians." This utter defiance of all law and authority did not confine itself to the seaboard. Far away in the interior, armed bands fought their way down to the coast with smuggled goods. It was stated by one of the French Roman Catholic missionaries, with how much truth we cannot say, that at one time some six hundred of these ruffians forced their way from Yunnan to Canton, aided by some of the most influential people of Kwang-si. The gentlemen, who afforded this timely assistance, were, naturally enough, called to account for their action in the matter. They resisted the authorities. The mob came to their rescue. A secret society in the province gave a helping hand. Sedition spread like wild-fire. All the disaffected, disbanded soldiers and slighted braves, ruined opium-smokers and ruffians of every description joined in the movement, which, in the year 1850, broke out into a rebellion, and, under the name of Taepingism, it has for the last fourteen years spread death and devastation over some of the fairest portions of the Celestial Empire.

Whether he is right or wrong in affirming that the rebellion arose in such a way, it would be impossible to say; but certainly the incendiary

disposition of the people of these provinces might have served to supply fuel, when once the flame of anarchy had actually burst forth.

But beyond the lawless character of the people of Kwang-si, and the seeds of anarchy, which were scattered over the province, there were forces at work in the government itself, which served to invite rather than to repress such a movement. Never was a country cursed with a worse race of rulers, than that which at present directs the destinies of China. Each succeeding Emperor appears to have surpassed his predecessor in every low vice, without possessing any redeeming virtue. A memorial from a high English officer, during the year 1832, draws a touching picture of the results of the Emperor KIAKING's misrule, in alluding to the consequent disturbances in some of the provinces. TAOUKWANG, his successor, only added to the disorganization of the country, while the administration of his grandson HIENFUNG, who succeeded his father TAOUKWANG, in 1851, was marked by increased peculation and general corruption. Thus disorder and rebellion spread as the natural results. We should remember, in this connection, that all the honors and privileges of the Pekin government are, by law or custom, which in China is equivalent to law, attainable by any one who can successfully pass through a certain examination. This popular right is, of course, jealously regarded by the nation, and any tampering with the freedom of this great arena of national ambition is indignantly resented. The necessities of the court, however, during the reign of the last three inefficient and corrupt monarchs, had led it to dispose of certain appointments by purchase, and consequently every disappointed candidate, tracing his failure to this abuse, became a disorganizing agent, laboring zealously to increase the general discontent.

A poor and venerable man, upright in all his dealings, who, like his neighbors, earned his own living by cultivating rice and rearing pigs and poultry, dwelt in a little village about thirty miles from Canton. He seems to have obtained the respect of his fellow townsmen, for he held the position of headman or elder of the village, and was accustomed to settle the disputes of the people, and to take care of their ancestral fields. In the year 1813, the third son was born to this old man, and his name was HUNG-SIU-TSUEN. He appears to have been a remarkable child from his very cradle, and wonderful stories are told of the progress which he made at school. But as he signally failed every time he was examined for the bachelor's degree, we cannot help thinking that it was with him as with many great men. When they have made a name for themselves, in after life, it is suddenly discovered that they evinced the most remarkable precociousness when young. The poverty of HUNG-SIU-TSUEN's family is given as a reason why he did not attain literary pre-eminence. His parents, after giving him every advantage, which their slender means would allow, were reluctantly compelled to take him from school, that he might aid them in providing the means of livelihood. Accordingly, at the early age of sixteen, when his studious propensities would have led him to devote himself eagerly to his books, he was obliged to give up his time to manual labor, or in attending to the oxen and the pigs. As soon as he could he abandoned this employment, and obtained a situation as teacher in the village school, the meagre emolument he got for his services being sufficient to keep him from actual want.

HUNG was his family name. He chose SIU-TSUEN as his literary name. This means "Elegant and Perfect," and by adopting it, he displayed the characteristic modesty of a true Chinaman.

In the year 1833, a public examination was to be held at Canton, and SIU-TSUEN went to that city to attend it. Here he accidentally fell in with two men, one of whom gave him a package containing nine small volumes, entitled "Good Words Exhorting the Age." The person who gave it to him was a native Christian convert and colporteur; and the books themselves were tracts, intended to spread the knowledge of religious truth, but written in such a diffuse and careless manner, as to be unacceptable to a well educated Chinese, and almost unintelligable to the masses. It was through this illiterate channel, that SIU-TSUEN received his first impression of the Christian faith. In 1837 he again visited Canton, and presented himself for examination. Utterly failing, he returned home very much disheartened and oppressed. He was now attacked by a severe fit of illness, which for some time confined him to his bed, and his mind became filled with strange fancies and subject to visions.

"In one of his visions," says Commander LINDESAY BRINE, of the English Navy, who has given us an excellent account of the rebellion, "he imagined himself to be carried away in a sedan-chair by a number of men playing musical instruments, and, after visiting bright and luminous places, and having all his impurities washed away, he entered, in company with a number of virtuous, aged, and venerable men, into a large hall, the beauty and splendor of which were beyond description. A man, venerable from his years, and dressed in a black robe, was sitting in an imposing attitude, in the highest place. As soon as he observed SIU-TSUEN he began to shed tears, and said: 'All human beings in the world are produced and sustained by me; they eat my food and wear my clothing, but not a single one among them has a heart to remember and venerate me; what is, however, still worse, they take my gifts, and therewith worship demons; they rebel against me and arouse my anger. Do thou not imitate them!' Thereupon he gave SIU-TSUEN a sword, commanding him to exterminate the demons, but to spare his brothers and sisters; a seal, by which he would overcome evil spirits; and a yellow fruit, which SIU-TSUEN found sweet to the taste. He then gives him charge to do the work of bringing round the perverse; and taking him out told him to look and behold the perverseness of the people upon earth.

'SIU-TSUEN looked and saw such a degree of depravity and vice that his eyes could not endure the sight nor his mouth express their deeds. He then awoke from his trance, but being still partially under its influence, he put on his clothes, left his bedroom, went into the presence of his father, and making a low bow, said: 'The venerable old man above has commanded that all men shall turn to me, and all treasures shall flow to me.'

"When his father saw him come out, and heard him speak in this manner, he did not know what to think, feeling at once joy and fear. The sickness and visions of SIU-TSUEN continued about forty days, and in these visions he often saw a man of middle age, whom he called his Elder Brother, who instructed him how to act, accompanied him in his wanderings to the uttermost regions in search of evil spirits, and assisted him in slaying and exterminating them. SIU-TSUEN during his sickness, when his mind was wandering, often used to run about his room leaping and fighting like a soldier engaged in battle. His constant cry was, 'Tsan-jan, tsan-jan, tsan-ah, tsan-ah!' Slay the demons! etc., etc."

He also took a notion into his head that he had been duly appointed Emperor of China, and was pleased when any one gave him that title. His curious antics and the wild fancies, with which his brain was filled, soon obtained for him the appelation of the madman, by which name he was known throughout the district.

He recovered from his illness, but his distempered imaginations still

clung to him. He considered that he had a peculiar mission, and that to carry out the mandates of the old man he had seen in his vision, was his one, all-important duty. He again perused the bundle of tracts, and became very much impressed with their character. He saw that they supplied the key, which unlocked the mystery of his dream. They explained to him that the old man he had seen was God, the Father of all, and that the man of middle age, whom he called his celestial elder brother was Jesus, the Saviour of the world. He was, of course, transported with joy at making this discovery, and he and his friend LI, also a schoolmaster, and one who had become persuaded that SIU-TSUEN had a divine mission, administered baptism to themselves, which rite the tracts declared to be absolutely essential. His next step was to discard his idols. He took down the tablet of Confucius from the school-room, and endeavored to make converts to the new faith, but not meeting with very great success, and losing his place in the school on account of his heterodoxy, he moved to the province of Kwang-si. Here he remained for some time teaching his doctrines and obtaining some disciples. In a short time the converts to the new faith began to meet together for religious purposes, and became known as the "Society of God-Worshippers." After remaining in Kwang-si a few months, SIU-TSUEN returned home, leaving one of his converts FUNG-YUN-SAN behind to proclaim the new doctrine. At this time his opposition to the Tartar dynasty is said to have *commenced*. He went to Canton, where he remained some time studying Christianity under the Rev. Mr. ROBERTS, a Baptist missionary, who happened to be residing in that city. When he returned, he found the Society of God-Worshippers in a prosperous state, and he was immediately received as their leader.

Thus far we have followed the story of the leader of the Taepings, as it seemed at the time, unaccompanied by the light of the subsequent facts. Had everything been as it appeared on the surface, and as the leaders of the movement proclaimed it to be, there would have been great reason to rejoice. For although SIU-TSUEN'S ideas of Christianity were crude and indefinite in the extreme, and in endeavoring to extend his doctrines by the sword, and in setting himself up as an object worthy of divine adoration, as he afterward did, he displayed a character more like that of Mahomet, than of a meek and humble seeker after truth, yet even this would have been so far in advance of the miserable idolatry of Buddhism, that we might, with good reason, have felt glad. But even these meagre results were not attained. Religion was merely used as a cloak to cover his traitorous schemes, or, if his apparent zeal for Christianity ever contained a spark of genuine honesty, it quickly gave way when brought in contact with his inordinate ambition.

The influence of the Society of God-Worshippers must have extended itself, by this time, to a considerable distance, for we find the members of the Christian Union acting in connection with SIU-TSUEN. The Christian Union was the name of a school which had been established at Hong Kong by the Protestant missionaries. Its object was to instruct the natives in gospel truth, and to prepare them to act as teachers among their own countrymen. This excellent institution was under the charge of a Mr. GUTZLAFF, who seems to have been entirely in error as to the character of the men he received. They were mostly worthless vagabonds, pretending to be Christians for the sake of a living, and there was no trick

so low, or imposture so cunning, which they did not commit. An instance of this we will mention in passing. It seems to have been a part of the work of the Union to send these converts into the various provinces of the Empire, for the purpose of distributing Bibles, and of acting the part of native catechists and colporteurs. These Bibles were supplied by a Chinese publisher at Hong-Kong. Somehow or other a suspicion was excited, that these same Bibles were brought back to the missionaries by the publisher, and were passed off by him as new ones. In order to see whether there was any truth in this suspicion, a number of them were secretly marked before they were sent off, and in a short time they all came back to the office as new Bibles fresh from the press. Of course this was immediately stopped; but it is only a specimen of the numberless duplicities practised, by these arrant knaves, upon the innocent-minded missionaries.

How the God-Worshippers first came into collision with the Imperialists, what was the particular spark which fell into this combustible mass and caused the first explosion, is not stated; or rather, it is stated in various ways by various journalists. Having, as they supposed, permanently established their own religious worship, they commenced interfering with that of their neighbors, by destroying their idols, etc. FUNG-YUN-SAN, was seized and placed in confinement, but was subsequently released. A young convert and iconoclast is said to have been thrown into prison at the instigation of a certain enemy of the God-worshippers, and to have died on account of the ill-treatment he received, and that this caused the first serious collision. Then it is stated that the magistrates attempted to seize HUNG-SIU-TSUEN and FUNG-YUN-SAN, and that they summoned the God-Worshippers to the rescue, and thus the rebellion commenced.

They first attacked and captured the towns of Ho and Kiang Men, where they obtained money and supplies, and from thence they proceeded to Tai-tsun, a large village, where they found provisions in great abundance. SIU, the head of this vice-royalty, a weak and cowardly man, was thrown into a great state of uneasiness by the violent acts of the insurgents. When he learned that they were approaching, he requested permission to visit the late Emperor's tomb, and to humble himself before it, in order that he might escape the approaching evil; but as this was not considered a proper time to perform a pilgrimage, his request was refused. He sent a body of Imperial troops against the rebels, but they being deceived by the tactics of the enemy, were defeated and slaughtered without mercy. The rebels would feign a retreat, and draw the Imperial troops into an ambuscade, and then, turning upon them, cut them to pieces. "At first," writes one of the Imperial officials, concerning HUNG-SIU-TSUEN "he conceals his strength, then he puts it forth a little, then in a greater degree, and lastly comes out in great force. He constantly has two victories for one defeat; for he practices the tactics of SUN-PIN."

Emboldened by various successes, the insurgents ventured to leave Kwang-si, and to penetrate into the neighboring province of Kwang-Tung and here they issued a proclamation, which was their first political act. It is a curious document, and displays rather crude notions of the art of government:

"The Manchus," says the proclamation, "who, for two centuries, have been the hereditary occupants of the throne of China, were originally members of a small foreign

tribe. With the aid of a powerful army they took possession of our treasure, our lands, and the government of our country; proving that superior strength is all that is required for the usurpation of an empire. There is, therefore, no difference between us, who levy contributions on the villages we have taken, and the officials sent from Pekin to collect the taxes. Taking and keeping are both fair alike. Why then, without any motive, are troops marched against us? This appears to us very unjust. How have the Manchus, who are foreigners, a right to collect the revenues of eighteen provinces, and to appoint the officers, who oppress the people; while we, who are Chinese, are forbidden to take a little money from the public stock? Universal sovereignty does not belong to any individual to the exclusion of all the rest, and no one ever saw a dynasty, which could count a hundred generations of emperors. Possession—and possession only—gives a right to govern."

The first really great advantage obtained by the rebels, was the capture of the city of Yung-gnan, in the eastern part of Kwang-si. The capture of this important place was effected in a manner decidedly Chinese. The walls of the city were not very high, and the attacking party were enabled to create confusion in the garrison within, by advancing quickly, and throwing lighted fire-crackers into the town. The constant explosions of these fearful missles, at last caused the enemy to retreat, and the rebels succeeded in scaling the walls and entering the city.

Rather a ludicrous mode of conducting a siege, according to our ideas, and reminding us strongly of 4th of July sham-fights, but strictly in keeping with the rules of Chinese warfare. The rebels seized all the treasures of the city, put all the Imperial officers to death, who were unfortunate enough to fall into their hands, and HUNG-SIU-TSUEN, under the name of the TIEN-WANG, or Heavenly King, which he had previously assumed, entered the place in triumph, and was proclaimed Emperor of the new dynasty of Taeping, or Great Peace. Here the TIEN-WANG established his government. He appointed four chief officers to be inferior only to himself, giving to each the title of king. His old tried friend and comrade FUNG-YUN-SAN was the Southern king; a man named YANG, who held the position of a prophet, was the Eastern king; SIAU, a man who was in the habit of falling into trances, and who conceived himself to speak in the name, and under the direct inspiration of Jesus, the Celestial elder brother, was the Western king; and WIE-CHING, another adherent, was the Northern king. And besides these, the KANG-WANG, or Shield King, formed one of his principal officers. This man was, beyond doubt, one of the ablest of the Taeping leaders. He had formerly, under the name of HUNG-JIN, been connected with the Christian Union, and was much esteemed as an earnest catechist and preacher. His part in the drama seems to have been to worm himself into the confidence of the missionaries, and by deceiving them with regard to the quasi christianity, which the Taepings professed, to secure their influence in preventing "the active operation of the foreign powers against their material progress." The service, which in this way, he rendered the rebel cause, appears to have been fully appreciated by the TIEN-WANG, and rewarded by an important office under his government. The missionaries were much pleased with the amiable disposition, and Christian sweetness, which HUNG-JIN had assumed, and it was a long time before the wolf was discovered through his double coving of sheep's clothing. Even after he had left the Union, and become chief officer of the self-styled King of Heaven, he was still used by the missionaries as a channel of communication with the Taepings. Having

displayed great skill in humbuging the foreigners, while connected with the Union, he still continued to throw out to them the hope of extention of religion and the promotion of commercial interests, neither of which, he *very well knew*, would ever be realized. In Nov., 1851, the TIEN-WANG issued his second proclamation, in which he stated the doctrine of his religion, and gave certain orders to his army:

"Our Heavenly Father, the great God and supreme Lord, is one true Spirit (God); besides our Heavenly Father the great God and supreme Lord there is no Spirit (God). The great God our Heavenly Father and supreme Lord is omniscent, omnipotent, nd omnipresent—the supreme over all. There is not an individual who is not produced and nourished by him. He is Shang supreme). He is the Te (ruler). Besides the great God our Heavenly Father and supreme Lord there is no one who can be called Shang, and no one who can be called Te.

"Therefore, from henceforth, all you soldiers and officers may designate us as your lord, and that is all; you must not call me Supreme, lest you should enroach upon the designation of our Heavenly Father. Our Heavenly Father is our Holy Father, and our Celestial Elder Brother is our Holy Lord, the Savior of the world. Hence, our Heavenly Father and Celestial Elder Brother alone are holy; and from henceforth all you soldiers and officers may designate us as your lord, and that is all; but you must not call me holy, lest you enroach upon the designation of our Heavenly Father and Celestial Elder Brother. The great God our Heavenly Father and Supreme Lord is our Spiritual Father, our Ghostly Father * * * * All the kings above referred to are to be under the superintendence of the Eastern King. We have also issued a proclamation designating our queen as the lady of all ladies (empress), and our concubines as royal ladies. Respect this."

This was comparatively modest, for he here acknowledges himself inferior to Deity, and claims no superhuman authority; but he afterwards ceased to be content with such an humble position, and demanded for himself divine adoration. Mr. ROBERTS thus speaks of him in Jan., 1862: "His religion is of no avail in the spread of Christianity—worse than useless. It only amounts to a machinery for the promotion and spread of his own political religion, making himself equal with Jesus Christ, who with God the Father, himself and his own son, constitute one Lord over all! Nor is any missionary, who will not believe in his divine appointment to this high equality, and promulgate his political religion accordingly, safe among these rebels in life, servants or property. He told me, soon after I arrived, that if I did not believe him I would perish like the Jews did, for not believing in the Saviour."

But to resume. The rebels now pressed on, taking one place after another, until on the 12th Jan., 1853, they had occupied Han-yang, Wu-chang and Hankow, three cities adjacentto each other, where they collected an immense amount of supplies, both money and provisions. The insurrectionists had met with almost uninterrupted success. Almost in every instance had the Imperial troops been defeated, and the rebels victorious; not so much on account of the skill or generalship displayed by the officers of the Tien-wang, or the valor of his men, as of the imbecility and cowardice of SIN, the viceroy of the two KWANGS, and the insubordination in the Imperial ranks. On one occasion twenty large war junks came down from the Touang-Kouan district, bringing a reinforcement of about 2,000 recruits. They were as undisciplined a horde of vagabonds as ever pretended to call themselves soldiers, and refused peremptorily to embark, unless two months wages were paid in advance. The mandarins foolishly acceded to this demand, and they consented to go. With such troops it was not strange, that victory seldom crowned the efforts of the Imperial forces.

The insurgents next proceeded down the Yangtsze river to Nankin, and took the city by assault March, 1853. Nankin was defended by a garrison of 7,000 or 8,000 Manchus, and although the TIEN-WANG had publicly declared, that their extermination was the first duty of his mission, and they knew that neither they nor their wives nor children could expect to receive any mercy, yet were they so overcome with fear and so fully pursuaded of the invincibility of their enemies, that they never struck a blow in their own defence, but fell down before the leaders of the insurrection with pitious cries of "Spare my life, Prince! Spare my life, Prince!" It does not appear, however, that this appeal touched the cruel heart of the stern TIEN-WANG. The whole city was put to the sword. Only about one hundred escaped out of a population of over twenty thousand. Men, women and children were put to death. "We killed them all," was the fiendish exhultation of the pityless insurgent. "We killed them all, to the infant in the arms. We left not a root to sprout from." Such was the unsparing brutality by which the Taeping rule was, in a degree, established and maintained in China.

We have not space to narrate, even in this brief and meagre way, all the operations of the Taepings. Firmly established in Nankin, which was, under the Mings, the capital of the country, they were able to establish their jurisdiction over an immense extent of territory, and to maintain their authority over a vast number of people. At one time they were said to be in possession of sixty thousand square miles, having a population of 70,000,000. Of course all these were not Taepings, neither in their sympathies nor in their actions; but as long as they lived under the tyranny of the Taeping government, they had to acquiese in the Taeping rule. It was thought that ninety-nine out of a hundred of the people, over whom the Taepings held sway, had no sympathy whatever with the movement, but that they dreaded the fate which awaited them should they fall into the hands of the Imperialists, or feared the vengeance of the TIEN WANG'S officers, should they be apprehended when attempting to escape. The government of the insurgents was a most awful tyranny, as is always the case, when ignorant and fanatical men become suddenly possessed of power. They seemed to be actuated more by whim or fancy, than by any principle, which could be dignified by the name of a national policy. At one time we find them anxious to establish commercial intercourse with the different foreign nations, at another they cut off the head of any man who attempted to carry on a trade. At one time the foreign merchants made a sort of commercial raid among them, buying whatever they could, and bringing away their teas and silks in wheel-barrows and hand-carts, or whatever else they could get hold of. At another time we find Mr. ROBERTS writing of the TIEN WANG as follows:—"He is opposed to commerce, having had more than a dozen of his own people murdered since I have been here, for no other crime than trading in the city, and has promptly repelled every foreign effort to establish lawful commerce here among them, whether inside the city or out."

The entire absence of any kind of plan with reference to future operations, and an absolute inability or unwillingness to provide sufficient force to carry out any important movement, were among the striking characteristics of the Taeping rule. It was not until the movement had commenced and the civil war had actually burst forth with all its fury, spreading

ruin and desolation over a thickly settled and well cultivated country, that the leader began to study military matters at all. Indeed he was so ignorant of the art of war, even according to the clumsy fashion in which the Chinese carried it on, that he was forced to begin at the very rudiments, when he should have been leading his army to battle. One of his chiefs, when taken prisoner, confessed that after the commencement of the rebellion, he had instructed the TIEN-WANG in military tactics. After the capture of Nankin, an expedition was fitted out to march upon Pekin. It was one of the most important operations which the Taepings could possibly undertake. It was nothing less than a strike at the very centre of their enemy's power—his capitol. If it succeeded, it placed the insurgents at once in possession of the government, and although it might not have been the immediate and absolute overthrow of the Imperial dynasty, yet it would have greatly decreased the power and importance of their rule, and have surrounded the Taepings with all the prestige of success. If undertaken at all, it should have been undertaken with all the force which the TIEN WANG could possibly muster. Nothing should have been neglected, which would insure victory and ward off every possibility of defeat.

Yet how different was the fact? A small body of men, scarcely large enough to besiege a little unimportant town, was despatched upon this expedition. This contemptible force was to march all the way from Nankin to Pekin, overcome all the obstacles, defeat the Imperial troops, which ventured to oppose its progress, and besiege and capture the capital of the Chinese Empire. The thing was absurd, and it seems almost unnecessary to add that it resulted in complete disaster. It seemed as if the Taepings were merely playing with the cause they had espoused, and were indifferent about its success or failure. But it was only a specimen of the way they did things. The Heavenly Monarch appears to have made no preparation at all, either for the revolt itself, of which he became the head and front, or for the different operations, which the revolt forced him to undertake. Instead of deliberately maturing his plans, and preparing himself with all the means in his power, and omitting nothing to increase the chances even of success; he seems to have been dragged lazily along by the current of events, and to have had littleor no regard to the probabilities of the future; consequently, that future came upon him unawares; it caught him napping, and he had to pay the penalty. It was this feature, more than any other, which led to the final failure of his cause. The rebellion retained its power so long more on account of the imbecility of the Imperial government, than of any ability which the TIEN-WANG ever displayed.

To show the tyrannical nature of the Taeping rule, and the utter impossibility of any material prosperity ever resulting from its permanent success, it is only necessary to mention one fact. When Nankin fell into their hands, the inhabitants submitted at once to the TIEN-WANG's government. The rebels immediately seized all the crops, which belonged to the people, and served out rations to them; but these rations were so scanty and insignificant as barely to sustain life. This caused such great indignation on the part of the inhabitants, that they threathened to apply to the Imperialists. When their murmuring came to the notice of the insurgents, they took a bloody vengeance, and seventeen thousand victims,

fell, in one day, to satisfy the ideas of justice entertained by the cruel TIEN-WANG. So it was with all their acts. Wherever they went, devastation and ruin were the results. Smoking villages, devastated fields, death and destruction followed in the wake of these Apostles of Great Peace. Indeed it could not be otherwise. No pay was given to the soldiers, and they were not only allowed, but expected, and encouraged to make it up out of the wholesale plunder of the country through which they passed. It was their custom, wherever they met with the least opposition, to destroy the adults, both men and women, but to carry off the children, probably to train them up in their peculiar faith.

The arrogance of the insurgents, in their intercourse with foreigners, was extremely silly, and rendered it impossible to carry on with them anything resembling international correspondence. Shortly after Nankin fell into their hands, the Hermes, of the English Navy, visited the city, having Sir GEORGE BONHAM, the governor of Hong-Kong, on board. The Taepings seemed very willing that the English should visit them, but professed to care little whether they aided the Imperialists or not. As they expressed it: "Our Heavenly Father helps us, and no one can fight with him." They pretended to believe that the English had come to give in their allegiance to the Tien Wang, and no matter how high the rank of Sir GEORGE might be, the Northern King declared that it could not possibly be as high as his own. So it was when, a year later, the Susquehanna visited the city. Some of the Taeping officials came on board, and their assumption of power and dignity was ridiculous in the extreme. "You say you come from a great nation. That is not so. There is no nation but Taeping. You call yourselves officers. It is all a mistake—if you had commissions from the TIEN-WANG, then you would be." With such a people it would, of course, be impossible to establish any diplomatic intercourse.

Nankin continued to be the residence of the TIEN-WANG, and the seat of his government, as long as the Empire of Great Peace was able to exist. It fell into the hands of the Imperialists on the 19th of last July, and with the fall of Nankin fell the hope of the Taepings. The city was defended by three walls—one round the city proper, another round the Tartar portion, and a third, which defended the TIEN-WANG'S palace. The outer wall was breached by means of a mine, containing 60,000 pounds of powder. On the 18th inst., it was abandoned by the rebels, who made no defence at the Tartar city, but fell back to the third line. Here the Taepings are said to have fought very bravely, but they were too weak to resist successfully the stronger force, which their enemies brought against them. The next day the whole city was in the hands of the Imperialists, and the Taeping rebellion was subdued. Within the palace was found the dead body of the TIEN-WANG, lying upon the ground, and hanging from the garden trees were the bodies of a number of his wives. He knew that there was nothing to hope for from Imperial clemency; so when he saw his power gradually decrease, and the chance of offering any effectual resistance become smaller and smaller, and found himself unable to retain possession of the city, where he had established his government, he quitely hung his wives upon the trees of the garden, and swallowed gold leaf, the favorite mode in China of committing suicide. Part of the garrison escaped, and part were

made prisoners. Those that escape have to wander as fugitives about the country, and the prisoners have little to expect from the Emperor's mercy. The brother of the TIEN-WANG, and one of his chief officers, who were taken, were sent to Pekin for execution. It was thought by many Chinamen, that they would be brushed to death; that is executed by means of an iron brush passed over the body, tearing the flesh from the bones—a method of execution almost surpassing, in the refinement of its cruelty, the ingenious devices of the Spanish Inquisition. With regard to the body of the TIEN-WANG, the Emperor commanded that the flesh should be torn from the bones, and the head be sent through the country.

It was not, however, on account of any ability on the part of the Manchu generals, or any superior wisdom ever displayed by the Imperial government, which turned the scale against the Taepings, and finally effected the complete overthrow of the rebellion. It was the foreign element introduced in favor of the Tartar dynasty, to which the Pekin government is indebted for its own preservation; and that portion of the Empire over which the TIEN-WANG held sway, for deliverance from the blasting influences of his rule. Our own people, as well the English and French, gave, at the last, very effective aid to the Imperialists. Introducing among the Chinese the discipline and tactics of the Western nations, they quickly showed their superiority to the clumsy operations of the rebel soldiers. An American by the name of GOUGH rendered, in this way, most important service, and obtained the title of Admiral. A Mr. WARD also became a General over the Chinese forces. But the most effective aid was rendered by a Major GORDON, of the English army, who drilled a number of the Imperial troops, and was promoted for his eminent ability, to the rank of General in the Chinese service. He assisted the Imperial forces in taking very many important places, or perhaps it would be more correct to say, that the Imperial forces assisted him; for to the superior element, which he was personally instrumental in putting into practice, belongs the merit of the capture of the most important cities, and of the final suppression of the Taeping rebellion.

Nankin will hereafter be open to trade. It was a large and important city, but is now mostly a heap of ruins. The country about it is a desert, and years will elapse before it can recover from the pernicious influences of Great Peace. Taepingism is probably dead forever, and we are not aware that the mercantile interests, or the extension of Christianity, have materially suffered from the failure of the TIEN-WANG's Heavenly administration.

WHY THE GOLD REVENUE IS FALLING OFF.

PROHIBITORY DUTIES.

EXPERIENCE is revealing the many crude and absurd provisions of the present Tariff Act, whereby the revenue of the country is diminished rather than increased.

Take the article of spool-cotton for example. Selecting this article as one, solely of foreign manufacture, our legislators have thought no duty too high. The present specific and ad valorem duties amount to about

sixty per cent of the foreign cost, and are so arranged, that on a return to lower prices for raw cotton, they will amount to a tax of at least seventy-five per cent—one altogether prohibitory.

The protection incidentally given to a few New England spinners, at the expense of the United States Revenue, is enormous; the taxes paid by them, in currency, being only one-tenth part of those levied on the foreign spinners. The Internal Tax is five per cent in currency, a tax which produces from five to six cents per dozen at this time, and which will not yield more than two and one-quarter cents a dozen at the ordinary prices of spool-cotton. The duty on foreign thread, ranges from twenty-four to twenty-six cents per dozen, according to quality, and is payable in gold. When gold can be bought at a premium of 2.25, this is equal to 54c@60c. per dozen in currency. Since the Tariff Act went into effect, the fluctuations in the price of specie have made the duty, at times, equal to seventy-four cents in currency, against an average tax of *six* cents on the domestic article.

The consequence is an enormous falling off in the imports, and consequent specie-revenue, raised from duties on spool-cotton, which, for many years has been upwards of $300,000 in coin, at the port of New York alone; and which, for the past two years has been about $500,000 per annum. It is absurd to suppose that a domestic tax of only six cents per dozen in currency will make up this deficiency, even if the entire trade could be transferred to New England.

Already the general bulk of the importations of this article have been largely diminished under successive advances of duty, and since the last Tariff act went into effect, they have almost ceased. The great and sudden reduction of imports for the current year cannot be attributed to excessive importations prior to the passage of the Act, since the imports of 1864 were very nearly the same as those of the two preceeding years. The true explanation is to be found in the losses which foreign spinners are now suffering, in their attempts to contend against these heavy odds, whereby importation is stopped. The duty has passed the point at which the article will yield revenue.

The annexed tables are taken from the reports published weekly of the New York Customs, and are approximately correct, no official statement of revenue from spool-cotton being accessible. As regard the quantities imported at the Port of New York—the figures are official, the duty for each year being assessed according to the Tariff Act then in operation :

REVENUE COLLECTED FROM SPOOL-COTTON AT PORT OF NEW YORK.

In fiscal year ending.	Entered for consumption, and withdrawn from warehouse. Packages.	Foreign value.	D'ty ass'd, p. ct.	Revenue in Gold.
30th June, 1859.....	7,246	$1,621,199	24	$389,087 76
1860.....	7,193	1,589,185	24	381,404 40
(Duty at 30 p. ct, levied on 969 p'k'a. } 1861.....	7,845	1,311,042	24	324,696 96
1862.....	5,546	1,063,267	30	318,980 30
1863.....	5,331	1,232,756	40	493,102 40
1864..... ...	4,539	1,257,856	40	503,142 40
Six months of 1865, 1st July to 15th Dec., 1864..... ...	631	180,002	Sp'fic Duty, eq'l to 12c, & 30 p. c. on 200 yd. thr'd, say, 60	108,001 20

COMMERCIAL LAW.—NO. 17.

INTEREST AND USURY.

(Continued from Page 440, Vol. 51.)

CHARGE FOR RISK OR FOR SERVICE.

It is undoubtedly lawful for a lender to charge an extra price for the risk he incurs, provided that risk be perfectly distinct and different from the merely personal risk of the debtor's being unable to pay. If anything is paid for this last risk, it is certainly usury. But if it is a part of the bargain that the debt shall not be paid if a vessel or goods do not arrive in safety, as is the case in a loan on bottomry, or on respondentia, this is not usury. And by the same principle, if one buys an annuity to end at the annuitant's death, or a life-estate, even on exorbitant and oppressive terms, against which a court of equity would relieve, still it is not a usurious contract, provided the purchase be actual, and not a mere disguise.

So, one may charge for services rendered, for brokerage, or for rate of exchange, and may even cause a domestic loan or discount to be actually converted into a foreign one, so as to charge the exchange; and this would not be usurious. But here, as before, and indeed throughout the law of usury, it is necessary to remember that the actual intention, and not the apparent purpose or form of the transaction, must determine its character. So, if one lends money to be used in business, and lends it upon such terms that he becomes a partner in fact with those who use it, taking his share of the profits, and becoming liable for the losses, this is not usurious.

So, if one enters into a partnership, and provides money for its business, and the other party is to bear all the losses, and also to pay the capitalist more than legal interest as his share of the profits, this is not usurious, because there is no loan, if there be in fact a partnership; because then there is a very important risk, as he becomes liable for all the debts of the partnership. If, however, there be only a pretended partnership, in order to disguise the fact of the loan, this would be usurious, although very possibly the lender might, as to a third party, lay himself open to a liability for debts incurred, by reason of his interest in the profits.

The banks always get more than legal interest by their way of discounting notes and deducting the whole interest from the amount they give. This is perfectly obvious if we take an extreme case; as if a bank discounted a note of a thousand dollars at fifteen years, in Massachusetts, the borrower would receive one hundred dollars, and at the end of fifteen years he would pay back the hundred dollars, and nine hundred dollars for the use of it. But this method is now established by usage and sanctioned by law. It must, however, be confined to discounts of negotiable paper, not having a very long time to run. For the rule is founded upon usage, and the usage goes no further.

THE SALE OF NOTES.

There are, perhaps, no questions in relation to interest and usury of more importance than those which arise from the sale of notes or other securities. In the first place, there is no doubt whatever that the owner of a note has as good a right to sell it for the most he can get, as he has to sell any goods or wares which he owns. There is here no question of usury, because there is no loan of money, nor forbearance of debt. But, on the other hand, it is quite as certain that if any person makes his own note, and sells that for what he can get, this, while in appearance the sale of a note, is in fact the giving of a note for money. It is a loan and a borrowing, and nothing else. And if the apparent sale be for such a price that the seller pays more than legal interest, or, in other words, if the note bear interest and is sold for less than its face, or is not on interest and more than interest is discounted, it is a usurious transaction. Supposing these two rules to be settled, the question in each case is, under which of them does that case come, or to which of them does it draw nearest.

We are not aware of any general principle so likely to be of use in determining these questions as this: If the seller of a note acquired it by purchase, or if it is his for money advanced or lent by him to its full amount, he may sell it for what he can get; but if he be the maker of the note, or the agent of the maker, and receives for the note less than would be paid him if only a lawful discount were made, it is a usurious loan. In other words, the first holder of a note (and the maker of a note is not, and cannot be, its first holder) must pay to the maker the face of the note, or its full amount. And after paying this, he may sell it, and any subsequent purchaser may sell it, as merchandise. The same rule (if it be law, of which we cannot doubt) must apply to corporations, and all other bodies or persons who issue their notes or bonds on interest. If sold by brokers for them, for less than the full amount, it is usurious. Nor can such notes come into the market free from the taint and the defence of usury, unless the first party who holds them pays for them their full value.

But then comes another question. If a note be offered for sale, and be sold for less than its face, and the purchaser supposes himself to buy it from an actual holder and not from the maker, can the maker interpose the defence that it was actually usurious, on the ground that the seller was only his agent? We should say that he could not; that there can be no usury unless this is intended; and that the guilty intention of one party cannot affect another party who was innocent. Undoubtedly, a note, originally usurious, is not healed, so far as the owner is concerned, by transfer to an innocent holder. The *indorsers* may be liable to the holder; but whatever defence the maker could have, on the ground of usury, against the first holder, he may always have against any subsequent holder. This is because there was actual usury at the beginning; that is, one lent and the other borrowed, both knowing that more than legal interest was paid. But in the case of an innocent purchaser, or, rather, of one who supposes, and has a right to suppose, that he is a purchaser, he did not lend his money at all; he only bought a security with it; and, therefore, there is no usury.

We should, however, say that, when a maker shows that the apparent

seller was only his agent, and offers this as evidence that the note passed from him usuriously, he thereby casts upon the buyer the burden of proving his innocence; but it is then enough for the buyer to satisfy the jury of his belief that he was only a purchaser.

As one may sell the notes or other securities which he holds as property under no other restriction than that which attends the sale of merchandise, so we think that a man may sell his credit. The cases which relate to this question are far from harmonious. In the dread of usury which was formerly entertained, and the determination—so strongly expressed by MANSFIELD—that it should not, by any device, escape the law, it has undoubtedly been held that the indorser of a note should be liable upon it only for what he received, with lawful interest. But although we have not much positive authority for setting this rule aside, we are quite confident that a better understanding of the nature of negotiable paper, of the contract of indorsement, and of the rules which properly belong to the sale and purchase of money, would make the indorser liable for the whole of the note.

If A holds the note of B, and sells it to C, without indorsing it, he can certainly sell it for what he pleases; if he chooses to add his indorsement, he will do so, and he will probably do this if the additional value, which he thus imparts to it exceeds the risk he incurs. If, then, he indorses the note, it is to make his merchandise more valuable; and it would seem to be little less than an absurdity to say, that a merchant may not thus give a paper he holds more value, or that he may give the paper this value, but must not realize this value by the sale. If, however, the rule is, that, when called upon by the indorsee, he may plead usury as between them, and pay either nothing, or so much only as he received, without regard to the amount he agreed by his indorsement to pay, it is obvious that the whole effect and utility of the indorsement would be very much impaired. We think that a seller with indorsement should be, and that he now generally would be, held as liable for the full amount of the note.

Some courts have held, that, if one honestly buys a negotiable note for less than its face, he can recover only so much as he pays, with lawful interest. But the law is otherwise generally, and especially in our most commercial States, for the plain reason, that, if this be law, no note would be saleable when money was worth more than lawful interest. That is, no one would buy it, if he could only get his money back with simple interest. Suppose one owes a note for $1,000, having six months to run, when money is worth twelve per cent per annum. The note is worth in the market $1,000, less six per cent, or $60; that is, it is worth $940. But if a man gave this, he could recover under this rule only what he gave, with simple interest; that is, $940 with three per cent interest, or $968 20. Therefore he would not buy it. Only where it is supposed that the law can always regulate and control the actual market value of money, can this rule prevail.

We should say, also, that one who, having no interest in a note, indorses or guaranties it for a certain premium, will be liable for its face; he does not now add his credit to the value of his property and sell both together, as where he indorses a note which he holds himself, but sells his credit alone. This transaction we should not think usurious. And if it was open to no other defence, as fraud, for example, and was in fact

what it purported to be, and not a mere cover for a usurious loan, we know no good reason why such indorser or guarantor should not be held liable to the full amount of his promise. This case arose in New York. A, being desirous of raising money upon a note, drawn by himself, and indorsed for his accommodation by B and C, authorized a broker to buy an additional name or guaranty, for the purpose of getting the note discounted, and application was accordingly made to D, who thereupon indorsed the note, receiving a commission of two and-a-half or three per cent therefor; it was held that the taking of the commission by D did not render the transaction usurious, and D was bound for the whole amount. The earlier cases, however, seem to have held that the compensation thus received must not exceed the lawful rate of interest for the time the paper has to run.

COMPOUND INTEREST.

Compound interest is sometimes said to be usurious; but it is not so; and even those cases which speak of it as "savoring of usury," may be thought to go too far, unless every hard bargain for money is usurious. As the authorities now stand, however, a contract or promise to pay money with compound interest cannot, generally, be enforced. On the other hand, it is neither wholly void, nor attended with any penalty, as it would be if usurious; but is valid for the principal and legal interest only.

Nevertheless, compound interest is sometimes recognized as due by courts of law, as well as of equity; and sometimes, too, by its own name. Thus, if a trustee be proved to have had the money of the party for whom he is trustee (who is called in law his *cestui que trust*) for a long time, without accounting for it, he may be charged with the whole amount, reckoned at compound interest, so as to cover his unlawful profits. If compound interest has accrued under a bargain for it, and been actually paid, it cannot be recovered back, as money usuriously paid may be. And if accounts are agreed to be settled by annual rests, which is in fact compound interest, or are actually settled so in good faith, the law sanctions this. Sometimes, in cases of disputed accounts, the courts direct this method of settlement.

Where money due on interest has been paid by sundry instalments, the mode of adjusting the amount which has the best authority, and the prevailing usage in its favor, seems to be this: Compute the interest due on the principal sum to the time when a payment, either alone or in conjunction with preceding payments, with interest cast on them, shall equal or exceed the interest due on the principal. Deduct this sum, and upon the balance cast interest as before, until a payment or payments equal the interest due; then deduct again, and so on.

THE TREASURY REPORT.—THE PAST AND FUTURE POLICY.

When a few months since Mr. Fessenden succeeded to the arduous position and complicated embarrassments bequeathed by Mr. Chase, we sympathised with the new Secretary in the great task he had undertaken. The finances, inflated like an immense balloon, and showing evident signs of colapse, after a more or less successful ascension, were put into his hands to guide and sustain. He has now had five months experience of the task, and his annual report is before us. We should, however, remember, in examining it, that he is not to blame for the errors of his predecessor, nor for their necessary consequences. Had he, therefore, taken hold of his department with a firm hand, and a steady purpose to guide the ship through the breakers that surround it—had he shown no signs of yielding to the cry of eager speculators who live upon inflation—had he adopted every expedient to bring his ballon to the earth again, no fault could be found with him. But we are sorry to see, that although he acknowledges this swiming in the air is not safe, yet he appears either to like it or has not the courage to make the necessary change: so he casts about for some means of sustaining himself without apparently having any exact idea of the kind of aid which will be effective.

He informs us that revenues from taxes are not as large as he hoped for, and appeals to Congress for some action which will be more efficient: and yet he fails to propose any adequate taxation or to make any change in the policy pursued. It is difficult, therefore, to see how he would attain the desired end. At the last session of Congress the duties on imports were doubled and the internal revenue charges consolidated and increased, and yet the revenue bears a less ratio to the increasing expenditure than ever. The actual income for three years has been as follows, with the estimate for 1865, now half elapsed:

	1862.	1863.	1864.	1865.
Customs	$49,056,397	$69,059,642	$102,316,153	$70,271,092
Lands	152,204	167,617	588,333	642,186
Direct tax	1,795,332	1,485,103	475,649	16,080
Internal revenue....	.....	37,640,788	109,741,134	249,562,860
Miscellaneous	931,787	3,046,615	47,511,488	24,020,171
Total revenue.....	$51,935,720	$111,399,766	$260,632,717	$344,512,389
Expenditures.....	474,744,778	714,709,995	865,234,087	1,248,790,997
Excess expenses.....	422,809,058	603,310,229	604,601,370	904,278,608

These figures present the difficulties of the position. The increase of expenditure is constantly exceeding the increase of revenue.

The statement of the income, as above given, is not quite accurate, however. It will be observed that the customs which are paid in gold are added up in their specie value, with other resources given in the currency value. This would have been accurate had the provisions of the law been carried out which provides that the coin received for currency shall be appropriated exclusively to the interest on the public debt and to a sinking fund. The amount of customs, however, exceeded the amount paid

for interest by forty-eight millions, and that sum, instead of being applied to a sinking fund, as the law directs, was sold and used for other purposes, under the head of miscellaneous receipts.* There is a credit of $16,498,975 for premium on gold sold. This would give a premium of about 33⅓ per cent on the surplus gold, but much of it was sold at 65 premium under official public notice; and at that premium the actual revenue of the year should have been $16,000,000 greater than reported, making $32,000,000 derived from the premium on gold for the service of the Treasury. The business of the present year is such that the customs will give no more than will be required for interest, and perhaps, as the Secretary intimates, not enough for that purpose. Hence, notwithstanding the increased estimate for the internal revenue tax, the actual revenue for the service of 1865 will be very little more than last year. This is apparent if we deduct the amount applied to interest:

Gold receipts	$102,316,153
Interest paid	53,685,422
Balance gold	$48,630,731
Add premium	32,500,000
Total used for general purposes	$81,130,731
Other revenue	158,316,564
Total currency revenue, 1864	$239,447,295
" 1865, less gold	274,241,297
Net increase	$34,794,002

Now, when it is borne in mind that these are results from a revised tariff, by which duties were doubled, and a revised revenue law which came into operation with Mr. FESSENDEN, in July, and that these figures also embrace a 5 per cent extra tax levied upon the incomes of 1863, and which the report of the Commissioner of internal revenue informs us will give $35,000,000; and when we remember, also, the great increase of our expenses, caused by the increased currency issued by the Treasury and the National Banks, we become aware of the gravity of our financial position and the necessity for some radical change.

We have already stated that the difficulty lies in the fact that our revenue, each succeeding year, bears a less and less ratio to the expenditures. Why this is so is evident. So long as prices rise our expenses must increase, and so long as Government adds to its issues of paper, and allows Banks to do the same thing, prices will evidently rise. The

* The Treasurer has applied the gold ($48,000,000) to purposes other than those the law directs, and all the explanation he makes is the following:

"The act of February 25, 1862, provides that the coin received for duties on imports shall, after paying interest on bonds and notes, be appropriated to the purchase of one per centum of the public debt, to be set apart with its accruing interest as a sinking fund, as the Secretary might, from time to time, direct. All experience has proved that, in a time of war, when expenditures must largely exceed receipts from ordinary sources, and large sums are borrowed in each year, the attempt to establish a sinking fund invariably fails. It is, in fact, simply borrowing to lend again. For this reason, no attempt to carry out this provision has yet been made."

extent to which our expenses are being multiplied by the currency is seen in the foregoing statement. The measure of the depreciation is the price of gold, which is lower in relation to paper than most other commodities, and is, consequently, a safe guide to the over-supply of paper. If we take, then, the average price of gold each fiscal year, in connection with the expenses for the same time, the one will explain the other:

	1862.	1863.	1864.	1865.
Expenses	$474,744,778	$714,709,995	$865,234,087	$1,248,790,997
Average premium on gold	8	40	60	125

Our expenses ought really to decrease as the war advances, since much of the material bought the first year does not have to be purchased again. The unfortunate policy that has been pursued, however, has made a contrary result.

If now we take the official tables of the receipts and expenditures of the quarter ending September 30th, being the first quarter of each of the two fiscal years 1864 and 1865, we may also learn the effect on the revenue of the paper issues:

	1863.	1864.
Customs	$22,562,018	$19,271,092
Lands	136,182	342,186
Direct tax	.....	16,079
Inland revenue	17,599,714	46,562,860
Miscellaneous	641,542	9,020,171
Total	$40,939,456	$75,212,408
Expenses	176,110,932	353,061,861
Excess borrowed	$135,171,476	$277,849,453

The following statement shows the revenue of these two quarters at its specie value, which was 30 premium in 1863 and 150 in 1864, and, also, the actual revenue, less the customs:

	Currency Revenue.	Specie value.
1863	$18,377,438	$14,136,481
1864	55,941,316	22,376,510

Thus we see there was an increase of $177,000,000 in expenses, while there was an increase of $37,000,000 in currency revenue, and only $6,000,000 in coin value. Can we look at such figures and then read with patience the portions of the report speaking in commendation of National Banks and their fast increasing currency, or those sentences recommending that unlimited power be granted the Treasurer to issue legal tenders!

Mr. Fessenden makes, apparently, a grave error in the amount to be borrowed this year. Thus, he gives the income and expenditure of the year as follows:

	Revenue.	Expenditure.
1 quarter actual	$75,212,408	$353,061,861
3 " estimated	269,299,981	1,245,729,135
Total	$344,512,389	$1,598,790,996
Deduct unexpended balances	.....	350,000,000
	.....	$1,248,790,996
Amount, less revenue	.....	904,278,607

This sum evidently represents the amount that must be borrowed, yet Mr. FESSENDEN states the amount to be $570,727,508. The error of this last statement is manifest from the fact that the official figures show the amount actually borrowed in the first quarter ending September 30, to have been $277,849,453, or nearly one-half of what he puts down to the whole year, and there still remained a large amount of arrear requisitions to be met.

Such seems to be the real condition of the Treasury, and the Secretary appears to be puzzled, for he does not pretend to point out any remedy. He suggests rather than advises a tax upon leaf tobacco, a tax on all sales of merchandise, that the income tax be made to embrace all sums, and that the tax increase in proportion to the income; also, that mineral lands be rented instead of sold. Any or all of these means he thinks will increase the revenue.

The great resource, however, is to borrow, and this is to be done on bonds with paper interest, even if it requires another flood of paper to float them. Why such a course is persevered in, is past finding out. Cannot the Government see that when they depreciate the currency they are not only increasing the expenses, as shown above, but are depreciating the value of the stock issued as compared with the products of industry? Thus the farmer in December, 1863, could get a United States six per cent gold interest bond of $1,000 for 170 barrels flour, to-day he can get the same bond for 90 barrels flour; or he could get the bond last year for 60 barrels mess pork, this year it will cost him but 30 barrels of pork.

The President, in his annual message, proposed that the bonds should be exempt from all tax, and made also exempt from seizure for debt. Mr. FESSENDEN sustains this expedient as follows:

"If our public debt must necessarily be large, and require a long course of years for its liquidation, its wide diffusion is most desirable. Such advantage should be offered as will induce all, who have anything to spare beyond the amount required for their own support or use, to invest the surplus, or a portion of it, in the national securities. These advantages can only be found in an increased rate of interest, an exemption from public burdens, and security of possession. What limit should be fixed in either of these particulars it is for the practical experience and wisdom of Congress to ascertain and determine."

This loan is so very objectionable that we cannot think it will be seriously entertained. Suppose the Government was able to absorb all the capital of the country in such a loan, who would pay the taxes necessary for interest, etc.?

Of course as the Secretary has no particular policy to recommend for raising the necessary funds, he asks for further and unlimited power to increase the currency. On this point he says:

"A wide discretion should be entrusted to the officer charged with the duty of negotiating loans, in order that he may be enabled to avoid unexpected difficulties occasioned by, possibly, conditions of the money market. This delicate and responsible duty must necessarily be entrusted to somebody, and the people can have no other reliable security for faithfulness in its discharge than may found in the established character of the individual *charged with so important a trust, whoever he may be.* The discretion thus confided should, in the opinion of the Secretary, include the power of increasing the currency."

He protests strongly against the supposition that he would needlessly increase the currency. But in regard to this power being granted the

Comptroller of the National Banks has the following excellent protest:

"Circulating notes have been issued under peculiar circumstances by other governments, as is now being done by that of the United States, but the judgment of the world is against it as a permanent policy, and nothing but an overpowering public exigency will at any time justify it. Under popular institutions like ours no more dangerous, no more corrupting power could be lodged in the hands of the party in possession of the Government; none more perilous to official probity and free elections. Give to a party dominant in the legislative and executive branches of the Government the authority of issuing paper money for the purpose of furnishing the country with its currency, subject, as it would be, to no restraint but its own pleasure, and what guaranty would there be that this authority would be honestly and judiciously used? If there were no risk in the preparation of the notes, and checks were provided to make fraudulent issues an impossibility, the power of issuing Government promises as a circulating medium is too dangerous a one to be conferred upon any party, except under extraordinary circumstances."

This is, as we said, no doubt a correct view of the matter. But although the Comptroller argues against Mr. FESSENDEN having this power, he claims it in behalf of the National Banks which he controls, and says it is indispensable for the Treasury to control the currency. He fails entirely to show how the increase of the currency through banks which he controls, is any less dangerous than for the Secretary of the Treasury to control the currency himself directly.

The gold revenue is now short of the interest account, and the spectre of a deficit gold fund presents itself to the mind of the Secretary:

"But whatever success might attend any effort to check speculation in coin, or to counteract its injurious effect, it is still obvious that so long as there remains a large and increasing necessity for its use, and a limited supply, it will command a price commensurate with the necessity and the difficulty of obtaining it. This necessity arises from the demand for foreign exchange, the customs duties, and to pay the interest on the public debt. The matter of foreign exchange I do not propose to discuss. The demand for duties on imports and that to pay the interest on a large portion of the public debt are so far identical that one is dependent upon the other. The laws authorizing the issue of bonds bearing interest in coin specifically pledged the revenue from customs to the payment of that interest, and provided for the collection of those duties in the same currency. In *the opinion* of the Secretary that pledge should not be violated; *a departure from it could only be vindicated by one of those state necessities which justify a nation in temporarily postponing its obligations in order to preserve the power to discharge them at a future day. When the pledge was given no one anticipated a possible continuance of the war for such a* length of time as would involve the increase of the public debt to the point it has already attained, or *the possible payment of interest in coin to an amount beyond the ability of duties on imports to supply.* It will be noticed, however, that our annual coin interest now exceeds $56,000,000. Should the additional amount required for the expenditures of the present fiscal year be raised upon bonds bearing interest in coin, and the revenue from customs not exceed the estimate predicated upon the receipts of the first quarter, it is quite manifest that resort must soon be had to some other source of supply, or recourse must be had to the emission of securities of a different character."

These suggestions thus put forth involve very grave consequences. The actual interest payable in coin is $61,000,000. The actual amount of duties in the last ten years of peace was $54,000,000 average. The paper outstanding convertible into coin stock will raise the interest to $70,000,000 if no more is created. The point is therefore reached when "resource must be had to securities of a different character," and what are these?

Such is the substance of the report of our new Secretary so far as he develops his future policy. To our mind there is little in it that is satis-

factory. It fails to suggest any plan for the future, or any remedy for the present. As we understand it, the Treasury is to be left to drift along, while old evils are too aggrivated. Oh, for a man brave enough to strike out boldly and swim against this current which is hurrying us on to bankruptcy! Is it fear that leads our official men to recommend a three per cent income tax when it should be thirty per cent, if there is no better way to raise the money? Is it something worse than fear that allows the further increase of our currency through Government and through banks? Why should banks of any kind (whether State or National) have the power to issue circulation now? Can the Government afford to increase its expenses each year as in the past, and can we as individuals continue to pay an advance each day for our daily bread? Is there no limit to our ability to do this? Certainly the late election has shown the administration that the people are in earnest in carrying on this war. All they ask is, that it be managed rightly, economically. Unwelcome as taxation is they are ready for it, if the Government will only avoid other measures which are neutralizing the payments they are called on to make.

COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS AT NEW YORK FALLING OFF—PRICES OF SIXTEEN ARTICLES FROM 1862-64—EFFECT OF TREASURER'S REPORT—THE 7.3-10 BONDS, RIGHT OF CONVERSION—UNITED STATES PAPER, PRICES OF FOR YEAR—SPECIE AND PRICE OF GOLD—RATES OF EXCHANGE, ETC.

THERE has been, during the month, little change in a commercial point of view. The uncertainties that attended the election, the publication of the annual reports, the assembling of Congress, the new projects for increasing the taxes, and their probable influence upon the value of and demand for goods, together with the anxieties in relation to military operations, and their possible influence, in combination with the Treasuary measures for the raising of money upon the value of goods, have all tended to paralyze enterprise, the more so as a new draft for 300,000 men was announced towards the close of December. The imports and exports of the port of New York, as compared with last year, show a great falling off. They have been as follows, November 1 to December 19:

		Exports.		
	Imports.	Currency value.	Specie value.	Excess imports.
1863.....	$25,964,896	$20,027,109	$13,635,218	$12,329,678
1864	13,412,177	28,963,763	12,069,291	1,342,886

The amount of goods imported was hardly more than half that of the same period last year, but as the price of gold fluctuated in the market, advantage was taken of the low rates of gold to draw goods out of bond, and the duties so paid seemed to sustain the customs revenue, which nevertheless has been much less than at the same period last year. The rise in gold and in taxes has told

heavily upon consumption by greatly enhancing prices. The following is a comparative table of the prices of sixteen articles in illustration:

	March, 1862.	March, 1863.
Cordage, Manilla	$9 00 a 10 00	$18 00 a 18 50
Indigo	1 25 a 2 50	2 00 a 2 85
Coffee, Rio, 100 lbs	17 25 a 19 50	30 50 a 34 00
India rubber	48 a 50	85 a 87
Gunny cloth, 100 yards	11 00 a 11 50	16 00 a 16 75
Hides, Rio, 100 lbs	21 00 a 21 50	30 00 a 31 00
Plaster of Paris	1 50 a 1 75	3 60 a 3 75
Leather, oak. mid	27 00 a 30 00	40 00 a 42 00
Mahogany	35 00 a 45 00	45 00 a 55 00
Molasses, No. gall	50 a 55	45 a 47
Silk, raw	5 00 a 5 50	10 00 a 10 50
Cassia, 100 lbs	31 00 a 32 50	45 00 a 46 00
Gin	26 00 a 27 00	55 00 a 56 00
Sugar, Cuba, 100 lbs	6 87 a 8 75	9 25 a 11 50
Tin, Banca	30 00 a 32 00	56 00 a 58 00
Spelter	5 50 a 5 70	9 00 a 9 37
	$226 35 a254 25	$370 55a396 56

	March, 1864.	December, 1864.
Cordage, Manilla	$19 00 a 20 00	$24 00 a 25 00
Indigo	1 60 a 2 50	2 60 a 3 00
Coffee, Rio, 100 lbs	36 00 a 37 50	44 00 a 48 00
India rubber	83 a 85	1 16 a 1 20
Gunny cloth, 100 yards	15 50 a 15 75	20 50 a 21 00
Hides, Rio, 100 lbs	29 50 a 30 00	31 00 a 32 00
Plaster of Paris	3 25 a 3 50	4 50 a 4 80
Leather, oak. mid	45 00 a 47 00	49 00 a 52 00
Mahogany	100 00a150 00	75 00 a110 00
Molasses, No. gall	70 a 80	1 10 a 1 27
Silk, raw	9 50 a 9 75	14 00 a 15 00
Cassia, 100 lbs	62 50 a 65 00	100 00 a105 05
Gin	103 00a110 00	210 00 a215 00
Sugar, Cuba, 100 lbs	12 25 a 14 75	16 25 a 22 25
Tin, Banca	56 00 a 57 00	70 00 a 72 00
Spelter	12 50 a 13 00	15 00 a 15 50
	$516 13 a577 00	$679 11a739 27

This average aggregate rise has been as follows:

	Gold premium.	16 articles.	Rise per cent.
March, 1862	1¼	241 30	..
" 1863	54	383 55	60
" 1864	59	546 56	130
Dec., 1864	1 25	709 19	194

This table shows that the price of commodities keeps always in advance of that of gold. Thus the premium on gold is 125 per cent, and the advance in the articles has been 150 per cent on the gold price of those articles. These higher prices include the duties, the cost of gold with which payment is made, the price of exchange, the stamps and other taxes, and all the expenses and profits of the importers. Before the goods reach the consumers they are thus loaded with expenses, charges, taxes, and profits, which therefore necessarily diminish the ability of the consumers to take the usual quantities. The home manufacturers have had

less to contend with. They have been charged with three per cent tax, and other charges, and the rise in raw materials and wages, but they have been sustained by a large and effective demand from the Government for most materials of clothing, munitions, etc., at rates which have left a considerable profit. The manufacturing sections have indeed never been so prosperous as during the past year. It is the case, nevertheless, that the stocks of merchandise generally, as well in first hands, as those on the shelves of stores, and in possession of consumers, an far less than in ordinary years, while there is very little apparent disposition at the present moment to import. For these reasons prices are generally firm.

The effect of the annual Treasury report was not very marked. The leading idea advanced was that the issue of paper money would be restrained, and that dependance would be had mostly upon paper interests bearing securities, to the exclusion of gold stocks, the amount of which the Secretary intimated is quite as large as the revenue from customs will meet. Nevertheless, he asked for the authority to issue more legal tender at discretion, while avowing the strongest opposition to the exercise of that discretion.

The securities most pressed upon the public were 7.3-10 three year notes, with coupons payable half-yearly, and convertible into 5-20 six per cent gold stock at maturity. The right of conversion is not, in this case, very valuable, for the reason that the gold stock to be issued in exchange is also payable, at the will of the Government, at the end of 5 years, and may be paid in paper by the contraction of a new loan for the purpose. The sales were, therefore, not very great. An amount of about $27,000,000 of the 5-20 gold stock was issued to private takers at about 105. This stock was in some demand on account of the rapid increase of the new Banks, which desire them to place with the Comptroller. The negotiation was followed by another of the 10-40 five per cent gold stock, the only stock absolutely payable in coin at maturity. The amount of this stock authorized by the law of March, 1864, was $200,000,000. There had been sold about $82,000,000, and the balance of $18,000,000 was taken up, in the hope that the Secretary would make a public announcement withdrawing the remaining $100,000,000 from market. This he declined to do. Last year Mr. CHASE stopped the sale of the 5-20's while they were being rapidly sold, in order that by so doing the price might rise for the benefit of the speculators. The results were by no means satisfactory, and Mr. FESSENDEN seemed desirous of avoiding that mistake. The negotiation left the Treasury with the following means to negotiate:

10-40's 5 per cent gold stock.....	$100,000,000
5-20's 6 per cent gold stock.....	133,000,000
3 year 7.3-10 paper notes.....	60,000,000

The 10-40's were sold at par, with an allowance of 3-16 discount. The interest ran from September, and accrued interest was paid by the buyer in gold, or at the rate of 150 in currency. One year certificates, due before Jan. 6, were taken with the interest in full. One year notes, due in February, were also taken with interest. The movement caused a greater degree of activity in Government stocks, the more so that the scarcity of business paper directed the growing abundance of money mostly into Government stocks for employment.

This was encouraged by the disposition of the Government Banks to sell the stocks on small margins and lend the money on them. The effect on prices was as follows:

PRICES UNITED STATES PAPER.

		6's, 1881. Reg.	6's, 1881. Coup.	5's, 1874.	7 3-10, 3 years.	1 year certif. Old.	1 year certif. New.	Gold.
January	2..	104⅝	105⅛	96	106⅛	101⅛	97⅝	151⅛ a 151⅝
"	9..	104⅝	105⅛	96	106⅛	102	97⅝	152 a 152⅛
"	16..	104	105⅛	96	106⅛	102⅛	97⅞	155 a 155⅛
"	23..	106	107	97	107	103	97	156 a 158
"	30..	106⅝	106	100	107⅛	102⅝	97⅝	156⅛ a 156⅝
February	6..	107⅝	107⅛	100	108	102⅝	98⅝	159⅝ a 159⅞
"	13..	109⅝	109⅝	100	109⅛	103	98⅝	159⅞ a 159⅛
"	20..	111⅛	110	100	111	103	99⅛	159⅝ a 161
"	27..	111⅛	110⅛	100	111	103	99⅛	159⅝ a 161
March	5..	111⅛	111	100	111	103⅛	99⅝	161⅛ a 161⅛
"	12..	112	112	100	110⅛	103	99⅝	162⅛ a 162⅝
"	19..	112	112⅛	100	110⅛	103	99⅛	162 a 162⅛
"	26..	112	112⅛	100	111⅛	103	99⅛	169⅝ a 179
April	2..	111	110	100	111	...	99⅛	166⅝ a 167⅞
"	9..	112	112	102	111⅛	...	99⅛	169⅛ a 170
"	16..	107⅛	112⅛	102	112	...	99	173 a 189
"	23..	105⅛	108	109	109	...	97	174⅝ a 179
"	30..	114	114	102	111	...	98⅛	179⅛ a 179⅝
May	7..	113	113	102	109⅛	...	98⅛	173⅝ a 173⅝
"	14..	114	114⅛	102	111	...	98⅛	172⅛ a 172⅛
"	21..	114	114	102	111	...	98⅛	183 a 183⅛
"	28..	114	114	102	111	...	98⅛	186 a 186⅛
June	4..	109	113⅛	102	109⅝	...	98	190⅝ a 191
"	11..	108	113	102	108⅛	...	97⅞	198⅛ a 198⅝
"	18..	107	112	102	107	...	97	195⅛ a 196
"	25..	104⅛	112	102	106⅛	...	96⅛	212 a 216
July	2..	104⅛	111	102	105⅛	...	94	235 a 240
"	9..	104	104	102	105	...	94	266⅛ a 267
"	16..	102⅝	102⅝	102	103⅛	...	94⅛	244 a 265
"	23..	102⅛	102⅛	102	103⅛	...	92⅛	250 a 268
"	30..	107	107	93	107⅝	...	95⅛	251 a 251⅛
Aug.	6..	106⅛	105⅛	99	107⅛	...	94⅛	260 a 260⅛
"	13..	106⅝	107	100	108	...	95	256⅛ a 256
"	20..	108⅛	108⅛	100	110	...	94⅞	257⅛ a 257⅛
"	27..	109⅝	109⅝	100	111⅛	...	95	254 a 255
Sept.	3..	107	107	100	111	...	93⅝	254 a 254⅛
"	10..	107	108⅛	100	111	...	93⅛	234 a 233
"	17..	108	108⅛	100	110⅝	...	93⅛	222⅛ a 222⅛
"	24..	108	107⅛	100	110⅝	...	94⅛	212⅛ a 212⅛
Oct.	1..	106	106⅛	103	110⅝	...	94⅛	194⅛ a 194⅝
"	8..	105⅛	105⅛	100	105⅛	...	94⅛	200⅛ a 200⅝
"	15..	106	105⅝	100	105	...	94⅛	213⅛ a 214
"	22..	106	106⅛	100	105	...	94⅝	209⅝ a 210
"	29..	106⅛	105⅞	100	108	...	95	216⅛ a 216⅝
Nov.	5..	107⅛	106⅝	100	106⅝	...	95⅛	239⅛ a 240
"	12..	107⅛	107⅛	100	108	...	95⅛	244 a 245
"	19..	110⅛	110⅛	100	118	...	96⅛	216⅛ a 217
"	26..	111⅛	111⅛	100	120	...	96⅝	219 a 219⅛
Dec.	3..	107⅛	107⅛	100	116	...	97⅛	231⅛ a 232
"	12..	108⅛	108⅛	100	120	...	97⅝	240 a 241⅛
"	19..	109	109⅛	100	120	...	97⅛	234⅛ a 234⅛
"	26..	110	110	100	120	...	96⅝	217 a 217⅛

The rise in the 6's carried the prices here to a rate higher than the price abroad, which varied from 40 a 43 cents per dollar in London.

The demand for gold was well sustained during the month for export, and the movement was as follows:

SPECIE AND PRICE OF GOLD.

	1863.		1864.			
	Received.	Exported.	Received.	Exported.	Gold in bank.	Prem. on gold
Jan. 2	.....	681,448	254,239	590,262	25,161,935	51¼ a 52
9	1,277,788	726,746	.....	1,216,204	25,122,002	51⅝ a 52
16	.....	1,380,247	279,801	1,985,057	24,884,264	52⅛ a 56½
23	678,841	780,817	365,608	1,000,000	24,631,204	56 a 58
30	.....	1,331,027	324,864	668,747	24,203,632	56½ a ...
Feb. 6	801,860	1,277,000	.....	662,616	24,070,191	⅝9½ a ...
13	359,987	1,152,846	363,198	1,219,808	23,521,453	95 a ...
20	.....	520,017	.....	325,632	22,523,918	59 a ...
27	285,894	1,377,016	407,057	531,700	22,301,687	165 a 61
March 5	1,243,551	733,643	512,358	629,803	21,220,653	61½ a 66½
12	.....	3,540,550	.....	465,920	20,750,495	62 a 62
19	249,514	1,201,907	281,304	83,881	21,059,512	62 a 70
26	159,105	1,050,156	375,101	278,900	20,425,504	69½ a 68½
Apr. 2	250,778	473,385	273,429	168,912	19,527,665	63⅝ a 71½
9	.....	607,059	302,344	345,471	20,924,287	67 a 29
16	217,602	158,437	269,522	1,002,384	21,687,670	71 a 89
23	256,604	629,855	.....	3,226,000	24,868,203	72½ a 79
30		294,998	282,376	1,271,886	24,087,343	77 a 85
May 7	205,057	451,827	282,276	1,174,241	23,082,028	71 a 81
14		661,996		2,452,668	22,685,155	61⅛ a 76½
12	258,570	488,745	383,428	1,884,195	22,091,691	73 a 85
28	.....	279,994	.....	580,820	21,973,180	87½ a 92½
June 4	318,066	411,483	271,801	1,425,588	22,461,604	87 a 90½
11	.....	235,864	.....	1,543,600	24,041,704	92 a 99½
18	.....	522,147	291,208	1,886,663	22,916,291	94 a 98½
25	187,082	134,482	281,011	1,296,356	22,000,898	99 a 130
July 2	.....	347,807	.....	560,677	21,206,685	115 a 130
9	254,947	401,936	301,207	486,339	20,084,917	122 a 176½
16	.....	2,190,781	.....	301,244	21,234,354	144 a 185
23	.....	1,725,748	249,095	556,464	21,038,912	150½a 168⅝
30	270,182	480,374	284,301	404,312	21,051,896	144 a 159
Aug. 6	.....	550,044	.....	90,111	21,159,518	155 a 161½
13	318,612	1,210,220	.....	341,883	21,080,309	152 a 159½
20	.....	238,398	571,281	48,009	20,794,268	155 a 158
27	231,854	1,379,710	.....	206,398	19,952,949	145 a 157
Sept. 3	.....	309,799	387,281	444,503	20,136,547	131 a 153
10	279,043	852,752	.....	486,451	20,603,881	125 a 143
17	193,548	535,796	369,592	669,733	20,065,180	114 a 130
24	277,380	1,411,611	.....	1,288,559	20,065,180	100 a 126
Oct. 1	.....	803,583	281,481	603,604	19,671,131	85 a 105
" 8	268,282	2,555,656	275,131	287,758	20,066,557	89 a 106
" 15	.....	1,206,950	191,781	239,491	20,522,032	99 a 108
" 22	267,911	1,243,273	.....	616,456	21,010,360	110 a 115
" 29	.....	585,302	279,121	932,648	21,078,307	109½a 120⅝
Nov. 5	547,338	646,017	381,310	2,296,630	21,740,327	121½a 146
" 12	281,340	395,796	489,632	1,224,280	22,491,122	238 a 260
" 19	261,730	1,006,907	.....	1,545,165	21,488,959	209½a 225
" 26	261,101	1,331,057	.....	1,524,113	20,248,716	216½a 228½
Dec. 3	.....	1,771,021	.....	1,523,255	20,273,919	225 a 235
" 12	305,650	1,409,455	376,878	1,072,508	20,713,208	226½a 243½
" 19	297,899	1,466,497	792,517*	1,671,487	20,868,768	223½a 227½
" 26	.....	730,806	381,220	1,281,351	20,600,441	211½a 226
Total.....	11,037,229	$49,882,515	12,484,145	49,571,731		

* $500,000 to United States Treasury.

A good deal of the export movement is due to the amount of gold stocks held abroad. Of these it is estimated that $150,000,000 are there held, which would involve a shipment of $9,000,000, or 25 per cent of the receipts from California. The Secretary of the Treasury in his report states, however, that he had large additional sums to pay abroad, and to meet them sent out $10,000,000 of stock to sell, but failed in the negotiation, and was therefore compelled to send $4,000,000 of gold from California for that purpose. The demand for travelers, for remittances of emigrants, and for State and corporation interest and dividends, form important items of remittance in addition to the payments on account of imports. It was also the case that the Bank of France had been a buyer of gold to aid in bridging over adverse exchanges, until the current of trade set back. This accelerated the export hence. The whole export for the year has been such as to diminish the amount here by perhaps $40,000,000. The dealing in gold has become large, regular and permanent, and the fluctuations in currency such that it has been necessary to confine exchange transactions to the gold price, payable in gold, as is also the case with many leading articles of importation. Under these circumstances the transportation and safe keeping of the gold became onerous. The large dealers, therefore, by consent, took a common depository—the Bank of New York—where all the gold that arrives for the parties interested is deposited, and is transferred by certificate from hand to hand, until wanted, for shipment, or for customs, when the holder of a certificate draws it. This seems to be the initiation of a system like that of the Bank of Hamburg, which grew out of a similar difficulty, viz., the permanent depreciation of the currency making it too unstable for purposes of foreign commerce. Hence pure silver lodged with the Bank becomes the medium of settling exchanges, and is termed "banco," in distinction of currency, which bears an hourly varying "agio." The demand for exchange has been quite limited, and the rates as follows:

RATES OF EXCHANGE.

	London.	Paris.	Amsterdam.	Frankfort.	Hamburg.	Berlin.
Jan. 2,.	166 a 166¼	3.38¾ a 3.34¼	62¼ a 63	62⅝ a 63¼	55¼ a 56	110¼ a 111
" 9,.	166¼ a 167⅛	3.38¼ a 3.40	62⅝ a 63	62⅝ a 63¼	55⅝ a 56¼	110¼ a 111
" 16,.	169¼ a 170⅛	3.30 a 3.32½	64 a 64¼	64¼ a 64⅝	56¼ a 57½	112⅝ a 113⅝
" 23,.	170 a 171	3.31 a 3.33	64¼ a 64¼	64¼ a 65	56⅝ a 57	112⅝ a 113⅝
" 30,	171 a 172	3.32½ a 3.28½	64¼ a 64⅝	64¼ a 65	57¼ a 57½	113½ a 114
Feb. 6,	174 a 175	3.26¼ a 3.23⅝	65¼ a 66⅛	65¼ a 66	58 a 58½	115 a 116
" 13,	173 a 174½	3.27½ a 3.23½	65 a 65½	65¼ a 65½	58¼ a 58½	115½ a 116
20,	172½ a 174	3 27½ a 3.23⅝	65¼ a 65⅝	65¼ a 65⅝	58¼ a 58½	115½ a 116
27,	173½ a 174	2.26½ a 3.22	65½ a 65¼	65⅝ a 66	58⅝ a 58⅝	115⅝ a 116½
5,	174½ a 175⅝	3.25 a 3.21½	65⅝ a 66¼	66 a 66½	58½ a 59	116 a 117
12,	177 a 178	3.15 a 3.18⅝	66 a 66¼	67 a 67½	59 a 59½	117½ a 118
19,	176 a 177	3.22½ a 3.18⅛	65½ a 66¼	66 a 66½	58½ a 59	116 a 117
26,	179½ a 182	3.15 a 3.10	67⅝ a 68¼	68 a 68⅝	60½ a 61	120 a 121
April 2,	177½ a 181	3.18⅝ a 3.12½	66⅝ a 67	67 a 67⅝	59½ a 60½	118 a 120
" 9,	184 a 185	3.08 a 3.06½	68½ a 69	68⅝ a 69½	61½ a 62	121½ a 122
" 16,	189 a 191	2.97½ a 2.95	70 a 71	70½ a 71½	62¼ a 64½	127 a 128
" 23,	190 a 192	3.05½ a 2.95	71½ a 71⅝	71½ a 72	62⅝ a 63¼	124 a 125
" 30,	195 a 198	2.90 a 2.85	73 a 74	73½ a 74½	65 a 66	130 a 131
May 7,	192 a 195	2.96½ a 2.90	72 a 73	72½ a 73½	63½ a 64½	126 a 127
" 14,	192 a 187	2.95 a 3.02	71½ a 70⅝	71½ a 71	62½ a 63	124 a 125
" 21,	196 a 198	2.87½ a 2.83½	74 a 75½	73½ a 75	65 a 66	130 a 131
" 28,	201 a 203½	2.81½ a 2.77½	75½ a 76⅝	75½ a 76½	67 a 67½	134 a 135

	London.	Paris.	Amsterdam.	Frankfort.	Hamburg.	Berlin.
June 4,	218 a 210	2.72½ a 2.68¾	78 a 79	77⅛ a 74½	68½ a 69	135 a 136
" 11,	215 a 218	2.65 a 2.60	79 a 79½	78 a 79	71½ a 72	143 a 144
" 18,	216 a 219	2.64 a 2.88	79½ a 80½	80 a 80½	72 a 73	145 a 145
" 25,	235 a 238	2.37½ a 2.41½	86 a 87	.. a ..	76 a 77	154 a 155
July 2,	270 a 295	2.15 a 1.92½	93 a 94	.. a ..	85 a 95	185 a 195
" 9,	292 a 298	1.95 a 1.87½	.. a ..	200 a215	96 a 98	184 a 188
" 16,	288 a 290	Nominal.				
" 23,	278 a 282	2.10 a 2.01½	.. a ..	101 a108	90 a 93	182 a 184
" 30,	270 a 274½	2 15 a 2.07½	.. a ..	98 a100	88½ a 90½	178 a 180
Aug. 6,	279 a 283	2.00½ a 2.00	.. a ..	103 a105	91 a 93	184 a 185
" 13,	274 a 277	2,05 a 2.07½	.. a ..	.. a ..	91½ a 92½	183 a 185½
" 20,	278 a 279½	2.06½ a 2.02½	100 a 102½	101 a108	91⅝ a 92½	183 a 184
" 27,	275 a 276	2.08½ a 2.05	.. a ..	.. a ..	90 a 90⅝	178 a 180
Sept. 3,	260 a 275	2.15 a 2.05	.. a ..	.. a ..	85 a 90½	170 a 180
" 10,	253 a 256	2.25 a 2.20	93 a 94	.. a ..	83 a 84	166 a 167
" 17,	245 a 248½	2.31½ a 2.27½	.. a ..	.. a ..	80½ a 81½	.. a ..
" 24,	230 a 240	1.47½ a 2.35	.. a ..	83 a 90	76 a 80	.. a ..
Oct. 1,	208 a 210	2.75 a 2.68⅝	.. a ..	.. a ..	67½ a 68½	.. a ..
" 8,	210 a 218	2.70 a 2.60	.. a ..	.. a ..	70 a 72	.. a ..
" 15,	218 a 230	2.55 a 2.45	69 a 71	.. a ..	72 a 75	138 a 142
" 22,	108⅝ a 109½	5.16½ a 5.20	40⅝ a 41	.. a ..	35½ a 36	71 a 72
" 29,	108⅝ a 109	5.18⅝ a 5.22	.. a ..	.. a ..	35⅝ a 36½	71½ a 72
Nov. 5,	109½ a 109⅝	5.17½ a 5.25	40 a 41	40½ a 41	35⅝ a 36⅝	70⅝ a 72
" 12,	109½ a 109⅝	5.16½ a 5.25	40 a 41	40½ a 41½	35½ a 36½	70 a 72½
" 19,	109½ a 109⅝	5.25 a 5.16	40½ a 41½	41 a 41½	35½ a 36	72 a 72½
" 26,	109½ a 109⅝	5.15 a 5.17½	... a ...	... a ...	35½ a 36½	71⅛ a 72½
Dec. 3,	109½ a 109⅝	5.15 a 5.17½	... a ...	40½ a 41½	36⅛ a 36½	72 a 72½
" 12,	109⅝ a 109⅝	5.15 a 5.17½	... a ...	... a ...	36½ a 36⅝	72 a 72½
" 19,	109½ a 109⅝	5.16½ a 5.17½	... a ...	... a ...	36½ a 36⅝	72 a 72½
" 26,	109½ a 109⅝	5.16½ a 5.15	... a ...	... a ...	36⅝ a 36⅝	.. a ..

The payment of the Federal interest, January 1, to the amount of about $9,000,000, involves some remittances to foreign holders.

JOURNAL OF BANKING, CURRENCY, AND FINANCE.

STATE BANKS COMING UNDER NATIONAL LAW—INCREASE OF NATIONAL BANKS, AND THE NUMBER ORGANIZED IN EACH STATE—INTEREST ON DEPOSITS—NEW YORK BANK RETURNS—RETURNS OF THE BANKS OF PHILADELPHIA, BOSTON, MASSACHUSETTS, RHODE ISLAND, OHIO, AND WISCONSIN —CONDITION OF BANK OF ENGLAND, AND RETURNS—BANK OF FRANCE RETURNS.

In our last number we remarked upon the fact that the Banks of Boston and Philadelphia, with those of New York, were disposed, and some of them were taking steps to come under the national law. This movement has since become more general for reasons then stated, and the chances now are that all the State Banks will merge themselves under the new law. The advantages to stockholders in selling the gold on hand, dividing the surplus, and begining anew under a system which never contemplates a return to specie payments, are apparently very great. The progress of the Banks has been as follows:

	No. banks.	Capital.	Circulation.
Oct. 22	556	$98,111,420	$56,858,036
" 29	560	104,746,070	58,734,180
Nov. 5	564	105,381,070	60,450,100
" 12	568	106,540,750	62,350,320
" 19	578	108,440,870	64,529,470
" 26	587	110,950,870	68,535,070

Dec. 3	601	115,710,870	70,507,840
" 19	620	121,256,020	70,250,840
" 17	631	128,151,020	72,883,740

This rapid increase involves the adhesion of the old Banks to the new system, into which the Comptroller of the currency confidently expects the absorption of all of them. It was rumored, therefore, that the further formation of new Banks had been discouraged by the Comptroller, and consequently he published the following denial of the rumor:

"The Comptroller has given no such notice. In view of the fact that State Banks are being rapidly organised under the National Currency Act, and that in the Eastern States there is no deficiency, but rather an excess of banking capital, he has considered it to be his duty to discourage, in many instances, new organizations, and in more instances, the increase of the capital of those already in existence. It is the aim of the Comptroller to introduce the National Bank note circulation without adding to the present inflation; but it is not in his power to prevent new organizations, nor is it his desire to do so, in places where the legitimate business of the country seems to require additional banking facilities."

The Secretary of the Treasury in relation to the circulation of the old Banks stated that the amount out in July, 1864, was $144,000,000. To extend the new system to $300,000,000 would involve an increase of $156,000,000 in the currency, even if the old note circulation should be entirely withdrawn. The old Banks, especially those in cities, hold stocks enough to lodge with the Comptroller for circulation without purchasing any more, and it is evidently for their interest to utilize the stock by obtaining circulation for it. The number of Banks in each State, November 25th, was given officially as follows:

NATIONAL BANKS.

State.	No.	Capital stock paid in.	Circulation.	Bonds.
Maine	18	$2,749,800 00	$1,887,880	$2,244,500
New Hampshire	9	1,120,000 00	552,700	944,000
Vermont	10	1,490,000 00	1,311,800	1,636,000
Rhode Island	2	700,000 00	414,000	560,000
Massachusetts	67	25,909,040 00	12,536,850	16,888,650
Connecticut	20	5,176,638 00	4,084,050	4,525,500
New York	100	20,599,175 03	12,584,950	14,064,600
Pennsylvania	109	21,120,148 88	10,193,830	14,964,100
New Jersey	16	2,141,249 00	1,756,170	2,011,000
Delaware	1	300,000 00	200,000	250,000
Maryland	3	1,560,000 00	1,245,000	1,400,000
District of Columbia	2	600,000 00	477,000	534,000
Virginia	1	95,025 00	95,000	112,000
West Virginia	2	206,950 00	140,000	230,000
Ohio	84	10,035,165 86	7,505,880	8,749,850
Kentucky	1	200,000 00	162,000	184,000
Indiana	34	4,201,671 26	3,148,400	3,924,100
Illinois	38	4,147,837 25	3,396,560	3,794,600
Michigan	15	1,165,090 00	797,800	943,500
Wisconsin	15	1,040,277 00	774,500	903,050
Minnesota	4	590,000 00	442,000	603,000
Iowa	20	1,215,000 00	945,900	1,092,000
Nebraska Territory	1	40,000 00	27,000	30,000
Kansas	1	100,000 00	49,000	55,000
Missouri	7	1,621,530 00	722,000	865,000
Tennessee	3	340,000 00	234,380	263,000
Louisiana	1	500,000 00	180,000	200,000
Total	584	$108,964,597 28	$65,864,650	$81,961,450

The business of the new Banks continues to be mostly Government transactions. Those institutions are deemed fiscal aids to the Treasury. The city institutions employ large amounts of Bank balances, Government deposits, and individual deposits, but at times like the present, when there is not much business paper created, the employment for money is not so active in the usual channels. At the same time there is a considerable amount of individual money unemployed, which might be directed to the service of holders of United States bonds. In this view the first National Bank of New York makes offers as follows:

"*Resolved*, That this Bank confine its discounts to collateral loans on United States securities, payable on *call or at short* dates, except in its dealings with corresponding Banks, where advances on bills receivable may be proper.

"*Resolved*, That this Bank issue to depositors, when so desired, deposit receipts instead of the ordinary Bank pass-book, such deposit receipts to be payable on demand, and to bear interest at the rate of three per cent per annum on all amounts from $100 to $1,000, and at the rate of four per cent on all amounts of $1,000 and upwards; but no interest shall be allowed on deposit receipts paid within fifteen days from the date of issue."

The operation of this is to draw into the Bank the funds of individuals, who thus get their money employed at a fair rate of interest, and always on demand. This issue of deposit receipts bearing interest, and payable on demand, is, we think, a novel feature in Banks. It is of the nature of the Government deposit certificates, without the formality of ten days notice. The funds so attracted to the Banks are employed in advances on United States stocks. The idea seems to be to strengthen holders of those securities who may be in want of a temporary loan.

The old Banks, as will be observed in the weekly returns, show a continual decline of circulation, and in Boston and Philadelphia of specie, which it seems is being gradually sold. The New York Bank returns are as follows:

NEW YORK BANKS.

NEW YORK BANKS. (*Capital, Jan.*, 1864, $————; *Jan.*, 1863, $69,494,577.)

Date.		Loans.	Specie.	Circulation.	Net Deposits.	Clearings.
January	2,..	$174,714,465	$25,161,935	$6,103,331	$140,250,856	$300,753,147
"	9,..	173,009,701	25,122,002	6,032,546	134,861,977	387,546,217
"	16,..	165,991,170	23,884,264	6,008,182	130,311,046	416,962,806
"	23,..	162,925,880	24,077,513	5,049,807	130,136,203	460,811,543
"	30,..	162,296,896	24,203,632	5,913,558	130,665,415	427,806,608
February	6,..	163,076,846	24,070,791	5,974,762	133,849,042	425,430,985
"	13,..	165,090,329	23,521,453	5,916,707	140,464,616	467,751,745
"	20,..	168,302,935	22,523,918	5,908,394	148,014,106	514,887,411
"	27,..	174,928,205	22,301,687	5,907,851	154,875,059	575,442,304
March	5,..	182,317,378	21,188,034	5,937,167	158,999,668	518,951,433
"	12,..	189,757,746	20,750,405	5,918,807	168,044,977	688,822,273
"	19,..	198,229,513	21,059,542	5,889,197	169,637,975	618,338,858
"	26,..	199,372,437	20,425,504	5,514,139	168,315,904	576,253,989
April	2,..	203,993,131	19,526,665	5,708,908	171,151,297	676,372,745
"	9,..	204,383,192	20,924,287	5,804,511	170,513,020	658,352,112
"	16,..	198,703,699	21,687,670	5,779,650	168,350,790	646,593,643
"	23,..	196,286,722	24,868,003	5,679,947	161,978,166	672,442,840
"	30,..	194,157,495	24,087,348	5,626,978	164,578,919	446,587,420
May	7,..	192881,246	23,082,028	5,594,832	168,562,197	410,052,013
"	14,..	194,178,921	22,635,155	5,482,357	174,426,682	413,552,127
"	21,..	197,356,939	22,091,691	5,367,355	173,111,884	486,884,114
"	28,..	195,813,462	21,973,180	5,240,812	171,766,696	410,972,198

Date.		Loans.	Specie.	Circulation.	Net Deposits.	Clearings.
June	4,..	196,740,609	22,461,604	5,180,639	174,516,367	477,648,207
"	11,..	194,935,822	24,041,704	5,049,457	172,537,248	445,519,165
"	18,..	195,773,583	22,916,291	4,959,096	169,445,767	431,158,427
"	25,..	197,077,002	22,000,988	4,807,195	158,772,982	442,840,362
July	2,..	198,089,016	21,206,685	4,752,917	154,989,844	452,583,531
"	9,..	199,699,742	20,084,917	4,696,107	153,525,977	336,521,426
"	16,..	199,043,887	21,284,354	4,724,538	151,816,947	466,125,408
"	23,..	190,885,761	21,033,912	4,688,892	147,981,325	403,144,195
"	30,..	185,888,480	21,051,896	4,553,426	152,929,633	399,439,739
August	6,..	185,563,507	21,159,518	4,522,728	153,279,263	415,360,181
"	13,..	185,074,244	21,080,309	4,417,804	155,826,514	422,879,926
"	20,..	185,998,407	20,794,268	4,346,658	156,536,217	382,685,847
"	27,..	188,502,729	19,952,949	4,256,847	156,086,807	406,296,866
September	3,..	189,414,631	20,136,547	4,200,950	151,068,566	436,881,918
"	10,..	187,285,127	20,603,881	4,181,616	147,967,942	435,795,830
"	17,..	186,317,519	20,185,315	4,169,513	146,378,542	498,191,745
"	24,..	185,551,211	20.065,180	4,147,107	144,654,935	461,221,702
October	1,..	185,896,887	19,671,131	4,157,828	145,816,097	543,084,474
"	8,..	185,875,206	20,066,557	4,131,111	146,333,022	506,281,897
"	15,..	185,357,270	20,522,032	4,051,767	150,238,084	494,830,484
"	22,..	185,738,764	21,010,360	3,991,779	150,816,884	511,388,091
"	29,..	186,521,351	21,078,307	3,920,290	151,883,092	437,717,893
Nov.	5,..	187,378,510	21,740,327	3,850,463	153,920,403	641,833,442
"	12,..	188,914,029	22,491,122	3,735,635	153,383,095	573,145,880
"	19,..	190,460,852	21,438,959	3,700,626	158,154,196	578,069,364
"	26,..	192,679,080	20,248,716	3,615,648	161,422,248	452,028,948
Dec.	3,..	196,363,507	20,273,919	3,570,321	165,432,990	549,927,689
"	10,..	202,470,849	20,713,208	3,516,372	161,916,344	557,185,959
"	17,..	204,479,016	20,863,768	3,457,034	159,565,335	517,534,142

The increase in loans is due to the Government loans taken by the institutions during the month. This case is the same with regard to the Banks of Boston and Philadelphia.

The following are the returns of these Banks:

PHILADELPHIA BANKS.

PHILADELPHIA BANKS. (*Capital, Jan.*, 1863, $11,740,080; 1862, $11,970,130.)

Date.	Loans.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Due to banks.	Due from banks.
Jan. 4,...	$35,698,808	$4,158,585	$2,055,811	$29,878,920	$4,316,763	$2,963,563
" 11,...	35,458,967	4,158,235	2,050,891	30,484,227	4,001,473	2,814,188
" 18,...	34,896,842	4,158,125	2,044,427	31,194,851	4,330,120	3,063,148
" 25,...	34,849,959	4,103,065	2,047,846	32,354,258	3,500,693	2,905,921
Feb. 1,...	34,345,126	4,108,109	2,056,532	32,027,147	3,453,431	3,271,306
Feb. 8,...	34,146,677	4,102,671	2,066,069	31,033,030	4,080,059	2,461,273
" 15,...	34,590,880	4,102,748	2,069,061	29,911,704	4,322,609	2,080,750
" 22,...	35,059,676	4,102,588	2,119,488	30,783,741	4,463,751	2,099,778
" 29,...	35,519,704	4,102,848	2,167,348	31,435,753	4,837,264	2,114,227
Mar. 7,...	35,918,334	4,102,632	2,208,492	31,712,547	5,323,316	2,116,042
Mar. 14,...	35,956,678	4,099,707	2,308,250	32,511,405	5,508,146	2,333,819
" 21,...	36,412,923	4,099,664	2,340,132	32,835,038	6,933,974	2,428,227
" 29,...	36,695,415	4,096,401	2,357,768	33,156,496	5,791,191	2,724,935
April 4,...	37,262,220	4,095,495	2,390,092	34,404,607	5,641,638	3,425,805
" 11,...	37,032,110	4,093,461	2,379,827	35,958,444	5,855,277	3,799,151
" 18,...	39,535,334	4,095,387	2,329,590	38,174,046	5,748,257	3,291,176
" 25,...	39,570,567	4,095,475	2,253,386	37,393,247	6,067,966	2,592,465
May 2,...	39,770,436	3,972,349	2,241,885	37,758,836	6,374,531	2,730,540
" 9,...	39,639,436	3,967,263	2,152,827	37,466,311	6,636,576	2,786,080
" 16,...	39,262,695	3,964,522	2,131,919	37,638,814	6,580,548	2,858,894
" 23,...	39,639,436	3,967,263	2,152,827	37,466,311	6,636,576	2,786,080
" 30,...	39,262,695	3,964,522	2,131,919	37,638,814	6,580,548	2,858,894

June 7,...	39,723,493	3,694,820	2,100,927	38,249,800	5,993,116	3,186,259
" 14,...	40,286,433	3,964,758	2,077,753	38,367,171	5,980,707	3,007,283
" 21,...	40,286,488	3,964,529	2,074,273	37,588,203	6,408,664	2,998,548
" 27,...	42,057,758	3,963,640	2,092,470	39,122,865	6,544,668	3,139,132
July 4,...	40,918,009	3,955,836	2,154,258	37,945,305	6,225,952	4,325,450
" 11,...	40,717,527	3,949,105	2,337,651	37,312,423	6,197,570	4,658,667
" 18,...	40,731,324	3,948,440	2,208,068	36,462,271	6,189,843	3,616,992
" 26,...	42,057,758	3,963,640	2,092,470	39,122,865	6,544,668	3,139,132
Aug. 2,...	39,277,980	3,962,385	2,249,226	36,520,768	6,059,048	3,816,165
" 9,...	39,142,449	3,962,367	2,231,394	37,234,436	5,992,712	3,785,896
" 16,...	39,353,841	3,962,313	2,214,929	36,826,674	5,801,231	3,691,201
" 24,...	39,401,423	3,962,154	2,222,401	35,869,084	5,738,141	3,891,137
" 31,...	39,778,594	3,972,413	2,361,745	35,603,148	6,070,333	3,704,273
Sept. 7,...	40,334,268	3,962,395	2,454,060	34,981,281	6,119,371	3,419,624
" 14,...	40,885,872	3,962,853	2,524,005	35,039,636	6,071,768	3,047,313
" 21,...	42,404,383	3,961,342	2,574,571	35,913,425	6,031,204	3,081,281
" 27,...	41,539,955	3,960,464	2,610,809	34,838,109	6,121,101	3,057,881
Oct. 3,...	41,152,335	3,910,436	2,626,884	34,649,193	6,351,204	3,158,271
" 10,...	40,541,371	3,940,409	2,603,851	34,968,886	6,336,490	3,268,360
" 17,...	40,867,864	3,940,341	2,581,607	35,559,796	6,745,828	3,126,082
" 20,...	41,105,615	3,663,670	2,554,604	37,102,885	6,582,950	3,302,433
" 27,...	41,598,194	3,496,143	2,519,385	37,425,689	6,469,666	3,554,675
Nov. 7,...	41,763,747	3,058,994	2,455,776	36,943,993	6,000,000	3,000,000
" 14,...	42,844,878	2,748,641	2,406,652	37,705,036	6,000,000	3,000,000
" 21,...	43,792,297	2,674,037	2,355,768	39,227,713	.....	.....
" 28,...	44,170,412	2,539,218	2,315,263	38,974,932	.....	.....
Dec. 5,...	44,810,135	2,478,419	2,321,109	38,462,084	.....	.....
" 12,...	45,336,381	1,983,502	2,356,673	39,622,645	.....	.....

BOSTON BANKS.

BOSTON BANKS. (*Capital, Jan.*, 1863, $38,231,700; *Jan.*, 1862, $38,231,700.)

Date.	Loans.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Due to banks.	Due from banks.
Jan. 4,..	$76,805,343	$7,503,889	$9,625,043	$32,525,679	$12,831,000	$12,351,500
" 11,..	77,747,734	7,531,195	10,185,615	31,524,185	12,703,600	11,019,000
" 18,..	75,877,427	7,464,511	9,963,389	31,151,240	12,041,000	11,769,000
" 25,..	74,146,000	7,440,000	9,729,000	30,893,000	11,106,700	12,227,000
Feb 1,..	73,959,175	7,385,413	9,660,163	30,655,782	10,825,000	11,854,500
" 8,..	71,765,122	7,265,104	9,579,020	30,030,292	11,315,000	12,272,000
" 15,..	71,088,849	7,224,924	9,741,471	30,412,647	11,615,000	13,448,000
" 22,..	71,074,000	7,215,500	9,411,000	31,831,000	11,329,600	14,925,404
" 29,..	72,189,003	7,179,310	9,371,440	33,155,888	12,224,603	16,189,720
Mar. 7,..	72,687,363	7,108,519	9,606,318	33,688,017	12,313,829	16,535,992
" 14,..	72,105,111	7,052,181	9,490,311	33,891,204	12,704,181	17,315,231
" 21,..	73,207,121	7,033,721	9,548,211	35,090,181	13,092,531	17,266,741
" 28,..	73,485,514	7,016,086	9,210,096	34,859,508	13,352,706	17,071,731
April 4,..	71,838,506	6,856,708	9,442,082	32,861,609	13,601,005	15,786,092
" 11,..	72,620,348	6,932,192	10,447,916	33,324,978	15,094,360	17,362,371
" 18,..	72,328,896	6,869,726	10,331,806	33,510,054	14,447,997	17,054,244
" 25,..	72,538,611	6,952,498	10,938,991	31,810,971	14,715,981	15,790,498
May 2,..	71,270,181	6,642,798	10,127,097	31,461,499	14,206,581	14,206,592
" 9,..	69,471,481	6,716,484	10,521,591	31,172,584	12,801,000	16,239,000
" 16,..	68,888,581	6,644,493	10,126,473	31,633,071	12,500,671	16,201,083
" 23,..	66,683,510	6,578,181	9,899,193	36,605,131	11,871,719	15,733,691
" 30,..	69,201,301	6,541,201	9,681,204	34,391,208	11,101,307	15,925,201
June 7,..	67,093,500	6,509,181	9,160,621	32,771,821	10,875,181	16,130,720
" 14,..	67,942,400	6,524,207	8,771,181	33,305,220	10,710,089	15,057,131
" 21,..	68,880,121	6,507,021	8,988,121	32,740,201	11,681,602	14,790,012
" 28,..	69,691,000	6,470,600	9,068,712	30,865,101	12,260,080	12,872,111
July 5,..	66,950,111	6,290,521	9,574,009	29,940,102	11,880,312	13,809,002
" 12,..	66,452,107	6,801,101	9,936,491	32,260,004	11,806,002	13,434,528
" 19,..	66,079,000	6,246,211	9,890,081	30,584,101	10,003,181	13,942,001

Date.	Loans.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Due to banks.	Due from banks.
" 26,..	59,973,511	5,733,010	9,775,481	27,905,491	9,151,111	13,473,621
Aug 2,..	59,760,398	5,729,431	9,327,101	27,866,201	8,947,021	13,039,587
" 9,..	60.655,181	5,734,101	9,685,671	27,806,030	9,842,621	13,261,654
" 16,..	61,175,211	5,665,981	9,538,841	27,778,821	9,855,921	12,798,821
" 23,..	61,817,002	5,660,911	9,567,921	27,221,781	10,052,871	12,007,481
" 30,..	61.960,481	5,681,871	9,636,000	26,495,100	10,110,000	11,618,981
Sept. 6,..	62,211,931	5,744,898	10,100,400	25,884,487	10,585,000	11,526,011
" 13,..	61,818,600	5,789,033	10,274,852	25,015,230	10,152,979	11,142,930
" 20,..	61,863,582	5,820,671	10,420,810	24,722,891	10,520,000	11,237,080
" 27,..	58,352,671	5,687,921	10,280,431	23,582,981	10,958,781	10,197,691
Oct. 4,..	58,391,621	5,539,000	10,316,991	24,384,581	9,664,481	11,476,581
" 11,..	57,719.911	5,391,101	10,304,857	23,918,381	7,784,451	10,017,792
" 18,..	55,734,921	6,361,581	8,998,181	24,018,572	7,827,911	9,879,721
" 25,..	56,030,000	5,307,481	9,619,682	24,500,689	9,934,311	7,901,421
" 31,..	53,485,492	5,225,591	9,197,471	24,009,531	7,647,421	8,669,439
Nov. 8,..	50,865,491	4,967,781	9,000,000	21,384,001	6,893,910	8,167,892
" 15,..	50,488,921	4,787,182	9,046,931	22,023,478	6,785,521	8,781,799
" 22,..	44,236,000	4,429,700	9,058,381	20,219,421	5,375,581	8,889,421
" 28,..	44,236,311	4,429,821	9,058,101	20,219,491	5,375,582	8,889,421
Dec. 5,..	43,614,928	4,094,672	8,480,921	21,129,421	5,289,121	10,109,591
" 12,..	44,190,581	3,853,121	8,190,231	22,572,481	5,395,821	11,640,481

The returns of the Banks of Massachusetts for the four weeks to October 1st, compared with two previous returns, were as follows:

	Loans.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Balances.
July 1....	56,628,876	1,348,876	21,694,866	13,141,787	5,427,595
Aug. 1....	56,487,727	1,298,756	21,743,761	12,585,810	5,184,681
Oct. 1....	53,472,326	1,309,665	22.221,063	12,157,216	6,389,285
Dec. 5....	51,839,762	1,114,728	21,488,266	12,164,096	5,480,362

The following statement of the condition of the Banks of Rhode Island is taken from the returns made to the State Auditor on the 5th inst.:

Capital	$21,810,319
Circulation	6,760,540
Specie	456,571
Loans	32,839,770
Deposits	7,008,784

The following is a comparison of the leading items of the Banks of Ohio, as appeared by their returns made on the 1st of November, in the years indicated:

	1864. Nov. 1.	1863. Nov. 1.	1862. Nov. 1.	1861. Nov. 1.
Stock	$4,408,820	$5,052,940	$5,539,950	$5,690,450
Specie	1,180,802	1,828,591	3,370,131	3,047,251
Loans	9,426,994	11,366,451	11,295,987	10,750,862
Circulation	5,116,471	6,652,311	10,033,326	9,522,493
Deposits	11,115,818	11,405,439	9,814,009	5,664,392

The December statement of the Banks of Wisconsin compare with the returns of the previous month as follows:

	Nov. 1.	Dec. 1.
Circulation of Banks	$2,552,780	$2,607,894
Circulation of Banks winding up	89,356	83,478
Total circulation	$2,642,136	$2,691,372
United States and State securities	2,511,880	2,541,480
Treasury notes on hand	178,661	102,905
Specie	11,811	10,762

In the first week of November, the favorable state of the exchanges which had been developing itself since the rise in rate of interest to 9 per cent, Sept. 8, was so far advanced that the Bank of England felt justified in reducing its rate to 8 per cent, notwithstanding that some considerable failures in France, and symptoms of weakness elsewhere, suggested caution. The export demand for bullion had, however, closed, and speculation had subsided in face of the accumulating stocks of goods and produce in bond, caused by the dearness of money and the idea that the dearness would result in lower prices. The higher rate had caused a large number of liabilities to be settled, and had attracted money from abroad. The impulse once given in that direction, the accumulation of means was continuous.

On the 23d of November the bullion had increased $5,000,000, and the Bank made a farther reduction of the rate of interest to 7 per cent.

The returning ease of money was, however, already producing a reaction in the current. Several new loans were announced—an Egyptian loan and a Danubian loan—the latter for $5,000,000 at 86 for 7 per cent interest; also, a Danish loan of $4,000,000 5 per cent at 94¼. These, with the movements of trade, caused a renewed export of bullion.

The Bank returns were as follows:

THE BANK OF ENGLAND RETURNS.

Date.	Circulation.	Public Deposits.	Private Deposits.	Securities.	Coin and Bullion.	Rate of Discount.
Dec. 2,...	21,685,732	7,234,894	12,924,545	31,980,889	13,048,475	8 per ct.
" 9,...	20,801,207	8,629,856	12,981,276	32,622,659	13,008,617	8 "
" 16,...	20,382,764	9,103,738	13,265,068	32,803,049	13,675,474	7 "
" 23,...	20,273,799	10,266,546	12,711,637	32,270,286	14,217,067	7 "
" 30,...	20,686,538	10,841,991	13,021,212	33,438,154	14,362,605	7 "
Jan. 6, '64	21,322,304	10,001,982	13,052,604	33,486,952	14,196,754	7 "
" 13,...	21,396,420	5,264,097	15,411,794	31,726,575	11,708,597	7 "
" 20,...	21,445,793	5,689,074	13,879,877	31,445,860	12,974,109	8 "
" 27,...	20,875,825	6,337,246	13,406,627	31,017,449	13,022,220	8 "
Feb. 3,...	21,162,626	6,748,867	13,372,981	31,436,334	13,303,243	8 "
" 10,...	20,708,113	7,254,682	12,882,226	36,923,317	13,472,271	7 "
" 17,...	20,696,172	7,079,789	13,306,156	31,078,328	13,583,635	7 "
" 24,...	20,207,871	8,153,601	12,426,673	30,504,827	13,819,412	6 "
March 2,...	20,840,374	7,893,633	13,541,278	31,980,446	14,084,222	6 "
" 9,...	20,563,325	8,863,364	12,434,975	31,769,311	13,884,389	6 "
" 16,...	20,333,112	8,570,711	13,105,800	31,929,164	13,946,943	6 "
" 23,...	20,366,705	9,841,323	12,480,154	32,112,543	14,499,201	6 "
" 30,...	20,908,644	10,280,458	12,658,986	33,472,484	14,163,519	6 "
April 6,...	21,528,914	9,818,880	13,348,299	34,223,509	13,616,762	6 "
" 12,...	21,785,597	5,929,922	13,586,029	31,385,305	13,080,300	6 "
" 20,...	21,672,788	5,787,329	13,684,069	31,596,179	12,743,302	7 "
" 27,...	21,484,602	6,217,965	12,620,036	30,961,635	12,567,776	7 "
May 4,...	22,045,792	6,981,132	12,278,903	32,070,427	12,454,244	9 "
" 11,...	21,478,987	7,299,434	12,901,160	32,239,210	12,705,251	9 "
" 18,...	21,313,352	7,568,661	12,962,402	31,855,696	13,267,416	8 "
" 25,...	20,868,047	7,971,003	12,882,042	31,297,181	13,713,943	7 "
June 1....	21,246,840	8,286,719	12,493,776	31,329,121	14,052,761	7 "
" 8,...	20,766,405	8,748,510	11,966,204	30,711,740	14,043,129	7 "
" 15,...	20,597,557	8,512,311	12,790,361	30,884,192	14,304,205	6 "
" 22,...	20,623,207	9,287,594	13,051,661	31,948,856	14,319,061	6 "
" 29,...	21,153,606	10,213,535	12,890,244	33,297,897	14,197,849	6 "
July 6,...	21,890,063	9,489,130	13,471,415	34,286,592	13,930,809	6 "
" 13,...	22,161,001	4,683,802	15,082,746	31,637,509	13,701,112	6 "

" 20,...	22,302,688	4,462,490	13,408,675	30,471,085	13,171,561	6	"
" 27,...	22,158,547	4,961,046	13,719,621	31,346,657	12,996,685	8	"
Aug. 3,...	22,489,710	5,155,704	13,519,626	31,909,793	12,877,483	8	"
" 10,...	21,881,314	4,963,222	14,419,766	32,202,646	12,609,925	8	"
" 17,...	21,554,139	5.145,800	13,950,446	31,594,936	12,725,759	8	"
" 24,...	21,047,048	5,288,725	13,714,161	30,861,710	12,831,751	8	"
" 31,...	21,289,824	5,815,742	13,073,751	31,058,341	12,980,033	8	"
Sept. 7,...	21,367,124	6,022,373	12,904,085	31,202,405	12,970,447	9	"
" 14,...	20,960,414	6,702,054	12,723,620	31,381,674	12,905,511	9	"
" 21,...	20,842,714	6,815,611	12,390,681	30,795,458	13,171,107	9	"
" 28,...	20,751,741	7,083,958	12,588,902	31,298,584	13,121,123	9	"
Oct. 5,...	21,915,817	6,877,591	11,731,746	31,530,895	12,998,210	9	"
" 12,...	21,774,334	7,023,234	13,206,313	32,192,227	13,606,293	9	"
" 19,...	21,828,920	3,273,589	14,098,454	29,447,960	13,002,488	9	"
" 27, ..	21,525,745	3,723,549	13,897,777	29,274,958	13,146,009	9	"
Nov. 2,...	21,596,300	3,777,941	13,848,428	29,181,019	13,313,441	9	"
" 9,...	20,919,333	4,560,836	14,438,450	29,575,836	13,647,270	8	"
" 16,...	20,750,500	5,142,368	14,426,234	29,776,783	13,852,355	8	"
" 23,...	20,120,567	5,518,860	14,358,521	29,184,949	14,131,094	7	"
" 30,...	20,331,055	6,301,202	13,272,161	29,200.705	13,989,924	7	"

The returns of the Bank of France show a more prompt action of a high rate of money upon the influx of coin, which rose from 250,423,737f., October 20, when the rate was put up to 8 per cent, to 308,621,518f., or by 58,000,000f. to November 23, when the rate was put down to 6 per cent; and, in the last week of November, to 5 per cent. The returns were as follows:

BANK OF FRANCE.

	Loans.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Interest.
January —	fr.751,649,983	fr.169,027,010	fr.813,490,825	fr.159,797,667	7
February —	705,516,796	182,573,888	775,096,775	160,110,225	7
March —	642,135,993	195,994,738	746,610,375	142,925,719	6
April —	643,570,276	219,320,720	759,926,425	133,701,530	6
May —	683,332,517	242,824,609	767,443,475	178,434,305	6
June —	577,309,524	294,892,295	725,381,925	156,685,209	6
" 23,	594,563,973	280,511,406	720,243,375	144,559,768	6
" 30,	676,605,538	277,544,816	766,609,875	165,668,712	6
July 7,	662,197,524	276,522,727	772,309,475	170,022,200	6
" 14,	667,187,446	266,890,961	792,819,275	152,242,482	6
" 21,	639,299,542	269,810,253	788,378,725	135,282.170	6
" 28,	642,692,154	276,162,420	791,673,525	144,636,985	6
August 4,	634,904,899	276,790,393	786,629,625	157,810,891	6
" 11,	633,495,575	272,433,487	777,023,925	148,866,812	6
" 18,	627,110,297	276,200,183	769,096,425	139,746,017	6
" 25,	615,885,942	280,595,089	767,100,725	130,431,547	6
September 1,	618,948,683	279,353,778	767,763,725	141,075,120	6
" 8,	618,030,503	281,021,082	752,214,625	137,349,361	7
" 15,	633,405,806	273,371,823	761,638,225	130,975,227	7
" 22,	585,624,962	276,644,874	732,775,425	110,529,671	7
" 29,	608,645,155	279,039,471	739,183,625	122,373,527	7
October 6,	606,581,148	267,533,219	751,377,975	128,769,575	7
" 13,	619,256,344	250,423,737	754,479,725	120,525,826	8
" 20,	621,458,240	254,073,596	761,296,775	123,847,672	8
" 27,	591,882,251	272,826,218	740,767,475	124,872,300	8
Nov. 5,	619,601,399	274,145,142	749,664,075	156,717,974	7
" 10,	612,218,482	276,575,577	745,249,825	153,336,313	7
" 17,	592,319,529	284,276,966	733,661,325	148,945,706	7
" 24,	571,509,684	308,621,518	732,482,125	146,273,755	6
Dec. 1,	564,370,793	327,718,612	742,316,325	158,317,239	5

This was due partly to the revival of the old system of purchases of the precious metals, and partly to the rigor which the Bank exercised towards bills which there was reason to believe would occasion a drain of coin. So great was this rigor that the discounts are 57,810,000f less than they were Oct. 20. As to the note circulation, it declined 30,000,000f. These reductions were not made without great distress, and consequent complaint. The principal disasters was the failure of ROTGEMONT DE LOWENBERG. He was at the head of a banking firm of long standing and considerable importance. His liabilities are stated at from 15,000,000f to 18,000,000f, (3 to 4 million dollars)—but it is said that there are large assets, though they cannot be immediately realised. It appears that he became embarrased principally on account of his connection with the Libourne to Bergerac Railway, of which he was one of the chief promoters. One or two banks with which he was much connected were, in consequence of his failure, under the necessity of obtaining aid, and fears were entertained that they may, in spite of it, be obliged to close their doors. Unfavorable reports respecting other banks and some few commercial firms were current, and at Bordeaux and Lyons failures are apprehended. None of the Paris Banks, however, failed, but confidence in them was not strong. It said, also, that certain Russian houses suffered greatly. The actual suspensions were :—1, a commission agent at Paris in an extensive way of business ; 2, two houses at Lyons, one of them engaged largely in the silk trade ; 3, two shipping firms ar Bordeaux, one a large one ; and fourthly, the bills of "several" cotton dealers at Havre were protested. The amount of the liabilities in the various failures recorded is loosely estimated at from 20,000,000f to 25,000,000f. (£800,000 to £1,000,000).

The dearness of the money market, and the fact that the Bank of France alone has the right to raise the rate of interest at will, caused much discussion. The government, before presenting to the Corps Legislatif a bill for the abolition of the Usury Laws, thought right to consult the Chamber of Commerce. Most of them declared energetically in favor of "liberty of interest;" but the Chamber of Commerce of Rouen is of a different opinion. As organ of the very Protectionist city, it thinks the restriction by law of the rate of interest wise and just, and demands its maintenance. It, besides, complains that the Bank of France is, by special privilege, allowed to charge more than the legal rate whenever it pleases—certainly a special privilege that is open to remark. The Chamber of Commerce of Rouen, moreover, demands energetically that "the Bank of France shall be made to do what it was founded for—discount commercial bills at the most moderate interest possible," and that "the government shall take measures for providing the Bank with the necessary means of attaining that object." But the Bank already does the former, and it cannot do otherwise if it would ; whilst, as to the government, it has no power whatever in the matter.

THE RECIPROCITY TREATY.

THE PRESENT TREATY SHOULD BE CONTINUED UNTIL A NEW TREATY IS MADE.

THE subject of our commercial relations with Canada, which has been so much discussed the past year, is likely to receive increased attention at the present session of Congress. What has been already said has accomplished much, since thus the public mind has been enabled to reach certain definite conclusions.

In the first place, it seems now to be the universal sentiment of thoughtful men that our interests lie in future freedom of commercial intercourse, not in additional restrictions. The action of every Board of Trade we have seen, has been to this effect. Trade must be free, or as nearly so as possible. Again, all agree that our existing Treaty must be continued until a new one is made. There may be, and undoubtedly are imperfections in it; but at the same time great benefits are accruing, especially to the West, from its operation.

The following letter shows what has recently been the action of the Board of Trade of Detroit, and of some other similar bodies:

DETROIT, Dec. 9th, 1864.

W. B. DANA:

DEAR SIR,—Be kind enough to chronicle in your valuable journal the fact that our Board of Trade has, after mature consideration and full discussion, declared unanimously in favor of allowing the present Reciprocity Treaty to stand until another Treaty shall have been negotiated by Commissioners to be appointed by the high contracting parties. This action, on the part of our Board, is significant of the friendship that every philanthrophist and enlightened lover of his country so ardently desires to see obtain between us and foreign powers, and especially between us and our British neighbors; there being so much that should knit us together in the closest ties of brotherhood. Besides, this action makes the decision of the agricultural and commercial interests of the North West almost unanimous in favor of the continuance of the Treaty—a decision that will continue to be favorably regarded by the government of the United States. By thus promoting the interests of this growing section of our common country, the interests of the whole, to which the West is so largely tributary, will be best served. In addition to the action of our Board of Trade above refered to, I give below the action of several other similiar bodies:

MICHIGAN.

Detroit Board of Trade, December 7, says:—"The only action necessary, on the part of our government, is to allow the present treaty to stand until commissioners appointed by it, and the British Colonies of North America, agree on whatever alterations may be deemed advisable and mutually just and beneficial."

ILLINOIS.

Chicago Board of Trade, February 10, 1862, states that the "treaty has been of great value to the producing interest of the whole North West." Says that "we should not check the energy nor circumscribe the industry of our country, but take a broad national view of the question, and firmly advocate the principle of the greatest good to the greatest number. Cannot recommend any measure that will in the least cripple the energies of our people, but cheerfully advocate the revision of the treaty, if any of its parts are unjust or oppressive. What we

desire is to make our trade still more reciprocal, still more free with our Canadian neighbors."

WISCONSIN.

Chamber of Commerce at Milwaukee, January 13, 1864; desires "such action as shall result in securing a new treaty, founded upon the true principles of reciprocity between the two governments and the people of both countries, and which shall obviate the objections and inequalities existing in the present treaty, and be upon a more liberal and enlarged basis."

MINNESOTA.

Memorial of the Chamber of Commerce at St. Paul, referred to the Committee on Commerce, February 5, 1862, invokes the "sober second thought" of the country on the subject of our continental policy; reiterates the "uniform utterance of the authorities and citizens of Minnesota in anticipating an adjustment of the relations of the United States and all the British provinces on this continent, upon a basis of mutual interest and good will; does not deny the expediency of a revision of exisiting stipulations, but always in the interest of further freedom, not additional restriction of commercial intercourse."

MASSACHUSETTS.

Boston Board of Trade, March 8, 1864, "resolved, that the continuance of the Reciprocity Treaty of 1854, between the United States and Great Britain, as the same may be revised in certain particulars by commissioners of the two high contracting powers, is of great moment to both countries, and is demanded by the principles of human brotherhood, as well as by the interests of American commerce."

From these several expressions of sentiment, touching our commercial relations with our neighbors, we look for an amended treaty that shall correct any imperfections that time has shown to exist in the present treaty, and at the same time secure and extend the real benefits that have already accrued to both countries under the existing treaty.

The action of the Board of Trade of Detroit, above referred to, took place on the 7th of December. A committee had previously been appointed which presented the following report. We give this report entire because it clearly and forcibly expresses the views of a large body of men in the West. The whole report was not adopted by the Board, but its conclusion was—some of the members not wishing to commit themselves to all the points discussed in it:

DETROIT, Dec. 6, 1864.

To the Honorable the Board of Trade of the City of Detroit:

On the 7th of June last, we, the undersigned, were appointed a committee to report to your honorable body, on the second Tuesday of December, what action, if any, in the opinion of this Board is needed, on the part of our Government, with regard to the abrogation of the Reciprocity Treaty, now existing between the United States and the British North American Colonies.

Your committee would beg respectfully to report as follows:—We find that both the Government of the United States and the Government of Canada have given this grave and important question much and careful consideration, and an examination of the facts and figures presented in their various reports has enabled us to arrive at the following conclusions:

From the year ending June 30th 1821, to June 30th, 1863, the total exports to Canada and the other British American Provinces were $422,443,981; the total imports for the same time were $260,327,900—making a balance in favor of the United States of $162,116,081. With men acquainted with commercial matters, no further argument is needed to prove that the trade with Canada and

the other British possessions of North America has been of vast advantage to the people of the United States This seems so clear and conclusive that we consider it unnecessary to add anything to the force of the figures presented ; to do so would be a waste of time.

We find the principal argument in favor of an abrogation of the treaty to be the fact, that since the treaty went into effect, the Parliament of Canada has largely increased the duties on manufactured articles produced by us, causing a large decrease in the demand for such articles, and consequently acting injuriously upon our interests. We say this is no valid objection, as these duties do not touch one single article named in the treaty ; and further, no one claims that any infringement of the treaty has taken place. On the contrary, it is admitted on all hands that both parties have been scrupulously exact in the observance of its terms, in spirit and in letter.

The Government of Canada increased the duties on imports, not because it desired to inflict any injury on the people of the United States, or their commerce, but because this measure had become a matter of necessity, in order to sustain the public credit and meet the public expenses. If increasing the duties on imports, under these circumstances, be a just matter of complaint against the Government of Canada, then, every nation with whom we have treaties of commerce has a much more just cause of complaint against ourselves, as our national necessities have compelled us to raise the duties on articles coming into the United States, far beyond anything contemplated by the Legislature of Canada. We take the ground that the governments of the two countries are the sole judges of what is best to be done in the way of taxation in their respective countries, and when, as in the present case no treaty is infringed, no other nation has a right to consider itself aggrieved.

The second argument used is, that the people of Canada and the British Isles have no sympathy with us in our present struggle; that on the other hand, all their best wishes and feelings are with our enemies. This view of the case is largely dwelt upon to create a prejudice against the treaty. We consider this no kind of argument, as it has nothing to do with the subject under discussion ; and it is not in keeping with the dignity of a great and powerful nation like the United States, to allow itself to be betrayed into hasty and ill-advised acts of legislation, because a portion of the inhabitants of certain countries do not like us. This is not a question of likes or dislikes, it is a question of trade and commerce, affecting the well-being of 70,000,000 of people. If there has been any infringement of our rights on land or water we submit, that, repealing the reciprocity treaty is not the proper redress for wrongs done us. Let the Government of the country, when the proper time comes, present its case in the right quarter, in a becoming and statesmanlike manner, and insist on such redress as is just and reasonable. Let our commercial treaties, and our quarrels, each stand or fall on their own merits.

It is further argued that our lumber interests suffer by the competition of the Canadian lumber merchants. We consider this a most wholesome as well as needful competition. It is well known that the pineries of the great West are being rapidly taken up by large capitalists, and that in a few years monopolists will hold the most of these lands ; this result will leave the consumer at the mercy of these great land holders, who would then control the price of lumber and put it to such a rate as would greatly retard the building and improving of our cities, towns and villiages, and weigh heavily upon our farming interests. We therefore consider it a great and fortunate thing for the people of the great West that we have the privilege of the Canadian lumber market to keep in check the desire of our own dealers in that article, to raise it to an unreasonable price. Cheap lumber is a commodity of indispensable necessity with us.

Coal is covered by the same argument as lumber. Coal masters are combining all over the land to raise and keep up the price of fuel, and we are only sorry that Novia Scotia does not export to the cities of our Atlantic seaboard twenty times more coal than she does ; because, if she did, we would have a much larger

and cheaper supply at the West. The interest of the manufacturer, the wants of the poor, the requirements of our vast steam marine on the western lakes, as well as on the seaboard, demand cheap fuel, and no monopoly in either lumber or coal. We trust the time is gone by when those who earn a living by the sweat of their brow can be made the mere tools of those who get rich by improper acts of Congress. In helping us to fuel and lumber at a reasonable price, the treaty is a real blessing.

Touching the fisheries, although they have not been near so profitable to us as was anticipated, the settlement of a question that was rapidly drifting the two countries into an attitude hostile to each other, was a boon so great to both parties that, had the treaty affected nothing else, it would have been worth all the advantages its enemies claim we have given to Canada.

In whatever light we view the treaty, it has been of vast importance to us, as well as to the colonies. It has been what all treaties should be, a mutual benefit, conferring on both contracting parties, advantages as nearly equal as possible.

We now come to breadstuffs. It is claimed by those opposed to the treaty, that this portion of it affords great and improper advantages to the Canadians. We claim the advantages are on the side of the United States, and not of Canada. Instead of being injured by the importation of Canadian grains, we are largely benefited. We will try and prove this, and we think the proof is conclusive. In 1863 we imported at Detroit 300,000 bushels of Canadian white wheat, on which Americans received the following sums, for labor, freight, insurance, elevating charges, and commission:

Elevating and shipping charge on 300,000 bushels, 2c.	$6,000 00
Fire insurance on value here $450.00, ½c.	1,125 00
Freight to Buffalo on 300,000 bus., 6c.	18,000 00
Transfer at Buffalo, 1c.	3,000 00
Canal freight to New York, 20c.	60,000 00
Measuring at New York, 1c	3,000 00
Commission on value at New York, at $1.90 per bushel, $484,250, 2½ per cent.	14,250 00
Lake insurance on $584,250 at ¼ per cent premium	2,921 25
Total charge paid Americans	$108,296 25

With the revenue law, as it stands at present, the Government would have received directly, as its portion of the benefit, the following sums:

On canal and lake freight $78,000 at 2½ per cent.	$1,950 00
On gross sales $584,250 at ¼ of 1 per cent.	730 30
On stamps for time drafts for $400,000 at 50c. per 1,000	200 00
Assuming that all parties interested netted the moderate sum of $10,000 on this property, it added just that amount to the nett income of the various parties interested, so that with a five per cent income tax, the Government would get another sum out of the transaction of..	500 00
Amount paid the Treasury	$3,380 30

Here we have a sum of $111.676 55 paid to the Government and people on one lot of 300,000 bushels of white wheat. Every transaction of the same nature resulted more or less in the same way. It will take a great deal of argument, prejudice and sophistry, to prove that the United States were deeply wronged by the above and kindred transactions. The opponents of the treaty say that this wheat would have come in under a twenty per cent *ad valorum* duty, and that we should have had all these profits and the duty besides. To this we reply:— We would not have received one single bushel of the wheat with a twenty per cent duty, for the simple reason, that the amount of this tax would have paid the freight charges, insurance and commission from the point, or way port from which the grain started in Canada, to Montreal, where it would have sold for a

larger sum than it would have done at Detroit. As all merchants sell in the market that will yield them the largest net profits on a given article, it is easy to see that Montreal, and not Detroit, would have drawn this grain into its port, and that neither the people nor the Government of the United States would have received a single dollar out of the transaction.

It may be deemed policy, it may be considered statesmanship, it may gratify a spirit of revenge for wrongs, fancied or real, to destroy this trade that so largely benefits the citizens of the United States. Your committee think otherwise; such conduct could only be expected of Chinese, Japanese, and other semi-barbarous nations, who are in the habit of erecting barriers to hinder commerce; when they overdo the thing and get their barriers a little too much in the way. Christian England, France and the United States send fleets and batter down all obstructions, destroy forts, burn cities, sink shipping, and do many other things that only strong christian nations can do, to teach weak heathen nations proper respect for civilized ideas of free trade; and yet we can be so inconsistent as to do ourselves what we so strongly condemn in others.

Our commission merchants complain that a vast quantity of flour is now purchased in Toronto by parties who used to make their purchases in Detroit, and claim that the treaty ought to be repealed on that account. To say the least, this complaint is rather selfish and ungenerous; for the plain English of the desire is to get a law passed by Congress that will compel the New England consumer to purchase his flour in Detroit, whether it is to his interest to do so or not. A better and more natural way would be for our merchants to offer our New England friends flour at fair rates, instead of holding it from one to two dollars per barrel above all other markets, as they have generally done for the past few years, and by this cause have driven the flour trade that used to center here, to Toronto, Chicago, Milwaukee and Toledo. A spirit at utter variance with the ordinary rules of trade has lost us this business, and nothing else. Neighboring cities with more spirit and liberality, are fast stripping us of even the home trade; for the same reason, Chicago and Cleveland are fast leaving us behind in the race for the Lake Superior trade, simply because the consumer in that region can trade with more advantage with them than with us; and it would be just as reasonable to ask Congress to stop this trade as to ask a repeal of the Reciprocity Treaty, to prevent the New Englander from purchasing his flour in Toronto.

Canada, and the Northwestern States, have always a surplus of breadstuffs, and both must look abroad for a market for what they cannot consume themselves, and both look to the same market. It therefore follows, that Canada can send to Liverpool just the amount less she has sent to New England. If she sent none of her supplies to the United States, she would have to send the whole of it to the markets abroad, where our own supplies would come into competition with it; this being the case, it appears to us a matter of no moment whether the ground on which we compete is Boston or Liverpool, for every merchant knows that the foreign, and not the home market, governs the price.

The next complaint against the treaty is, that it fosters and sustains rival transportation interests through a foreign country. This is the most groundless complaint of all. There is not one single merchant in the Northwest but knows that the facilities to transport the produce of this region to the sea-board, through American territory, is utterly inadequate to the task—that, in the busy season of the year, freights are so crowded on the American lines, that the cost of transportation is largely increased, and delays so numerous, that the mercantile and farming interests suffer great damage from these two causes. We do not use more severe language than is called for, when we state that members of Congress and others, who make this complaint, show an amount of ignorance on the subject that can hardly be explained or excused. The only real ground of complaint your committee can make clear is, that the Grand Trunk Railway (one of the rival lines), has not increased its rolling stock to a point where it could carry off an average of at least 10,000 barrels of flour per day from Detroit, instead

of the present small and insignificant amount it can transport. If it could do this, it would add five cents per bushel to the value of all the wheat grown in Michigan, for the reason that its increased facilities would reduce the cost of conveying a barrel of flour from this point to the seaboard at least twenty-five cents per barrel. In other words, the saving yearly, for all time to come, would be almost equal to the original cost of the land on which the wheat was produced.

Your committee have only touched briefly on some of the more important points of the treaty. It is needless for us to add, that we are, and think your honorable body should be, opposed to a repeal of the Reciprocity Treaty. We condemn in the most earnest and unqualified terms possible, all legislation, that has for its object the placing of the producer and consumer within the grasp of the monopolists who try on this particular subject to control the action of Congress.

Finally, we would respectfully report that, in the opinion of your committee, the only action necessary on the part of our Government is, to allow the present treaty to stand, until commissioners appointed by it, and the British Colonies of North America, agree on whatever alterations may be deemed advisible and mutually just and beneficial.

In modifying the treaty, we would respectfully suggest that our Government endeavor to have the Government of Canada enlarge the locks of the Welland Canal to the same length and breadth of the St. Lawrence Canals; and that, within a given number of years, (say five years) from the ratification of the amended treaty, that the Canadian Government guarantee a depth of 12 feet 6 inches of water fit for navigation from the entrance of the Welland Canal at Port Colborne to Montreal; as also the enlargement of the locks above named; for which great and important benefit to us, the new treaty be made for twenty-five years, so as to give stability to the trade between the two countries, and take away all cause for mutual irritation, and put it beyond the hope or power of scheming monopolists on either side to disturb the harmony of the two countries by acts of unfriendly legislation,

We would also suggest that the revenue laws of Canada be so amended, that goods purchased in the original package in the United States be admitted to Canada on the same terms as if the same class of goods had entered by sea; and that our Government give the same advantage to goods in the original package from Canada.

We are also of the opinion that the law that authorizes the Governor General to discriminate in favor of certain railroad routes be repealed. As the law now stands, he can issue an order to admit goods *via* Portland, by the Grand Trunk Railroad, at the value at the port of exportation; whereas, the same goods entering from any other of our seaport cities, would be liable to the value at that point of departure. Exceptional laws of this kind must always produce irritation in the minds of those injured by them; and no one, either in Canada or the United States, can look upon such enactments in any point of view except that of being most unfriendly acts.

To remedy such evils, and strengthen the bonds of friendship between the two countries, we respectfully recommend the line of policy indicated in this report.

DUNCAN STEWART, Chairman of Committee,
W. H. CRAIG,
R. HAWLEY,
AUG. E. BISSELL,
F. LAMBIE.

THE NAVAL FORCES OF THE UNITED STATES.

THE subjoined statements, which we take from the Report of the Secretary of the Navy, presents a general exhibit of the navy, including vessels under construction on the 1st of December, 1864, with a comparative statement of the navy in December, 1863 and 1864.

A tabular statement is appended of the number of naval vessels, of every class, that have been constructed, or in the course of construction, since March 4, 1861.

GENERAL EXHIBIT OF THE NAVY, INCLUDING VESSELS UNDER CONSTRUCTION, DEC., 1864.

No. of Vessels.	Description.	No. of guns.	No. of tons.
118	Screw steamers especially constructed for naval purposes.	1,426	169,231
52	Paddle-wheel steamers especially constructed for naval purposes	524	51,878
71	Iron-clad vessels	275	80,596
149	Screw steamers purchased, captured, &c., fitted for naval purposes	614	60,380
174	Paddle-wheel steamers purchased, captured, &c., fitted for naval purposes	921	78,762
112	Sailing vessels of all classes	850	69,549
671	Total	4,610	510,396

COMPARATIVE STATEMENT OF THE NAVY, DECEMBER, 1863 AND 1864.

No. of Vessels.	Description.	No. of guns.	No. of tons.
671	Total Navy, December, 1864	4,610	510,396
588	Total Navy, December, 1863	4,443	467,967
83	Actual increase for the year	167	42,429
26	Total losses by shipwreck, in battle, capture, &c., during the year	146	13,084
109	Actual addition to the Navy from December, 1863, to December, 1864	313	55,513

The following tabular statement exhibits the number and description of vessels that have been constructed, or put in the course of construction, for the navy, since the institution of active measures for the suppression of the rebellion. Some of them have been built by contract; others by the Government, in the several navy yards. If we add to the number those constructed under similar circumstances, and within the same period, that have been lost by shipwreck, in battle, &c., viz.: the sloops Housatonic and Adirondack, and the iron-clads Monitor, Weehauken, Keokuk, Indianola and Tecumseh, the aggregate would be 210 vessels, 1,675 guns, and 256,755 tons.

Picket-boats, and small craft built for especial purposes, are not embraced in this statement.

VESSELS CONSTRUCTED FOR THE NAVY SINCE MARCH 4, 1861.

No.	Description.	Guns.	Tonnage.
7	Screw sloops, Ammonoosuc class, 17 to 19 guns, 3,213 to 3,713 tons each	121	23,637
1	Screw sloop Idaho, 8 guns and 2,638 tons	8	2,638
8	Screw sloops, spar deck, Java class, 25 guns and 3,177 tons each	200	25,416
2	Screw sloops, spar deck, Hassalo class, 25 guns and 3,365 tons each	50	6,730

No.	Description.	Guns.	Tonnage.
10	Screw sloops, clippers, single deck, Contoocook class, 13 guns and 2,348 tons each	130	23,480
4	Screw sloops, Kearsarge class, 6 to 12 guns, and averaging 1,023 tons each	40	4,092
6	Screw sloops, Shenandoah class, 8 to 16 guns and 1,367 to 1,533 tons each	74	8,584
2	Screw sloops, Ossipee class, 10 to 13 guns and 1,240 tons each	23	2,480
8	Screw sloops, Serapis class, 12 guns and 1,380 tons each	96	11,040
4	Screw sloops, Resaca class, 8 guns and 831 to 900 tons each	32	3,462
8	Screw sloops, Nipsic class, 7 to 12 guns and 593 tons each	71	4,744
23	Screw gunboats, Unadilla class, 4 to 7 guns and 507 tons each	123	11,661
9	Screw tugs, Pinta class, 2 guns 350 tons each	18	3,150
2	Screw tugs, Pilgrim class, 2 guns and 170 tons each	4	340
13	Paddle-wheel steamers, double-enders, Octorara class, 7 to 11 guns, and 730 to 955 tons each	98	11,024
26	Paddle-wheel steamers, double-enders, Sassacus class, 10 to 14 guns and 974 tons each	272	25,324
7	Paddle-wheel steamers, of iron, double-enders, Mohongo class, 10 guns and 1,030 tons each	70	7,220
1	Paddle-wheel steamer, of iron, double-ender, Wateree, 12 guns and 974 tons	12	974
141	Total	1,442	175,986
	IRON-CLAD VESSELS.		
2	Sea-going casemated vessels, Dunderberg and New-Ironsides	28	8,576
3	Sea-going turret vessels, Puritan, Dictator and Roanoke	12	9,733
4	Double-turret vessels, Kalamazoo class, 4 guns and 3,200 tons each	16	12,800
4	Double-turret vessels, Monadnock class, 4 guns and 1,564 tons each	16	6,256
1	Double-turret vessel, Onondaga, 4 guns and 1,250 tons	4	1,250
4	Double turret vessels, Winnebago class, 4 guns and 970 tons each	16	3,880
8	Single-turret vessels, Canonicus class, 2 guns and 1,034 tons each	16	8,272
9	Single-turret vessels, Passaic class, 2 to 4 guns and 844 tons each	21	7,596
20	Single-turret vessels, Yazoo class, 1 to 2 guns and 614 tons each	35	12,280
2	Single-turret vessels, Sandusky and Marietta, 2 guns each.	4	953
3	Single-turret vessels, Ozark, Neosho and Osage, 2 to 7 guns each	13	1,624
2	Casemated vessels, Tuscumbia and Chillicothe, 5 and 3 guns respectively	8	768
62		189	73,988
203	Total	1,631	249,974

CONSTRUCTION OF NAVAL VESSELS.

At the commencement of the rebellion the navy consisted of sailing vessels, a few paddle-wheel steamers, and screw vessels with auxiliary steam-power. Among the latter, the principal and most important were the steam frigates, which, on account of their great draught of water, were unsuitable for any other purpose than that of cruisers on foreign stations as flag-ships, for which indeed

they were intended. These vessels had been built to meet the conditions of the day; some of them, the Mississippi for instance, had been in service more than twenty years. When constructed, the principal object in view was armament, not speed, and they were equal, if not superior, to the vessels of other naval Powers. For attacks on forts, when accessible to naval attacks, or to protect troops in landing, they can still render service. Time was required to repair and place in proper condition such of these vessels as were dismantled, and also those which were recalled from service abroad. The sailing men-of-war had become useless for fighting purposes. In the emergency that devolved upon it at the beginning of hostilities, the department resorted to the commercial marine, and purchased every available merchant steamer that could advantageously be converted into a naval vessel, and be used to enforce the blockade.

The want of a class of small, heavily armed, propeller vessels was felt, and the department immediately proceeded, on its own responsibility, and without any appropriation or authorization by Congress, to contract for the construction of twenty-three gunboats, of which the Unadilla, Pionola and Wissahickon may be taken as the type. Some of these vessels were afloat, armed and manned within four months from the date of contract, and participated in the attack on Port-Royal; others took part on the lower Mississippi, in passing the forts and in capturing New-Orleans. These gunboats continue to maintain a good reputation, and their steam machinery gives satisfaction. Well adapted as they are for guarding our coast, a larger description was needed for ocean service, and four vessels of the class of the Ossipee, mounting each two guns of eleven inches, were built. There were, also, four vessels of slightly less tonnage constructed, carrying the same armament, of which the Kearsarge is the type. The Shenandoah is the type of six vessels, mounting each three eleven-inch guns, all of which sustain a high reputation. The heavy guns mentioned constitute the principal armament of the several classes named, but they each have in addition from two to six guns of less calibre. All of these vessels are screw steamers, suitable for sea cruising: but for shallow sounds and bays, the rivers and bayous, often narrow and tortuous, another and different class, drawing less water, was found to be necessary, and for them competition was invited. To turn in these frequently restricted channels is difficult, sometimes impossible, and the necessities of the case suggested the principal of a fighting vessel with a double bow and rudder at each end. Twelve paddle-wheel steamers constructed on this principle were built, some in the navy-yards and others by contract. The Port-Royal and the Sonoma are types of this class. An additional number, amounting to twenty-seven, of these double-bowed paddle-wheel vessels have been built, almost all of them by contract. The Sassacus, which was distinguished in the attack on the rebel ram in Albemarle Sound, the Metacomet, conspicuous in Mobile Bay, and the Eutaw, are types of these vessels. Eight of this class are built or building of iron, and will have strength sufficient for sea service as well as for inland waters. One of them, the Wateree, sent round Cape Horn, reached San Francisco in September last, and is on duty in the Pacific.

In order to have armed vessels suitable for naval operations on the Mississippi and its tributaries, the Department invited plans and propositions from shipbuilders and others acquainted with those waters, and the vessels built on those rivers have been chiefly from the plans submitted by parties thus invited. Two of these vessels, built at St. Louis, participated in the action with the rebel ram Tennessee, and have done good service in Mobile Bay.

The entire class of monitor or turreted vessels has been brought into existence during this war, and the coast and harbor iron-clads have been serviceable in James River, at Charleston, and at Mobile. Modifications and improvements have been made in this class of armored vessels.

The pressure for iron-clads of light draught, which could ascend the rivers and penetrate the sounds and bays along our coast, was felt to be a necessity. The operations of our armies in the vicinity of the inland water and adjacent to the rivers required the constant presence of gunboats. But the men thus employed,

as well as the magazines and machinery of the vessels, are exposed, especially in the narrow streams with high and wooded banks. Some vessels, and not a few valuable lives, have been lost by these exposures, and in order to afford all possible protection to the gallant men who encounter these dangers, the Department considered it a duty to provide armored vessels of light draught for their security. Contracts were entered into for the construction of twenty vessels on the monitor principle, each to carry two 11-inch guns, in order to be efficient, and to draw seven feet of water.

It was ascertained, however, when the first two approached completion, that their draft of water was more than was intended. The heavy armor and the two 11-inch guns, with the machinery to give them proper speed, involved the necessity of enlarging the capacity of each of them. When making these necessary alterations, it was deemed advisable, under applications from some of the commanders of squadrons for boats that should present but a small rise above the surface of the water, to dispense with the turrets in five of these light-draft vessels, with a view to special operations. The remaining fifteen were ordered to be enlarged by raising their decks, thereby giving them additional tonnage and greater draft and making them more efficient, but in other respects carrying out the original design. This work is now being performed, and most of the vessels are near completion.

The exigencies of the times and the necessities of the war have stimulated the inventive faculties of our countrymen to vast improvements in vessels, in engines, in ordnance and projectiles. That in some instances they are not at first entirely successful is not surprising. Mistakes and even failures will occur. In nearly every class of vessels that have been built, and especially those that are armored, more or less alterations have been found necessary while they were being constructed. Only two of the monitor class of vessels, the Dictator and Puritan, are proposed for sea service. Their success, of which the inventor and builder is sanguine, is among the experiments that the period and the exigencies of the country have imposed upon the department.

Four turreted vessels have been built in the navy-yards, of wood, and cased with iron—differing therein from the original monitors, which are exclusively of iron. One of them, the Monadnock, now in commission, has performed her trips from Boston to Hampton Roads with entire satisfaction, giving assurance that this experiment, deviating, in essential respects, from others, is likely to be successful. The draught of water of the Monadnock is twelve feet, and with two independent screws she has a speed of ten knots. Four other similar vessels, of a still more formidable and invulnerable character, are building.

The only sea-going iron-clad ships, besides the two turreted vessels already mentioned, are the New Ironsides, built in 1862; the Roanoke, one of the old frigates which has been armored, and the Dunderberg, a casemate vessel. For this vessel the contractor has promised a speed of fifteen knots at sea.

The department has, on several occasions, invited propositions for iron, sea-going, armored ships, but Congress having declined to make the necessary appropriations, no measures have been taken for their construction.

The vessels recently built, and at present constructing in the navy yards, are of wood, the smaller class of them being gunboats, eight of which are of the class of the Nepsic, 600 tons, mounting one heavy pivot and four broadside guns. There are four of the class of the Nantucket, of 900 tons, mounting one heavy pivot, with six broadside guns. In addition to these there are four vessels of the class of the Algona, with a tonnage of 1,350 tons, and proportionate armament. All of these vessels have very considerable steam-power, and will, as some of them have already proved, be efficient cruisers at sea.

The immediate wants of the blockade having been supplied by the vessels built and altered in the navy-yards, and by purchase of the best merchant steamers capable of bearing heavy armament, the attention of the department has been bestowed on larger and more imposing ships, such as would be formidable not only for home defence but for foreign service. The position and influence of a

nation among the great commercial and maritime powers of the world are to a great extent dependent on its naval ability. Limited appropriations have already been made by Congress for vessels of this character. Each succeeding year of this war has produced from foreign ship yards steamers of greater speed to run the blockade, and the reliable preventive of this illicit trade must be found in vessels of increased steam power. By making them of sufficient size they will be formidable, not only to neutral violators of our laws, but to any enemy. Of the vessels on which some sacrifice of armament has been made to obtain speed there are seven building, three of which are already launched, and the others will soon be ready. Two of these vessels are being built by contract, and five in the navy-yards. This class of vessels is represented by the Ammonoosuc and the Chattanooga. There are also in progress of construction twenty vessels with steam machinery of rather less power, but which are to be much more heavily armed. Ten of these, of the class of the Illinois, the Guerriere and the Java, have covered gun-decks, and will carry twenty heavy guns. Two will have a plating of thin iron as a protection from shells. The remaining ten, of the class of the Contoocook and Manitou, building in the navy-yards, are of less size, but with equal machinery, and intended for greater speed. As all of them will be provided with masts and sails, they can be cruising vessels and used on foreign stations.

PRIZES AND PENSIONS.

The number of vessels captured by the sqadrons since the last annual report, and reported to the department prior to November 1, is 324, classified as follows: schooners, 105; steamers, 88; sloops, 40; brigs, 3; barks, 3; small boats, 85. The total number of captures since the commencement of the rebellion is 1,379, viz.: schooners, 652; steamers, 267; sloops, 171; brigs, 33; barks, 29; ships, 15; yachts and small boats, 117.

The gross proceeds arizing from the sale of condemned prize property amounts to $14.396,250.51; expenses, $1,237,153.96, leaving for distribution, one-half to the captors, and one-half to the United States as a naval pension fund, $13,190,841.46.

The pension roll on the 1st of November, 1864, was as follows:

769 invalids with pensions amounting to.....	$50,401 10
840 widows and orphans amounting to.....	139,258 00
1,609 persons receiving a total amount of	$189,659 10

EXPENSES AND ESTIMATES.

The following are the expenses of the Naval Department the past year, and the estimates for the coming year:

On the 1st July, 1863, there was an unexpended balance standing to the credit of the department of.....	$89,101,970 84
The appropriations for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1864, were	76,663,567 86
Total available means.....	$115,765,537 70
The expenditures of the department during the same time were.	$85,733,292 77
Leaving a balance at the commencement of the present fiscal year of.....	$30,032,244 93
The appropriations for the current year are	109,256,814 54
Making the total available resources for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1865.....	$139,289,059 47

The estimates submitted for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1866, are as follows:

Pay of the navy	$23,327,722 50
Construction and repair of steam machinery	17,145,000 00
Construction and repair of vessels	24,530,000 00
Ordnance and magazines	9,187,615 00
Fuel, hemp, and equipment of vessels	14,050,000 00
Provisions and clothing	13,923,280 75
Navy-yards and superintendents	4,577,313 00
Navigation and Naval Academy	562,626 00
Surgeons' necessaries and hospitals	315,000 00
Marine corps	1,599,087 70
Contingent and miscellaneous	3,970,018 33
Total	$112,187,663 28

The expenditures of the department since the 4th of March, 1861, have been as follows:

From 4th of March to close of fiscal year, June 30, 1861	$6,244,357 62
For fiscal year ending June 30, 1862	42,200,529 06
For fiscal year ending June 30, 1863	63,211,105 27
For fiscal year ending June 30, 1864	85,733,292 77
From July 1, 1864, to November 1, 1864	41,257,976 72
Estimated expenditures from Nov. 1, 1864, to March 4, 1865	42,000,000 00
Total	$280,647,261 45

PUBLIC LANDS, MINES, AND PATENTS.

The Secretary of the Interior reports a revival of the demand for the public lands, particularly for settlement and cultivation. During the year ending June 30, 1864, more than three millions of acres have been disposed of, and including the quarter ending on the 30th of September, more than four and a quarter millions of acres. The following is a statement in full:

Acres sold for cash	432,773.90
" located with military warrants	515,900.00
" located with agricultural scrip	214,418.14
" certified to States for railroads	857,180.87
" taken under the Homestead law	1,261,592.61
" disposed of during the year	3,281,865.52
During the quarter ending September 30, 1864, the aggregate quantity taken for the same purpose was	939,476.90
Making a total of	4,221,342.42

The cash receipts for sales, homestead and location fees, for the same five quarters, were $1,019,446 44.

The aggregate quantity of public lands surveyed, but not disposed of, on the 30th September last, was 133,517,587 acres. This has been the average quantity for several years past. The amount surveyed annually has been about equal to that disposed of annually.

The annual receipts from ordinary sales for four years past have been as follows:

For the year ending June 30,			1861	$884,887 02
"	"	"	1862	125,048 30
"	"	"	1863	136,077 95
"	"	"	1864	678,007 21

Nineteen States have accepted the provisions of the acts donating lands "for the benefit of agriculture and the mechanic arts," and have received land and land scrip amounting to 4,950,000 acres.

THE MINES.

The reports of the mining interests are very encouraging. Additional discoveries of precious metals have been made during the year in the region flanking the ranges of the Sierra Nevada on the east, in Idaho and Nevada and Arizona, and the Secretary recommends the appointment of experienced and skillful mineralogists to make a scientific examination of the principal mining localities, and of the mineral regions generally, and to report the result. An appropriation would be required for these purposes. The report says: "In that portion of Nevada through which the Pacific Railroad will pass, many rich veins have been found, and it is estimated by persons familiar with the subject, that if the mines now opened there were supplied with the proper machinery, they would yield ten millions of dollars per month. In the same region vast beds of salt have also been found, which, from its value in the process of separating the silver in the ores, has given a fresh impulse to mining. When we reflect that the region of country in which deposits of the precious metals abound, includes large portions of three States and six territories, and that the richest veins of ore heretofore discovered are as yet but slightly developed, whilst new discoveries are constantly made, it will be perceived that the annual product of the mines in the United States must soon reach a magnitude, without precedent in the history of mining operations."

The mines of New Mexico and Arizona, though regarded as inferior to no others, are now nearly inaccessible and indifferently wrought. It is therefore suggested whether it would not be expedient to grant all, or such portions of the lands as are requisite, to insure the construction of the necessary railroads, and the conversion of the sterile lands to a condition of fertility.

THE INDIANS.

The Indian troubles, during the year, have given the department much concern. The proposition to reverse the policy of making treaties with Indian tribes, and to abrogate all existing treaties, is discouraged by Mr. USHER; but he suggests the propriety of omitting all stipulations for the payment of money annuities, whenever good policy or existing engagements will admit of that course of action.

PATENTS.

The inventive industry of the country is stimulated rather than depressed by the war. Last year 6,740 applications were made for new patents; 989 caveats were filed; 29 applications for extensions were received; 4,843 patents were issued (including re-issues,) and 40 extensions were granted.

THE BOOK TRADE.

A History of the World from the Earliest Records to the Present Time. Vol. I. By PHILIP SMITH, B. A. D. APPLETON & Co., 443 and 445 Broadway.

THE title which this volume bears usually suggests to one's mind a mere dictionary of dates; that being about the scope of what are generally called "Universal Histories." We must confess, therefore, that in opening it, we did not anticipate anything less weighty, and were the more pleased to find it a very different affair. It is a history

—not a dictionary—and promises to be a work of permanent value, as a continued record of human progress, showing the gradual development and the grand result of the acts and struggles of all nations.

The author treats his subject under three different heads or periods—the three into which history naturally divides—ancient, midieval, and modern. The first extends from the creation to the fall of the Western Empire, and is to be completed in two volumes; the second, also in two volumes, will embrace the period from the fall of the Western Empire to the taking of Constantinople by the Turks; and the third, to which four volumes are to be devoted, is to bring the story down to our own time. Thus, the work will extend through eight large octavo volumes—giving room enough for a valuable history, and yet not making it so extensive as to place it beyond the reach of any.

We notice that the first volume contains several fine steel-plate engravings, and is, in fact, in every respect issued in excellent style.

Our Young Folks. A new Magazine published by TICKNOR & FIELDS, Boston. Single subscriptions $2 a year.

WE have received the first number of this new periodical for "Young Folks," and find it full of articles both instructive and entertaining. Filling, as it does, an important corner before unoccupied, and addressed to a class whose characters are forming, we are glad to see that its pages are to be presided over by editors so well fitted for the position. If we would interest young people in books we must make them attractive, and convey the information they contain, in an agreeable, lively, and entertaining manner. We know no one able to do this better than GAIL HAMILTON, and feel sure, therefore, that so long as she is one of the editors, one will find precious little stupidity between the covers of "Our Young Folks." We wish it a long, useful, and successful existance.

Diary of Mrs. Kitty Trevylyan: A Story of the Times of WHITFIELD and the WESLEYS. By the author of "Chronicles of the Schonberg-Cotta Family," etc., with a Preface by the author for the American edition. New York: M. W. DODD, 506 Broadway.

Notices of this and other books received deferred until next month.

CONTENTS OF JANUARY NUMBER.

1. Cornelius Vanderbilt 10
2. The National Finances. By Hon. AMASA WALKER 22
3. The Taeping Rebellion—Its Rise and Fall. By T. M. J. 38
4. Why the Gold Revenue is Falling Off 49
5. Commercial Law.—No. 17. Interest and Usury 51
6. The Treasury Report.—The Past and Future Policy 55
7. Commercial Chronicle and Review 60
8. Journal of Banking, Currency, and Finance 66
9. The Reciprocity Treaty 75
10. The Naval Forces of the United States 81
11. Public Lands, Mines, and Patents 86
12. The Book Trade 88

THE

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE

AND

COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

FEBRUARY, 1865.

PETROLEUM.—ITS LOCATION AND PRODUCTION.

At present engaged in the oil producing region of Pennsylvania, the undersigned cannot repress the ever uprising desire to explain, or to attempt an explanation, of the phenomena of the oil and its production.

ROCKS IN WHICH IT ABOUNDS.

First the rocks in which it is found, and those in which it abounds, claim a passing notice.

Everybody was surprised at the out-gushing of oil from the rocky bosom of the earth, as much as were the weary and thirsty Hebrews, when the smiting of the Prophet's magic wand brought water, pure and sweet, from the desert granite. At first there was a tendency to regard it in the same category as the "*Moon Hoax*." Its reality, however, was palpable. The senses could testify, and even incredulity was compelled to believe. Then arose the questions, "if oil is found in one place, why not in any other?" and "if in one place only, or under certain conditions only, then in what place or under what conditions?" If in one place only it could be found, then that was answered when the first well was found. No other need be looked for. Happily, however, the first astonishment over, venturesome spirits were not wanting to repeat the experiment of Mr. DRAKE; and, in a remarkably short period of time, many neighbors began to bore. The identity of the oil thus obtained, with the oil obtained by distillation of coal and inspissated bitumen, which had just at that time succeeded in making a market for itself, brought the new product immediately into use, to the serious loss and great disgust of the coal distillers. The demand, however, was still exceedingly small, when the discovery of a flowing well of great productiveness set enterprise and speculation all astir, and the oil began to spout forth from the wounded earth in numberless torrents. Demand was drowned in the deluge. The oil could not be

given away at the wells as fast as they poured it out. Small producing pump-wells were abandoned by the thousand, insomuch that old derricks rear their decaying heads all over Pennsylvania oildom, and bear mournful testimony to the ruined fortunes of thousands of early adventurers.

But to the rocks—what kinds of rocks are they? The rocks of almost every geological epoch above the primary igneous, produce petroleum in quantities greater or less—more less than greater however. But the rocks, pre-eminently oil-bearing, are immediately subjacent to the bituminous coal-bearing rocks of this region, although a remark of an old oil hunter, made in the hearing of the writer, seems to be a realized fact. Speaking in the earnest manner, common to the mere observer without science, he said: "Where the coal is, the ile aint." Thus it seems to be pretty generally agreed, that it is useless to bore through a coal bed for oil. After all, this is, at present, mere empiricism. No reason can be given by any man why oil may not be reached through a bed of coal, as well as through the other overlying rocks. On nearly all these hills subcarboniferous rocks abound, and the debris of subcarboniferous rocks forms the surface of most of the valleys as well. The basis of the hills are mostly identical with the Devonian sandstones and shales, represented in the New York system by the Chemung and Portage group. At the base of the subcarboniferous series lie the compact sand rocks, which, in many parts, are coarse conglomerates.

In boring for a well, no man expects to find oil until he has reached and passed through a whitish sand rock, lying at depths varying from seventy-five to two hundred and seventy-five feet in the valleys. This is called, by way of distinction, the "first sand rock," although the borer may have passed through a dozen different sand rocks alternating with shales, before having reached the "sand rock." Very generally, a well stopped after having penetrated this rock, yields a heavy thick oil, considered specially valuable for lubricating purposes, and commanding nearly double the market value of the light oils.

From one hundred to two hundred feet below this lies another, very similar, and called the "second sand rock." Having penetrated through this, the borer is usually rewarded with another "show of oil." This, too, is a heavy oil, though not commonly so heavy as the former. From this rock is produced nearly all the wells along the Alleghany River, while the wells on French Creek are nearly all completed in the "first sand rock."

But, to reach the great oil fountains, the drill must make another plunge of from one hundred to two hundred feet, when a "third sand rock" is reached. From beneath this rock out gushes the pure, limpid, light oil. Here, too, are reached most, not all, the great "flowing," or rather spouting wells; some of them having deluged the land at first, with three thousand barrels per day—the "Empire well," for instance. The wells of Oil Creek are mostly in this rock.

Here, then, we have perforations through a series of sand rocks and clay shales, until a certain sand rock is reached, under which lies the greasy treasure. Let it be noticed that in all this descent into the bowels of the earth, no limestone is reached in this region of country.

CAN WELLS BE OBTAINED FROM TOPS OF HILLS?

Under the general impression that breaks in the hills indicate chasms

in the rocks beneath, the valleys, gorges, dells, and even mountain rills are seized upon by oil seekers as favorable locations for boring; and the omnipresent derrick climbs to the summits of the ridges, by timidly following the channel or brink of some little mountain torrents, instead of boldly mounting up the faces of the hills. It is, undoubtedly, a geological fact, that these valleys of Western Pennsylvania, never primarily marked out at the period of upheaval, by the flexures of elevation causing anticlinal axes, or by the flexures of depression causing synclinal axes; in both which cases a system of fissures would be produced; in the former, they would be superficial and open upwards, forming the primitive channels for the waters—now the rills, brooks, torrents, runs, creeks, rivers; in the latter, they would be deep and cavernous, and open downwards, while the depression itself would form the water channel. Both these forms of valleys are seen here, and are usually plainly distinguishable, the one from the other; while, in some cases, it becomes necessary to carefully observe the dip of the rocks before a decision can be formed.

But what is the testimony of the wells? Do they all speak one language—tell one tale? Verily no; though their reports, however various, are susceptible of classification, quite clear and intelligible. These reports are of two distinct classes, viz.: cavernous accumulations of oil, and shaly accumulations of oil.

When the Noble well was bored, for seven long days and nights, down rushed the waters, down rushed the oil, and down rushed the gases. Probably Mr. Noble thought he had struck a short route to China or *the other place* below; and he might have been pardoned, if the thought of putting a telegraph wire down through to the Celestials began to suggest itself to his excited mind, apparently disappointed in his dream of wealth from the flow of the coveted grease. But lo! if he had been amazed and chagrined during the first seven days, at the swallowing up of all his hopes in a fathomless abyss, he was no less astonished and delighted on the eighth day when he saw the liquid wealth suddenly rise with a snort and a splutter, and shoot up at the enormous rate of two thousand five hundred barrels per day. Other proofs of caverns are abundant, especially of caverns in the forms of rifts and chasms. Intermitting wells also show the fact of caverns. For instance, one well flows a good stream, gradually diminishes, ceases, and then gradually commences, increases, reaches its maximum flow, and then, as before, gradually declines. The periods in this case are eleven minutes flow, and fifteen minutes rest. On the contrary, most wells, I think, give proofs of being supplied with oil from shales. The gradual manner in which it evidently reaches the tube, shows that it results from percolation through some partially retaining substance. That shales are there the borer knows; for he brought up their triturated debris, while reason also affirms "it must be so."

As to the question of choice of ground, whether we shall take hill or valley or ravine, we may evidently conclude that these three several "sand rocks" will be reached at a less depth in a valley than on a hill. That rifts and chasms would be more abundant near the axes of flexure than where these do not occur, is a very natural and safe conclusion; but that one of the shale wells might be obtained from the top of a hill seems self-evident, by adding to the depth of the boring the excess in altitude. That no chasm or rift might be reached from the top of a hill, is by no

means a tenable position. Indeed, proofs are not wanting that chasms or rifts do occasionally occur in hills and beneath them. The celebrated bitumen vein in West Virginia splits a hill from summit to base, and crosses the valley at nearly right angles. At the top of the hill this rift is two feet thick; at the bottom and through the valley it is four feet ten inches thick. Assuming now, merely for the argument, that this same rift were a thousand feet geocentrically lower, that the bitumen existed in a liquid state, and that, in boring for oil, or other purpose, it is reached, evidently our part of the rift, *i. e.*, the reservoir, would be equally efficacious with another, hill or no hill. If, however, this hypothetical rift should make an angle with a vertical plane, in such manner as to place some portions geocentrically higher than others, (a condition, the probabilities of which, against the supposition of a perfectly concentric contour and vertical position, are almost infinity against zero,) then perforations at different altitudes will vary in productiveness. A low perforation will give great hydrostatic pressure; and the flow will be correspondingly great. If a barrel filled with any liquid be tapped on the head in a dozen different places, and at different distances from the top, that orifice will discharge the most which lies the lowest, the preforations being equal. *A priori*, then, we may safely conclude that he who bores for oil from the top of a hill, though his chances for striking a chasm reservoir may be somewhat diminished, may still very confidently proceed, assured that he will find oil in shale, if not in rifts.

THE THREE SAND ROCKS.

What may be the character of the three "sand rocks," in virtue of which they, and they alone, have become the conservitors of oil, does not yet appear. So far as known, all the surface drainage must have originated from these rocks, as in all the borings made these alone have yielded oil,—still not these, but under these. Moreover, the reservoirs under the three are evidently disconnected; the oils differing in gravity, the heaviest atop! when, by mixing the three in one vessel, they separate according to the law regulating the separation of liquids differing in specific gravity. On the contrary, as might be expected, the reservoirs under the same rock, give abundant proofs of extensive connections. Thus new wells frequently so tap the reservoir of old ones near them, as to greatly effect the quantity of the product from the old. On Oil Creek, new borings very generally pass through a deposit of debris from the old borings; and, in some instances, remnants of cable, and of seed bags and seeds have been brought up from a depth of several hundred feet. Thus the proof of connection is placed beyond hypothesis. It rests on facts.

DAILY PRODUCTION OF OIL, AND THE AGGREGATE AMOUNT.

The quantity of oil produced now does not materially differ from that of two years ago, viz., about six thousand barrels daily; a little short perhaps. From this fact some have leaped to the unwarrantable conclusion, that the maximum capacity for daily production was then reached. They argue that the number of wells has been greatly increased, but the quantity received is nearly constant. Therefore, more oil cannot be procured by increasing the number of wells.

Now we need but a moments reflection, and an appeal to a fact or two, in order to expose the fallacy of such a conclusion. First, the number of producing wells now is not so much greater than two years ago, as would at first sight appear. Old abandoned derricks, over wells which were producing oil two years ago, are very abundant; all along Oil Creek for miles, along French Creek for miles, and along the Alleghany River for miles, these abandoned wells outnumber the wells producing oil to-day. To the inquiry, wherever made, "Why are these wells idle?" but one answer is given, viz.: "They were abandoned two years ago, many of them at the time of their abandonment yielding thirty to forty barrels per day. But cooperage could not be obtained, and oil was worthless. The owners were obliged to leave them. Many of the owners have since gone into the army." This tells half the tale. The other half is as follows: All great spouting and flowing wells act either from hydrostatic or pneumatic pressure, or both. In either case the vent made by the well gradually reduces the force, and the well as gradually declines in its productiveness. This is the universal history of these wells. But it is a no less noticeable fact, that fewer new wells are great *spouters* than formerly. On the other hand, pumping wells, especially those of moderate productiveness, are very constant in their yield, scarcely diminishing their primary quantity in years. I conclude, therefore, that the daily product might be indefinitely increased. Not so, however, may it be said of the

Aggregate amount. That is fixed, is limited, under every view of the question of origin. If the quantity is definite, as is that of coal, iron ore, gold, silver, and the like, then like them it is exhaustible, not only in special localities but as a whole. If, on the other hand, it is a product of constant evolution, generated deep in the earth's secret laboratory, then is it exhaustible whenever the draft exceeds the production, just as the annual fruits of the earth are exhaustible whenever consumption exceeds production. Neither will it avail here to assume that its production exceeds any assignable amount of consumption. In that event, its accumulation in past ages would, or at least should, have overflowed its rocky reservoirs, and caused an inundation of oil, long geologic eras since. It is a very favorite and fashionable expression with the world, and even with many acute writers on scientific subjects, to say of this or of that mineral, "It is absolutely inexhaustible!" Thus they say of iron, of coal, of the fertility of some soils, etc., etc.; and thus many say and affect to believe of oil. Still it requires no great engineering acumen to demonstrate not only the contrary, but even to show *how many years any given mineral, as coal, will last any specified country, as England for instance.* True, we do not yet know how large a portion of the earth's surface rocks is oil-bearing. For myself, I am persuaded that it will eventually be found about as extensive as coal in territory. Discovery, thus far, seems to cling to the skirts of bituminous coal regions. It may prove that the oil regions and the bituminous coal regions will be found everwhere conterminous. With the present light we have, I do not think geologists would commit a very great blunder should they encourage enterprise to seek for it in all such localities, and stand non-committal with respect to other localities. Still, wherever we have the bituminous coal resting on other strata than the upper Devonian, I confess to some doubts, and I would be slow to commit myself beforehand. The very marked feature of the three "sand

rocks," and the fact that they alone, *in this region*, are oil-bearing, cannot but make one hesitate. Yet it is difficult to maintain entire silence, for men are everywhere eager to know what their prospects of success may be; and they appeal to the geologist not so much for an honest counsel as for a confirmation of their hopes. That geologist who frankly says "I do not know," is set down as *very verdant*, yet he only is safe. The excitement of speculation is so great, that the rocky bosom of mother earth will undoubtedly be put to the test in many a region now little thought of, whether the geologist speaks or not; and, as the first discovery was made without his knowledge or *consent*, so is it quite likely to precede him in extending the development of the greasy area. While science pauses to ponder, to systematize, to classify, and to rationate, speculative enterprise, eager for the golden harvest, plunges into blind search, strikes out right and left, and is very sure to hit in the right spot sometimes. Science will follow at her slow measured tread, and only corroborate and substantiate the discoveries of the adventurer. This will prove so at least until facts have fertilized the waiting womb of science. Then will she bring forth an illustrious progeny, out of this, as out of other great subjects in natural history.

ORIGIN OF MINERAL OIL.

Absolute certainty on this subject, as on many other kindred subjects, may never be reached. Speculation respecting the origin may be, as yet, entirely premature. Still, as the world is full of guesses, and as conceit is frequently enrobed in the garb of unquestionable principle, it may not be amiss to estimate the value of one or two theories respecting this most recondite subject. Recently, an article appeared in the *Daily Press*, without the authority of a name and without comment of the editor. In such case, the editor must, of course, be held responsible. This was very brief, but the theory was explicit so far as it went. It assumed that oil, as it comes from the pierced bosom of the earth, is the offspring of water and carbonate of lime, mutually decomposed. The words are, "The water descends through the rocky strata, dissolving as it goes, and carrying with it various acids and alkalies; and, on reaching some limestone bed, decomposition takes place, and the elements unite to form different compounds, among which the carbon of the limestone and the hydrogen of the water unite to form oil. Therefore, the supply is inexhaustible as the ocean!" I have not quoted verbatum, but nearly so. The sense, I think, is accurate. It is not an agreeable work to strike an unknown person. But we may hit this theory a blow or two in order to see whether it is merely a hollow shell, or vapid air, or solid substance. First, it lacks completeness. It does not tell us what re-agents are dissolved beforehand in the water, sufficiently effective to cause decomposition. Water, most assuredly, will not. If the carbonate of lime were the carbide of calcium, or carbide of lime, (compounds never found in nature,) then would this theory stand on a very fair foundation. But not now. Again, had the re-agent been named, we might, perhaps, comprehend the operation; but, as *it* is not named, we grasp at solidity and catch air. If we suppose an acid re-agent, what shall it be? Will we suppose it to be nitric acid, a small amount of which is produced in thunder showers? It is combined with the free ammonia forming nitrate of ammonia. Sup-

pose this substance and carbonate of lime to be brought together in the solution and decomposition effected under the laws of affinity, what do we get? Surely not oil at all; but nitrate of lime and carbonate of ammonia instead. So of any other salt, the elements of which may mutually interchange with carbonate of lime. But suppose the water carry down free acid capable of decomposing carbonate of lime. We now get free carbonic acid, not oil; and, if we can contrive to hypothecise the decomposition of the water so as to liberate the hydrogen, we still have the carbonic acid from the limestone, not carbon. It is really a very difficult affair to make even so clever a guess as this work. But, suppose for argument sake, we admit that this is really the origin of petroleum, and jump the *modus operandi*—What follows? What else but this, viz., carbonate of limestone everywhere should be doing the very same thing? All limestone countries should be greasy countries; and the more the limestone, the more the grease! Limestone regions, with one accord, cry out indignantly against the imputation. Finally, it must have been so from the first; and it is difficult to conceive how carbonate of lime has been able to maintain its existence through such vast cycles of ages, as must have intervened since it was first born of the elements and baptised in water.

Second, the theory that oil is a result of pressure upon coal is maintained by some respectable geologists. In other words, that, as whey is expressed from a cheese curd, or oil from the olive, so is petroleum expressed from the coal beds. This theory supposes coal to have originated from vegetable substances, by a process identical with that operating in the formation of peat and lignite; that a peat bed requires only submergence and burial beneath a mass of rocks, and the elevation of temperature consequent upon increased depth, to convert it into coal. During this process of conversion a slow but sure destructive distillation is quietly at work upon the vegetable substance, converting it into the various hydrocarbons. (They are not carbides of hydrogen, as are the two gaseous compounds, CH and C^2H, although the former of these is an abundant product of vegetable decomposition.) The temperature requisite for obtaining oil must have been reached, maintained sufficiently long to reach the result, and subsided before the coal was reduced to coke. Under the enormous pressure and in compressed water, that coke, if reached in the process, may have very materially differed from anything in that line human art can ever hope to attain, how different from anthricite coal I leave for others to declare. At all events, we can easily perceive that, if this were really the manner in which the oil was originally produced, a temperature would not be difficult to assign which would coke any supposable bed of the primitive coal. Moreover, if the heat did certainly exist in sufficient intensity, it is difficult to see how, under the circumstances of pressure and absence of free oxygen, anything else should transpire than the evolution of the hydrocarbons; and, if continued, of the coke, by means of superheated water and incalculable pressure. Nevertheless, the theory of the formation of anthricite coal from bituminous, through the agency of heat and pressure, is universally conceded by all whose opinions bear much weight on scientific subjects. But, says the skeptical querist, if this be so, why do we not find oil in the anthricite regions? To this my answers are, first, we have but now found it near the bituminous coal, and that, too, without scientific forecast, but rather by a blind inquisition,

groping after a little, a very little "Seneca oil," as one of life's panaceas, propounded by quacks and believed in by ignorance and disease. Secondly, *a priori*, one would say, that, under the high temperature attained in producing anthricite, the oil would become volatilized and sent into the "upper air," there either to ignite and suffer the consequent decomposition, or to be condensed and to float away on the bosom of the primeval ocean; to be driven hither and thither by the turbulent storms, until, finding quiet in some isolated lagoon or land-locked bay, it might ultimately become some bituminous lake of Trinidad—be buried again to be exhumed in the long after eras, as the Albert coal of New Brunswick, or as solidified bitumen amid the mountain rifts of Virginia and North Carolina. Who will say nay?

The temperature around bituminous coal regions not having attained sufficient intensity to produce coking, nor to volatilize the oil, this latter remains in its liquid state to follow the water with which it was associated, sinking as the water sank and rising as the water rose, maintaining its hydrostatic relation of levity, as compared with the greater gravity of its saline associate—salt water.

The fact that the lightest oil is found beneath the "third sand rock," may have reference to the order of distillation, or it may be the sign of a redistillation of the lowest; for it is a known fact, ascertained in the refineries, that the heavy oils may all become converted into light oils by properly managing the distilling process. Thus has God, in his own matchless laboratory, anticipated human research and attainment.

I scarcely need add, that to this theory for explaining the origin of that wondrous product of nature's chemistry, this more than Alladin's lamp, to many a formerly poor peasant, but a now wealthy Crœsus, I can discover no very serious objection. It seems perfectly to meet all the requirements of a well grounded hypothesis which will endure the severest tests. It seems to render intelligible the mysterious characters "done in oil," and to bring forth a true interpretation of the mystic symbols traced in nature's own book, and stored away amid the rocky archives of the geologic eras of the mysterious past.

There is one other theory which deserves a notice, though I by no means propose to discuss it in full, neither to refute it, nor to show its plausibilities. It is the only really rival theory to the one last above given.

That theory begins where the other leaves off. It supposes oil to be one of the primitive compounds, in the same manner as water and all the ordinary solids and carbonic acid gas, instead of being a secondary, belonging to the same category as ether, alcohol, chloroform, etc., the result of derivative chemical forces. It says the hydrocarbons were first. By exposure to air and moderate temperature, etc., they became inspissated and are asphaltum, bitumen, and finally coal. It says "all the impressions found in coal are the mere accidents of their day—organic substances embalmed in nature's cerements." Their strong arguments consist in calling for the potash of the plants supposed by the opposite theory to have originally constituted the coal beds, in citing the chemical identity of oil, asphaltum, and bitumen, and in appealing to the existence of these in separate beds, deposits, and reservoirs.

I do not deny the force of all this; but I do conceive that the theory of organic distillation by heat, and under immense pressure, and with

permeating water, is more in exact consonance with what we know from experiment; and that it meets all the reasonable demands upon it as a primary hypothesis. True, every hypothesis should be tried by the severest tests before it is catalogued as a fundamental principle. And no matter what hypothesis one puts forth, only so be he is willing it shall be subjected to the "*experimentum crucis.*"

IRA TAYLER.

NATIONAL SAVINGS AND NATIONAL TAXATION.

(Number II.)

THE INCOME TAX AND ITS RESULTS.

WE have already referred to the difficulty there is in attempting to reach any accurate conclusion respecting the national income. In our last article, however, we showed what must have been the annual accumulations during the past ten years, if the census returns are sufficiently accurate to form a basis for the estimate. Taking the assessed valuation of all the property, real and personal, in the United States, in 1850 and 1860, (that is taking an account of stock at each of those periods,) we stated that the increase thus exhibited must be the savings of the country during that period, with certain exceptions. Among those exceptions we mentioned the increased valuation of real estate, which is mostly nominal. It does not represent accumulations, except to the extent of the improvements in the way of houses, fences, etc.; and, as we then said, it makes no difference whether Western farm lands are assessed at their actual cost, $1 25 per acre, or at their assessed value, $100 per acre, the real value, which is the profit the farmer gets after supplying his family, is in each case the same. It is only out of that net income that he can pay taxes, whether his farm is assessed at $1 25 or $100 per acre.

So, too, in regard to the valuation of personal property, we showed that there were many inaccuracies. Much of it is assessed two or more times. For instance, take the valuation of savings and other banks, and we find the capital of the bank is first assessed, then the deposits, and, again, all that the capital and deposits are invested in—such as real estate, United States bonds, the stocks of goods, etc., merchants and others are able to purchase by means of the loans thus obtained, etc. Hence, therefore, two things it appears to us are evident. First, that the increase in valuation of real estate is not, except to a small extent, accumulations; and second, that the personal valuations are in many cases repeated, and therefore excessive. Balancing, then, this excess in the valuation of personal property against that portion of the real estate which may be considered savings, and we reached the conclusion that the increase in personal property might be taken as the amount of the savings. We claim, of course, no refined accuracy in this estimate, all we expect is an approximation. But that is sufficient for our purposes; for if we can convince our readers of the necessity there is for economy, both national and individual, we shall have accomplished a decidedly good result.

Yet, although an estimate made, as indicated above, could of course lay no claim to refined accuracy, still we now have, in the returns of the Commissioner of Internal Revenue, corroborative evidence that the conclusions reached cannot be far out of the way. The census returns give the personal estate in 1850 at $2,029,050,213, and in 1860 at $5,111,553,956; showing an increase of $3,082,503,743 in ten years, or an average annual increase in the savings of the country of about $308,000,000 a year, and this we gave in our previous article as the probable *net* income of the United States each year from 1850 to 1860. Turning now to the returns of the income tax we reach similar results. The amount collected on the income tax for the year ending 1863 was $23,556,084, and this tax being three per cent, the sums thus collected represents a *gross* income of $785,136,133, which amount, therefore, is thus shown to be the total *gross* income of the United States in 1863 over and above the $600 exempted. It will be remembered that in our last article we showed the result of this same tax in England, and the conclusions reached then compare with the above figures as follows:

	All incomes over	Gross incomes.	Rate of tax, per ct.	Proceeds.
Great Britain..... ...	$484	$1,471,521,685	3½	$55,240,740
United States	600	785,136,133	3	23,556,084

Thus the income tax gave very nearly half as much here as in England. It is to be borne in mind, however, that the English tax was levied in the year 1861–62, when general business became very dull because of the outbreak of the war in this country, many of those channels of profit which we pointed out in our last article being under depression. On the other hand, business in the United States was very active and prosperous during the year 1863, under the influence of large Government expenditures, and of the progressive issue of paper money, which resulted in a continuous rise in prices of all commodities during the year, causing old and dead stocks of goods to command unexpected profits, which were calculated in paper money and not in the specie medium of the previous year.

Thus, as all know, the paper income of the year was very largely increased, and yielded a much larger amount of tax than could otherwise have been looked for. Still it should be remembered, on the other hand, that incomes are in many cases understated and never overstated, so that the aggregate returned must be somewhat less than the actual. We cannot, of course, know the extent to which this tax is affected by either of these causes, nor shall we attempt it. To continue, however, our comparison with the returns of Great Britain, it is necessary to reduce the paper income to its specie equivalent, which is (taking the average price of gold in 1863) $523,424,089. The fact will then remain that, payable in the same currency, the income of the Northern States is rather more than one-third that of Great Britain. Refering now to our last article, we find that out of an income of $1,471,521,685 per annum in Great Britain, the net surplus (page 434, vol. 51) was placed at $570,000,000, or about forty per cent of the gross income. At the same rate the net surplus *of those States paying this tax* would be $209,369,602 per annum. The estimate of savings made in our former article, as stated above, was $308,000,000 *for the whole country*, giving about the same result now obtained.

Thus it appears that the annual net income of the whole United States is about three hundred, or certainly cannot exceed four hundred millions of dollars. This represents the total annual net surplus, which heretofore has been applicable to the following purposes:

1. Purchases and improvement of land, drainage, machines, buildings, etc., necessary to production.
2. Construction and improvement of dwellings.
3. Construction and improvement of factories, workshops, tools, motive power, etc.
4. Creation of public works, railroads, docks, bridges, telegraphs, roads, churches, hospitals, colleges, asylums, and water-works.
5. Trading capital, stocks of goods, ships, etc.
6. Investments in public stocks, insurance, gas, etc.
7. National taxation.

The increase of business and population demands a considerable application of capital every year to each of the above six purposes, so that all of the net surplus clearly cannot hereafter be applied to the payment of taxes. If it were so applied, the further development of the wealth of the country would be impossible. The rapid increase in wealth of the United States hitherto, has been owing, in great part, to the fact that the surplus earnings in almost all business have been applied to extending, improving, facilitating, and therefore cheapening production, while the means of individuals have been free to purchase those productions, thus giving a new stimulous thereto. Should the Government now be compelled to step in and absorb the whole of that portion of this revenue, which has hitherto been applied to facilitating production, one can easily see what the result would be.

We must here remind our readers again that there is no fund out of which taxes can be paid except this net income. The popular boast about our inexhaustible resources is really nothing more nor less than silly and wicked; silly, because even a thinking child knows better; and wicked, because it leads to extravagance and carelessness. The resources of the nation are measured by its income. We, as individuals, can pay no more in taxes than we have net income. To point to our gold mines and say there is the means to pay our debt, is no more foolish than to tell the farmer to pay his interest due this year out of crops not yet even put into the ground. The soil and the mines are rich enough, but the gold and the crops must be produced before they can be spent. As we stated on a previous occasion, this same gold and fertility of soil were there when the continental dollar was valueless, and ever since that time we have been producing both gold and crops as fast as we could with the capital and labor we possessed. It is to the annual production alone we can look as a resource, and we can increase that only by the application of more capital and labor. If, therefore, all the surplus earnings are to be applied to taxes, it is clear that the production neither of our mines nor our farms can be increased.

But we will not dwell longer on this point, as we have discussed it at length in previous numbers.* Besides, it is self-evident that the only fund we can look to for payment of our taxes is our income. By economy on the

* *Merchant's Magazine* for 1864.

part of the people, however, the net savings can to a certain extent be increased. It should be remembered, also, that the income estimate we have made, does not include any under $600. Of course such small incomes, as a general rule, yield no surplus—the full amount being required for consuption. And yet they indirectly pay taxes, and are able to do it by the exercise of greater economy; thus adding to our tax paying abilities. This process of saving, however, of necessity discourages business and production, and if carried to too great an extent, the whole system of production and interchange is thus put under pressure, which soon must undermine the incomes and diminish the surplus.

We have thrown together these few ideas, for the purpose of showing the earnestness of the financial question before the people at the present time. If its importance were only appreciated there would be far less danger in the future. We have no doubt of the ability of the country to finish this war successfully, and to pay the expense of it; but yet it is evident from what we have said that we have no money to waste—that the future growth of the nation depends upon the financial policy pursued now. The hearts of all are full of hope, joy, and thankfulness, on account of the successes obtained in the field; only this one threatening cloud remains. It can be robbed of much of its damaging power by care and wisdom. But if we choose to flatter ourselves with the idea of our wealth, to blind our eyes with false notions of our resources, and act accordingly, the extent of our future suffering must be greatly aggravated. Remember *that not one cent of the expenses of this war has yet been paid;* we have carried it on by simply issuing our promises to pay, so that the war has not proved our resources financially, but only our faith in our Government. The taxes collected have paid nothing because the additional issue of currency has neutralized them, by increasing the expenses each year to more than the amount thus collected. And remember, too, that when we begin to pay, we can spend no more than our net income, and that every cent required for taxes is so much taken from production.

We shall hope hereafter to indicate some of the changes which should be made to increase revenue and decrease expenses.

COMMERCIAL LAW.—NO. 18.

BANKRUPTCY AND INSOLVENCY.

THE HISTORY OF THE LAW OF BANKRUPTCY.

Centuries ago, dealers in money, or "exchangers," as they were called in England, sat behind a bench, on which lay heaps of the coin they bought or sold; and some remains of this practice may now be seen in various parts of the old continent. This bench, or "banco," in the Italian language, gave its name to the moneyed institutions of deposit, or of currency, of which the earliest of great importance, if not the first in time, was the "Bank" of Venice. When such a trader became insolvent, or unable to meet his engagements, those who had charge of such things,

whether as a police or as an association or guild of such dealers, broke his bench to pieces, as a symbol that he could carry on that business no longer. In Italian, the words "banco rotto" mean a broken bench; and from this phrase antiquarians suppose that the word "bankrupt" grew.

In this we see nothing of alleged criminality, or of punishment. But the laws of England went to an earlier source than the Italian commerce of the Middle Ages, and found in the Roman law the principle which governed, and perhaps still governs, their system of bankrupt laws. This principle is, that the bankrupt may be presumed to be dishonest and criminal, and treated accordingly.

By the original English common law, the body of a freeman could not be arrested for debt, whether he was a trader or not. And the earliest processes of that law included none for imprisonment for debt. This was of later origin. In the reign of Edward I. a law was passed authorizing an arrest of a defendant in certain cases, for the purpose of more effectually securing the performance of commercial contracts. This was extended in its operation by a law of Edward III., and sundry statutes followed, applying further regulations to this subject, until late in the reign of Henry VIII. (1544) a statute was passed so nearly resembling a modern statute of bankruptcy, that it is generally considered the first bankrupt law. In a statute of the 13th year of Queen Elizabeth, the operation of the law was confined to traders; or, in the words of the law, "to such persons as had used the trade of merchandise in gross or in retail." And thus an important principle was introduced, which has since been adhered to, although somewhat liberally construed.

In those, and in still earlier days, there was perhaps more reason for regarding a mercantile bankrupt as a criminal than there is now. Even at present, many insolvencies are undoubtedly fraudulent, and the innocent bankrupt generally, if not always, owes his failure to guilty intent or guilty improvidence in some quarter. But it is also certain, that, in the vast complications of the commercial world, all who engage in business are subject to casualties, which imply no crime, and which no sagacity could avert. By the Roman law, the merchant who failed in business was expelled from the college (or guild) of merchants, and never suffered to trade again; if that law prevailed here, many of our most eminent and useful merchants would have lost the opportunity of retrieving their affairs by ultimate success, and paying off, by the fruits of a later industry, the debts of an early insolvency.

The community are now sensible of this. And to this conviction we owe the gradual, but of late years rapid, change in the spirit of our laws for the collection of debt. Now the endeavor is made to discriminate carefully between an innocent and a wrongful insolvency; and to treat the latter only as criminal. That our laws do not yet effect this purpose perfectly, and without any injurious result, may be true; but the purpose and the principle are certainly right.

The Constitution of the United States authorizes Congress to pass a bankrupt law. But not until eleven years after the adoption of the Constitution was a bankrupt law passed, in 1800, which, by its own terms, was limited to five years, but was in fact repealed after it had been in operation two years and eight months. Sundry attempts were made from time to time for a new one; and whenever the vicissitudes of trade press-

ed more heavily than usual on the community, these efforts were more urgent. And to the general decay of trade in the country, or rather the wide prevalence of actual insolvency, was due the law which was passed in 1841, after an earnest but unsuccessful endeavor in the year previous.

If the amount or number of applications for the law is a true measure of its need or its utility, this law was not passed too soon. In Massachusetts, for example, there were 3,389 applicants for relief, and the creditors numbered 99,619, more than a third of the adult male population of the State, and the amount of their claims exceeded thirty millions of dollars, averaging about three hundred and fifty dollars to a creditor.

This law was repealed March 3, 1843, one year six months and fourteen days after it was enacted; and in this short period it affected more property, and gave rise to more numerous and more difficult questions, than any other law has ever done, in the same period. It was repealed because it had done its work. The people demanded it, that it might settle claims and remove encumbrances and liens and sweep away an indebtedness that lay as an intolerable burden on the community. When it had done this, it began, or was thought to have begun, to favor the payment of debt by insolvency too much, and the people demanded its repeal.

We have no national bankrupt law now. The present Congress may pass one: yet the State insolvent laws are now so well constructed and systematized, that they effect, though not quite so well, nearly all the purposes of a national law.

But these State laws are entirely independent of each other; and their provisions are so different, that it is difficult, or indeed impossible, to present a view of the bankrupt law of the United States which can have the unity and system of such a view of the laws of any nation, in which these laws are made by one legislature for the whole people, as in England, for example. But there is enough of system and of similarity, and enough of principle running through the whole, to make it expedient to endeavor to present a general view of the generally admitted principles, without attempting to exhibit merely local details and peculiarities. Should a national law be passed, it would undoubtedly embody these same general principles.

THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN BANKRUPTCY AND INSOLVENCY.

This difference was not perhaps perfectly clear in its beginning, and has gradually grown dim with time, until now, in this country at least, it has become almost obliterated. But from it arose, and upon it, in some measure, depends, our present American law of insolvency.

The earliest difference between these was, that bankrupt laws applied only to those "who used the trade of merchandise," while insolvent laws applied not only to traders, but to all who were indebted and unable to pay their debts. The more prominent distinction, however, was this, that the process under the bankrupt law was *against the will of* the bankrupt, by his creditors, in order to obtain a sequestration of his effects, (by sequestration is meant the taking them out of his possession and control,) and prevent a further waste or fraudulent or unequal misapplication of them, and secure the payment of their debts as far as these effects would go. But the insolvent laws were intended for the relief of debtors who sought to be protected, by the delivery of all their property, from further

molestation. This distinction is now so far lost sight of, that the last national bankrupt law, and most of the State insolvent laws, provide separately for a process *against* a party, and also for one on the application and request of the insolvent himself. It has also been supposed that another ground of distinction lay in the fact, that the bankrupt law discharged the debt, while the insolvent law left the debt in full force, but protected the debtor himself from arrest or imprisonment. But this distinction has also faded away.

For a long time, in England, these two systems of law—Bankruptcy Statutes and Insolvency Statutes—ran along together, those of Insolvency being the more numerous, but the two subjects were kept quite apart. At length they began to assimilate, and in the recent legislation, especially by the latest, they have continued to approach nearer and nearer together, until there is now scarcely any discrimination between them.

In this country, there has not been any very clear distinction between them, at any time; but one consequence from the nominal distinction was important. These colonies, from the earliest times, enacted insolvent laws, but not bankrupt laws. And when the Constitution of the United States gave to Congress the power to pass a bankrupt law, it seems to have been thought that this in no wise affected the rights which the States continued to possess, of enacting what insolvent laws they chose to. This right they have continued to exercise to the present day; and always under the name of insolvent laws. But, so far as we may affirm with much positiveness any conclusions on this obscure subject, we may say that the distinction between insolvent laws and bankrupt laws is now, in this respect at least, nothing, and that a State can pass no law calling it an insolvent law, which it could not pass under the name of a bankrupt law; and that the power given to Congress to pass a bankrupt law does not take it away from the States, who may pass what bankrupt laws they will for their own citizens, whenever there is no general bankrupt law enacted by Congress. And even if there be such a law, any State may, perhaps, pass any bankrupt law which in no way interferes with or contravenes the statute of the United States.

This last remark, even if admitted to be true, cannot have much practical value; for it can hardly be supposed that Congress will pass any general bankrupt law which would be so inadequate or incomplete that a State could pass an insolvent law, of any importance, which should not interfere with it. Where cases had been commenced under the State insolvency laws, before the bankrupt law went into force, it was decided that they might go on to maturity, and were not superseded by this national law.

At present, we have no general bankrupt law, but a great variety of State insolvent laws. Of their special provisions we do not propose to say much; but shall confine our remarks, principally at least, to those general principles which may be supposed common to them all, where not specifically excluded. And of these, what may be called the fundamental principle is an equal division of the assets (or property applicable to debts) of an insolvent among his creditors.

At common law, any person, whether a trader or otherwise, may pay any debt at his own pleasure, whether he be insolvent or not; and if such payment exhaust his means, so that he can pay no other creditor, the

common law makes no objection. In other words, it permits a preference among creditors, to any extent and in any form. Nor does the English Statute of Fraudulent Conveyance affect this question. This statute was passed in the reign of Queen Elizabeth, and has been considered as brought over to this country; so that it is now a part of our common law. By its provisions, any transaction is void, because fraudulent, if intended to "hinder, delay, or defraud a creditor." But it is not considered that a debtor does this by paying one more than another, or paying to some of his creditors all of their debts, and to others nothing, provided his reason for paying to these last nothing is that he had nothing left for them after paying the others.

At this right of preference, the bankrupt system was directly aimed. Since the reign of Elizabeth, it has been restrained and almost suppressed in England. But in this country, where, as has been said, the English bankruptcy system was never introduced, and this whole matter was regulated by common law, a system of voluntary assignment, with preferences of all kinds, prevailed extensively. The frauds and mischiefs resulting from this, gradually produced a conviction that both expediency and justice imperatively demanded an equal distribution of the assets of an insolvent among all his creditors. In Maine, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Connecticut, New Jersey, Delaware, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Missouri, Georgia, and Louisiana, special assignments, with preferences are no longer permitted. In other States, particularly in New York, there seems to be a growing disposition to encourage an equal division, by providing not only, as is now generally done, that the insolvent shall be discharged only when his effects are equally divided, but that all preferences shall be void. This system is found to operate well wherever it is tried, and we cannot doubt that it will be, at no distant day, universal. We are not aware that any State which has suppressed special assignments with preferences, has ever returned to them. In some of the States, however, preferences of debts due as wages of labor, to a certain amount, are permitted.

THE TRIBUNAL AND JURISDICTION.

The bankrupt law of the United States gave the jurisdiction of (or right to hear and determine) all cases of bankruptcy to the District Courts of the United States; and the reasons for this are so obvious, that it would undoubtedly be so provided in every future law. The State insolvent laws, for the most part, provide commissioners of insolvency, and among these the judges of probate are sometimes placed *ex officio;* but there is no uniformity on this point. There is, certainly in general, and we think always, a supervisory power in the Supreme Court, or in the Court of Chancery, of each State.

If a creditor's claim be doubted, the assignees may have the question decided by a jury,—and so may the creditor, if his claim be disallowed,—by the provisions of many States.

As to the manner of initiating the proceedings in bankruptcy, the national law contained some provisions copied substantially from the English laws; and in the short time during which the law was in force, various rules were made by the courts, or resulted from adjudication and usage. At present, each board of commissioners, or each commissioner,

seems to have the power of framing its own rules of practice, always, however, subordinate to the principles, first, that each case shall begin with an application, either from the creditor (where that is permitted) or the debtor, under oath, and then full notice, by advertisement or otherwise, to all interested, with sufficient delay, and convenient arrangement as to time and place. And, secondly, all the facts material to any party are to be proved before the proper tribunal, by proper evidence, verified by oath, and subject to cross-examination, and generally governed by the common principles of the law of evidence.

There is also introduced into most of these codes a rule derived from equity practice, by which the debtor may be compelled to answer, under oath, upon the interrogatories put to him by the commissioners, or by one or more creditors; especially upon matters bearing on the question whether he has made any fraudulent or favoring assignments of property, with a view to bankruptcy, or while actually insolvent. But the common-law privilege would in most cases still be allowed him, of refusing to answer any question, if the answer could expose him to punishment for a crime.

The power to compel an answer is given to the commissioners, by authorizing them to issue a writ or warrant, and commit a recusant to jail for contempt, as a common-law court could do.

At common law, any kind or amount of preference of one or more creditors over others was, as we have seen, valid. That is, the law required of a debtor to pay his debts; but permitted him to pay any debt at his own election, although by such an appropriation of his means he could pay no part of any other. As, however, the general purpose of the insolvent laws is to secure an equal division of all the assets among all the creditors, for this purpose they avoid any payment, assignment, or transfer which would have, or was intended to have, the effect of favoring a part of the creditors at the expense of the others.

There is, however, an obvious difficulty in applying this rule. If a trader, as is usually the case, passes gradually into a state of insolvency, almost any creditor, who has the good fortune to be paid in full, gains an advantage over the rest, and reduces the means of the insolvent, to their injury. A line, however, must be drawn somewhere. If any transfer or appropriation of property be made with fraudulent intent at any time, and this fraud is known to the transferee, the transfer itself is void at common law. But, as was said, the mere intention of giving to a creditor priority or preference is not fraudulent. And the national law contained, and most, if not all, our insolvent laws contain, a provision defining a period of time *prior* to which any transfer of property from a bankrupt, provided there was no fraud on his part with the knowledge and connivance of the assignee, is valid; but any assignment or transfer or payment after that period, if made by the bankrupt in contemplation of bankruptcy or insolvency, is void, however innocent or ignorant the assignee. In the national law this period was two months; it differs in the different States, but is about the same time generally.

In computing this time, it is said that the day on which the transaction took place, or the day on which the petition is filed, must be excluded. In legal computations of time, generally, the law knows no fractions of a day. But in the application of the insolvent laws, the very hour is in-

quired into. The reason of this, or at least its justice, is obvious. If one's rights depend upon whether he has lain in prison two months, or whether a certain thing was done more or less than two months before another, or whether a petition was filed under a law before that law was repealed or not, it is as proper to ascertain the exact time, as it is when there is a question whether an attachment of land or a record of a conveyance was first made. This has been denied in some cases, but not, we think, on good grounds.

It would seem that this question of fraudulent preference should stand upon the same footing as questions of fraud generally. It is a mixed question of fact and of law; and so far as it depends upon law, or upon construction, the court may decide it, and the parties have a right to have it decided by the court. But so far as it rests upon proof, or is to be inferred from evidence direct or circumstantial, it would seem to be a question of fact, upon which a jury might pass.

It may be remarked in this connection, although also true without reference to the laws of bankruptcy or insolvency, that if one purchases of another property, either real or personal, for its full value, and pays the price in money, it is still a fraudulent and void transaction, *if* the purchaser did it with intent to aid the seller in defrauding his creditors. And in this case the sale is wholly void, and the assignee of the seller, if he goes into bankruptcy, will recover the property, although the sale take place before the limited period above referred to.

The very important influence of bankruptcy or insolvency in extending the lien of a seller, so that he may reclaim his goods, unless they have come into the actual possession of the insolvent, or, in other words, the right which insolvency gives to the seller of stopping the goods *in transitu*, was fully considered in the article on Stoppage in Transitu. This right depends of course upon insolvency, but not necessarily upon legal and formal, or, as it is sometimes called, notorious insolvency.

THE BANK OF THE NETHERLANDS.*

Every one who has read Adam Smith's *Inquiry* knows something about the Bank of Amsterdam, an establishment which stopped payment in 1795. With the present state of banking in Holland, however, scarcely any one in this country is fully acquainted. A little information on this subject may therefore prove acceptable to our readers.

The Bank of Amsterdam was simply a bank of deposit, and for this reason did not issue any notes. In fact, no bank in Holland ever issued notes before the year 1814, when the so-called "Bank of the Netherlands" was established by Royal Charter, with a capital of £416,666, divided into 5,000 shares of £83 each.

Small as this capital was, and though the Dutch Government alone took one thousand shares, a year after the Bank had commenced its

---

* See the London *Economist*, January 7, 1865.

operations no more than £200,000 had been subscribed, and it lasted another year before the subscriptions amounted to the £416,666 required. This disinclination on the part of the public to invest their money in the Bank is easily explained. Bank notes at that time were quite unknown in Holland, and the only knowledge people could get on the subject was rather unfavorable than otherwise. It is to be remembered that in 1814 the Bank of England had not resumed payment in gold. So the notes of the new establishment were not readily taken by the public, and, as a matter of course, capitalists were unwilling to invest their money in a concern which was not trusted by the public. Besides, there is another reason why it was very long before the Bank could issue a large number of notes. At that time no Dutch firm of high standing would have thought of discounting a bill. Discount was considered as the last means by which a man, when hard up, could avoid bankruptcy. Accordingly, the Bank had very little to do, and could only gradually increase its business.

The capital being small and all transactions being conducted in a very prudent way, the Bank succeeded, however, in making some profits. In 1815, a dividend was declared of 5.84 per cent. on 2,445 shares, in 1816, of 6 per cent. on 5,000 shares, and in 1819, 10.39 per cent. was paid to the shareholders. Owing to this circumstance the Bank could increase its capital by £416,666, which was at once subscribed by the public. The circulation of notes then amounted (31st of January) to £833,333.

Of course our readers do not want us to trace the history of the Bank in all particulars up to the present date. The few details we gave may be sufficient. The distrust with which the bank notes were received by the public compelled the Directors to be as prudent as possible. Looking more to the future than to high profits at once, they constantly kept a large metallic reserve, very often equal to 100, and very seldom under 70 or 80 per cent. of their cash liabilities. Even in the midst of the crisis of 1857, their proportion never fell below 59 per cent. The following figures may give an account of the progress of the Bank :—

Date.	Capital, including Reserve.	Deposits.	Circulation.	Bullion.
March 31, 1815.....	£208,333	£905,000	£150,000	£835,833
" 1825.....	875,000	1,100,833	1,205,000	1,666,666
" 1835.....	891,666	1,425,000	2,022,500	2,145,000
" 1845.....	1,437,500	1,645,833	3,087,500	3,585,833
" 1855.....	1,432,500	1,827,500	7,713,333	8,564,166
May 9, 1864.....	1,533,333	2,620,000	9,941,666	7,196,666

The original charter of the Bank had been given for 25 years, and consequently expired on the 31st of March, 1839. A second charter was then granted, rather similar to the old one, though a little more liberal. So, for instance, the curious restriction which did not allow the Directors to raise the rate of discount beyond 5 per cent. was removed. It was also permitted them by this charter to discount promissory notes and to advance money on foreign stocks, which they had never done before. On the other hand, the Bank was ordered to establish a branch at Rotterdam. It is very odd that this order has never been carried out till this year. It has been constantly deferred, and nobody seems to have made any objection.

This second charter was granted for twenty-five years, and, as the first one, simply by a Royal ordinance, without any interference of Parliament. Very little was said in the newspapers on the subject. Everybody seemed to be perfectly satisfied with the management of the Bank, and nobody wished to adopt any other system than that which existed.

When, however, the Bank Charter expired again, all this had changed a little. A good many people were dissatisfied with the Bank. They taxed the Directors with over-prudence, and with not rendering all those services to the public which they might render. They professed not to know why free competition should be admitted in every department of trade, and not in banking. Indeed, competition had never been excluded even there *in theory;* there existed no law or ordinance preventing any bank or private person from issuing notes. Yet, *practically*, the Bank did possess a monopoly, because all other notes, except their own, were required to be stamped. Now, this monopoly, it was argued, ought to be done away with. So, in order to give fair play to discussion, the Government decided upon having the question settled by Parliament. A Bill was introduced, by which it was proposed that no Company or private individual should henceforth be permitted to issue notes, unless authorised to do so by a special Act. At the same time this permission was proposed to be granted to the Bank of the Netherlands. This Bill was strongly opposed. It was said that such a regulation would practically strengthen the monopoly of the Bank, instead of abolishing it. Still, after a very warm debate, the Bill was passed by both Houses by a large majority. Since then a year has elapsed, and no other permission to issue notes has yet been granted, nor would any one think of making a request for that purpose, because the Dutch Parliament would be sure to refuse. The general feeling in Holland is very much opposed to free competition in this matter.

Nor is it unnatural that this feeling should exist. The Bank of the Netherlands may be charged with over-prudence; it is admitted by all parties that this is about the only fault it ever committed. The large metallic reserve it keeps may be detrimental to the interests of shareholders; but it cannot be denied that in bad times this very reserve always enabled the Bank to give every sort of facilities to trade. To this it must be ascribed in part, that most commercial crises have nowhere made so few victims as in Holland. Every merchant always knew, that however large the drain of bullion might be, there always was money to be had on good security,—either of bills, stocks, or merchandise,—at the Bank. Every reader of this journal knows how the Bank of England managed before and during the crisis of 1847. After having kept the rate of discount as low as 3 and 3½ per cent. till the beginning of 1847, they raised it to 5 per cent. in April, 6 per cent. in August, and 8 per cent. in October, whilst in the beginning of that month no other but 14 days' bills were discounted, and all advances on stocks absolutely refused. This state of things lasted till the Act of 1844 was suspended. Everybody knows that. Well, how did the Bank of Holland act during the same period? It raised its discount to 4 per cent. as early as September, 1845, and in November of that same year to 5½ per cent. This rate was maintained, with few alterations, till April, 1847, when it was lowered to 4½ per cent., though in November it had to be raised again to 6 per cent.

This, however, was the highest rate charged, and during the crisis all sorts of facilities were granted to the public, as usual, still more so than in ordinary times. The same thing happened once more in 1857. The discount was raised before the crisis commenced, and during that year the highest rates were 7 per cent. for bills of exchange and 7½ per cent. for promissory notes. In fact, as long as the Bank has existed, 7½ per cent. has been the highest rate of discount.

We give these details merely to account for the strong feeling which exists in Holland in favor of maintaining the monopoly, not as an argument to prove that this feeling is right.

As to the operations of the Bank, they are very simple:

1st. The Bank keeps the deposits of the Government. These are nearly all the deposits it receives, for it is not the custom in Holland to keep an account with a bank. Everybody keeps his money in his own safe. This is explained by the circumstance that the Bank allows no interest whatever on deposits, and would probably charge a commission for collecting bills, &c.

2nd. The Bank discounts bills and promissory notes. For the latter, ½ per cent. per annum is charged extra, as a rule.

3rd. The Bank advances money on securities, either of stock or merchandise. For the former the minimum, for the latter the maximum, rate is usually charged.

The first of January, 1865, the account of the Bank stood thus:

LIABILITIES.		ASSETS.	
Capital	£1,333,333	Bills discounted	£4,066,956
Reserve	200,000	Loans on merchandise and stock	2,623,989
Circulation	8,173,113	Bullion	6,307,406
Deposits	3,255,495	Sundry accounts	44,195
Sundry accounts	259,218	Invested reserve	178,613
	£13,221,159		£13,221,159

The legal proportion between the bullion and the cash liabilities of the Bank is not regulated by Act of Parliament. It is fixed by a Royal ordinance and may be changed any moment, if necessary. It is at present 2 to 5. According to this the Bank might issue now about £12,500,000. Having issued only £8,166,666, the present stock of notes is about £4,333,333, which is called rather a low figure, as in April it amounted to £6,375,000. Still it is a great deal better than two or three months ago, when it fell to £3,333,333. The rate of discount was then raised to 7 per cent. It has since been lowered to 6 per cent. for bills of exchange and 6½ per cent. for promissory notes.

As stated before, the Bank has no branches anywhere. By the law of December, 1863, however, it is bound to have one in Rotterdam (which was to be opened on the 1st of January, 1865), and to establish agencies in all the principal places in the country. This measure has been taken in order to avoid the blame that the Bank only serves for Amsterdam, and does nothing for the provinces.

COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW.

STRINGENCY IN MONEY MARKET AND THE CAUSES—RECEIPTS OF THE TREASURY DURING DECEMBER—INTERNAL REVENUE—MEANS AT THE DISPOSAL OF THE TREASURER—THE TEN-FORTY LOAN—ABILITY OF GOVERNMENT TO PAY INTEREST IN GOLD—THE TARIFF MUST BE MODIFIED—CUSTOMS, TAXES, REVENUE AND LOANS THE PAST YEAR—INTEREST TO JULY AND CERTAIN RECEIPTS—THE TARIFF PROHIBITORY—FAILURES THE PAST YEAR—GOLD MARKET—EXPORTS OF PRODUCE, AND THE EFFECT OF TAXES AND PAPER PRICES—IMPORTS AND EXPORTS FOR NINE MONTHS.

THERE has been a continued stringency in the money market during the past month, mostly due to the necessities of the Treasury Department, which, with large arrears outstanding, due to the public creditors, has been a large borrower upon gold stocks, thus absorbing a considerable amount of capital at a time when there is a demand for capital to put into new National Banks, and when the State Banks, which are mostly making preparations to merge into the National system, are more chary of loans. The close of the year, bringing with it a settlement of general accounts, also conduces to greater stringency. These leading, with many minor causes, have sufficed to maintain the price for money fully up to the legal rate. It is very apparent that while the Government continues to be a borrower of capital at the rate of $2,500,000 per day, for non-productive purposes, that the rate of interest must continue to increase, unless temporarily checked by the dilution of the currency through greater issues of legal-tender and National Bank notes. This process enables the Government to get a greater amount of money, on seemingly easier terms, but it gets less capital, or purchasing power, for the same ultimate payment. It, in fact, pays more for capital, by engaging to pay gold for paper borrowed. The operations of the Treasury, for the month of December, were as follows:

Received from five-twenty bonds	$25,000,000 00
Received from temporary loan	2,836,533 27
Received from ten-forty bonds	33,042,250 00
Received from seven-thirties	16,581,550 00
Received from internal revenue	20,249,983 10
Received from hospital money, etc.	22,000 00
Received from fractional currency issued	108,902 45
Total Receipts, December	$97,841,218 82

Thus the sales of gold interest stock formed a large item in the amount obtained, and the 7.30 bonds, although not immediately bearing interest in gold, are convertible after three years into gold-bearing stock. The receipts from the internal revenue were at the rate of $240,000,000 per annum, but this amount included a considerable part of the extra 5 per cent tax on the income of 1863. The negotiation of the 5 per cent 10-40 bonds was kept open until the 7th of January, up to which time $80,000,000 additional had been negotiated, leaving about $40,000,000 of the authorized amount ($200,000,000) unsold. There also remains about $140,000,000 of the gold stock authorized by the act of June, 1864, unsold. This, with a sum of $60,000,000, still unissued, of the 7.30 paper

loan, constitute all the means at the disposal of the Treasury, with the exception of the one year certificates, to which there is no limit. In the early part of December, the National Banks and Treasury agents took about $40,000,000 of the 10-40 5 per cent stock. It was then urged upon the Secretary to stop the sale by the Treasury until the public had absorbed that amount. This he hesitated about doing until the close of the month, when the following notice appeared:

"TREASURY DEPARTMENT, December 23, 1864.

"Notice is hereby given that the ten-forty loan will be withdrawn on the 7th day of January next. No subscriptions, therefore, will be received after that date.

"W. P. FESSENDEN, Secretary of the Treasury."

The stringency of the money market, no doubt, prevented the rapid absorption of the stock, and the time for the payment by instalments was extended to facilitate the operation. To hold these stocks required a good deal of capital, and some of the National Banks adopted the plan of lending on the stock. It is apparent that the working capital of the country is finding its way out of productive employments by realization of effects in paper, and a reinvestment in the Government gold stocks. It is very apparent, however, that the ability to pay those stocks in gold is approaching a limit, unless some change is made. The dependence of the Treasury for gold, to meet the interest, is upon the gold derived from customs. The amount which may be so derived, it is evident, is the limit of the amount of interest which can be paid, unless the Government comes into the market as a purchaser. Under these circumstances, the clear necessity exists to make the revenue the sole object in levying duties. This, unfortunately, has not been the case. On the contrary, the tax seems to have been imposed far more with a view to protection of home manufacturers than to benefit the National Treasury. The result has been that while the amount of interest due on the debt has been increasing, the revenue from customs has been decreasing, mostly for the reason that the rates being doubled last May, at a time when the price of gold began to rise, they became prohibitory in their character.

The report of the Assistant Treasurer for this port for the past year gives the following leading heads of revenue:

	Loans.	Internal Revenue.	Customs.
January	$37,463,896	$2,275,409	$6,179,605
February	15,696,350	1,438,578	7,483,511
March	7,878,037	1,452,522	7,670,092
April	6,947,933	1,764,305	14,658,573
May	5,184,612	1,179,966	3,908,058
June	60,582,650	865,851	3,348,010
July	8,243,736	972,734	3,641,382
August	6,091,422	1,022,969	6,272,002
September	8,292,261	1,220,966	4,113,210
October	14,465,967	774,144	3,697,335
November	10,300,614	738,552	3,487,561
December	28,598,253	924,461	3,467,369
Total	$209,655,531	$14,625,397	*$67,926,708

* These returns of the customs receipts do not agree with the later returns which we give in our review of the Trade and Commerce of New York.

The column of customs is the most important. It will be remembered that last year the imports were considerable, and the entries were large, under threats of higher duties; and when the law passed for the duties to be doubled in May, the quantities taken out of bond were very large, making receipts of $35,991,781 from January 1 to May 1. Those duties represent a very large amount of goods taken out of bond and put upon the market at lower rates of duties; and these goods have been supplying the market ever since. The amount of duties in the last eight months has been only $31,035,927, or about 90 per cent of the revenue of the first four months.

The duties of the last eight months being at much higher rates, represent a much smaller amount of goods. The supplies have been less to meet the demand, and the quantities now in bond are inconsiderable. The imports at the same time will be small, and it is not probable that more than one-third as much gold will be taken for customs this year as last, up to May. The amount of gold now in the Treasury is small. The interest payable between this and July is as follows:

	Amount.	Interest.
March 1, 10-40s	$200,000,000	$5,000,000
May 1, 5-20s	575,838,500	17,275,655
July 1, 5-20s	335,232,290	10,000,000
Total	$1,111,170,792	$32,275,655

Thus, between now and July as much must be paid for interest as has been collected in duties during the past eight months.

The receipts of gold at this port in six months, from January to July, and from July to January, as compared with the rest of the Union, are as follows:

	New York.	Other Ports.	Total.
January to July	$43,147,849	$10,978,620	$54,126,469
July to January	24,778,859	6,120,210	30,899,069
Total	$67,926,708	$17,098,830	$85,025,538

Thus, in the last six months, the receipts for the whole Union are less than the interest that accrued in that time. The balance of gold left over from the large revenue of last Spring was in great part thrown away by Mr. CHASE in the mad policy of putting down the price of gold.

The interest on the public debt has increased as follows:

May to November, 1864	$28,110,000
November to May, 1865	33,000,000

This comprises only the amount of debt payable at this time, and does not include the issue of the remaining amounts authorized, nor the conversion of outstanding paper bonds into gold stocks. To maintain the amount of revenue it is apparently necessary to reduce the rate of taxation in order that the present prohibitory operation of the duties may be modified, and so permit of greater receipts. The effect of the duty upon the cost of goods is greatly exaggerated by the depreciation of the currency. Thus a certain description of woolens pay sixty per cent tax in gold, and the same article of home manufacture pays five per cent in paper. The effect is as follows:

Premium cost		$1.00
Premium on exchange	127	
Gold duty	60	
Gold duty premium	76	
Total tax		2.63
Cost imported goods		$3.63

The tax on the home made article of the same description is only five cents per dollar. As soon, therefore, as the duty becomes prohibitory the Treasury loses 60 cents gold due to the public creditors, and gets only five cents in paper. The national credit demands the prompt revision of this system, under which business of all kinds is languishing, and the substitution of one which will give the greatest amount of revenue with the least obstruction to commerce.

The prices of the leading Government stocks are as follows:

PRICES UNITED STATES PAPER.

	6's, 1881. Reg.	6's, 1881. Coup.	5's, 1874.	6 per ct., 5-20's.	5 per ct. 10-40's.	6 per ct. 1 year certif.	Gold. price.
Dec. 31,....	111¼	110½	100	108¼	101⅝	96⅝	229½ a 229¾
Jan. 7,....	111¼	111½	100	109	102	96⅝	227 a 227½
" 14,....	112⅛	112⅛	102	110	102⅝	98	217⅝ a 221
" 21,....	111	110	99	108⅝	101½	97½	197½ a 206
" 28,....	110½	109½	98⅝	108⅛	100⅞	98	113⅝ a 220

The last quotation in London, January 14, for the 5-20's was 45⅜ a 45⅝. The highest quotation during the month was 46. In addition to other causes for diminished business activity, or rather non-revival of the usual spring trade, has been the conviction that Mr. FESSENDEN would return to the Senate. What policy a new Secretary might pursue it is impossible to surmise, since the administration has no decided policy. The conduct of the department hitherto has been one of daily shifts and expedients. Frequently at variance with well settled principles of economical science, and therefore entirely outside the calculations of the most sagacious.

The effect of the unstable paper currency in checking the credit system, and forcing cash transactions upon the business community, is very apparent in the returns made of the number of failures, and the amount of their liabilities, in the past few years, as follows:

	Number.	Liabilities.		Number.	Liabilities.
1857.....	4,257	$265,818,000	1861.....	5,935	$178,632,170
1858.....	3,113	73,608,747	1862.....	1,652	23,049,300
1859.....	2,059	51,314,000	1863.....	495	7,899,000
1860.....	2,733	61,730,477	1864.....	510	3,579,700

The year 1857 was the panic year, and in 1861 the war, by cutting off resources, caused a considerable amount of distress, but the curtailment of credits has since given a very effectual check to that class of mercantile evils. The gold market during the month has been very unsettled. The taking of Savannah caused a temporary fall in the price from 236 to 211½, but the rate at once recovered under the demand for export and the purchases of those who had operated for a fall. Since then the success at Fort Fisher and the various peace rumors which have been current, have caused continued fluctuations.

The exports of general merchandise from the port are on a very limited scale as compared with former years. The exports of breadstuffs to Great Britain and the Continent this year since September 1, are as follows:

	Flour.	Wheat.	Corn.
1861	1,282,535	16,710,383	4,985,430
1862	394,928	12,399,804	8,273,813
1863	402,650	4,937,984	239,459
1864	54,995	1,228,333	56,938

In this return we have the exact figures to indicate the ratio of decline in our foreign trade. The value of these exports for the four months embraced in the figures, according to the Liverpool price in gold, is as follows:

1861	$42,500,000	1863	$8,909,042
1862	27,842,090	1864	1,850,819

Thus the trade is nearly extinguished. This is due, no doubt, as well to the good harvests of England and Western Europe as to the deranged state of our currency here. The latter cause will, however, continue to act with ever increasing force, because the cost of producing wheat here is enhanced by the higher prices of all the farmer consumes. For instance, it adds to the cost of labor, the cost of transportation, the amount of commissions and interest, and above all, to the taxes, local, State, and federal. These are all no doubt paid in paper, but they enhance the cost upon the exported wheat in proportion to the price of gold. Breadstuffs are not articles of monopoly, like cotton, for which the American article commands the markets of the world; but is one in which the sharpest competition exists, and that of the United States having further to go at greater cost of transportation, maintains its footing only with difficulty while it is not subjected to taxation.

The following table shows the quarters of wheat imported into Great Britain for the past nine months of 1864, with the value in pounds sterling. Wheat is now entered in Great Britain by the hundredweight, instead of measure. The quantity bought of the United States, including California, was about 40 per cent of the whole purchase, at prices rather less than those paid other countries. Thus the cost of Prussian wheat was 10s. 4d. per cwt., while that of the United States was 9s. 4d.:

Wheat—From	Quantity, cwt.	Value.
Russia	2,825,463	£1,214,911
Prussia	3,616,145	1,896,528
Denmark	853,056	378,223
Mecklenburg	466,392	235,635
Hanse Towns	465,647	208,451
France	481,073	233,499
Turkey and Wallachia	377,646	162,632
Egypt	366,860	153,324
United States	7,100,042	3,342,849
British North America	824,806	365,547
Other countries	346,203	159,223
Total	17,723,333	£8,335,552

It follows that if the United States wheat is to go loaded with taxes and extra

expenses; that of other countries will have the entire market, and that the untaxed crops of Canada will successfully compete with those of the United States.

This reduction in the quantities exported, as a matter of course, reduces the supply of bills, and those who are required to remit for sugar and other merchandise avail themselves of a fall in gold to make those remittances, and the fall is thereby checked. On the other hand, much of the gold paid out by the Government is sold, and the Banks also, which are making arrangements to convert their business from State to federal authority, are also selling gold. Dealing in gold, both buying and selling, has become a very important institution in this country. The amount collected by the Federal Government last year through the purchase of importers was $102,316,152, or very nearly $2,000,000 per week. One-half of that amount was paid out for interest, and found its way again to the brokers, and the other half was sold by the Treasury in the open market. Thus the Government operation, in collecting, paying, and selling, amounts to $200,000,000 per annum, at the same time the importers bought in addition $50,000,000 to remit in payment of goods, and about $12,000,000 arrived from California. It is evident from these facts that gold dealing is a leading business, and employs a great number of brokers. It was, however, of a troublesome and hazardous nature, since the gold in bags had to be passed from hand to hand, at more or less risk. For this reason it was determined to make a common depository at the Bank of New York of the gold held, and to transfer it from hand to hand by orders. The amount of gold so deposited was in the first week of January about $1,200,000. There was beside a good deal of gold deposited with other Banks by customers for safe keeping, and in some cases did not enter into the returns of the Banks. The gold movement was comparatively as follows:

Specie in banks and Sub-Treasury December 1	$28,961,268
Received from California in December	2,205,619
Imported from foreign ports in December	114,976
Gathered in from hoards in December	4,876,964
Supply	$36,158,827
Exported in December	6,104,377
Leaves in banks and Sub-Treasury, January 1, 1865	$30,054,450

The demand for gold for the payment of goods has been less because of the diminished imports. It will be borne in mind, however, that a large amount of goods was taken out of bond in April last to avoid the double duties imposed in May. Those goods have gradually found their way to the shelves of jobbers and retailers, and have been remitted for by the importers. There has also been more demand for remittance, in consequence of the purchases by the Bank of France during the recent stringency strain. The imports and exports of gold and silver to and from Great Britain during the first ten months of 1862, 1863, and 1864, compare as follows:

IMPORTS.

	1862.	1863.	1864.
Gold	£16,164,465	£16,272,909	£13,847,154
Silver	8,616,611	8,481,084	9,515,538
Specie imports	£24,781,076	£24,753,993	£23,362,690

	EXPORTS.		
Gold	£12,208,069	£12,399,087	£10,438,671
Silver	9,782,415	8,941,354	8,676,842
Specie imports	£21,990,434	£21,340,431	£19,115,514
Imports exceed exports	2,790,592	3,413,562	4,247,176

The production of gold in California has been in the past year scant on account of the great drouth which has prevailed there. That has now passed away, and copious rains give promise of the greatest abundance.

The Custom-House has at last succeeded in bringing up its statement of imports and exports to the conclusion of September. The following are the imports at New York from foreign ports, for July, August, and September, 1864:

	July.	August.	September.
Entered for consumption	$6,382,923	$6,608,653	$4,390,114
Entered for warehouse	14,954,636	10,487,478	5,258,568
Free goods	917,684	936,474	832,557
Specie and bullion	128,052	245,258	58,220
Total entered at port	$22,383,299	$18,228,463	$10,539,459
Withdrawn from warehouse	3,386,873	7,967,843	6,852,329

The following comparison shows the imports of foreign merchandise at this port for the first nine months of the last four years:

	1861.	1862.	1863.	1864.
January	$26,827,411	$12,020,829	$15,739,576	$18,977,394
February	16,341,707	13,872,140	12,027,846	21,643,937
March	18,204,351	18,719,866	18,930,895	23,667,119
April	14,886,393	13,252,822	17,385,315	26,168,631
May	14,949,281	14,248,521	14,324,923	23,975,144
June	12,649,733	12,336,195	12,597,516	20,926,314
July	14,938,851	20,353,202	16,003,617	22,383,299
August	8,885,928	14,304,843	15,038,129	18,223,463
September	7,305,461	18,147,917	15,499,940	10,539,459
Total	$134,989,116	$137,856,395	$137,547,817	$189,504,760
Cus. revenue same period	15,856,132	42,276,882	42,823,075	56,870,920

It is to be remembered that the imports are represented in gold figures; while the exports are entered in currency figures. The following are the exports from New York for the months of July, August, and September, 1864:

	July.	August.	September.
Domestic produce	$26,251,673	$26,817,850	$16,595,548
Foreign free	249,404	126,537	848,742
Foreign dutiable	5,137,460	2,231,782	2,460,138
Specie and bullion	1,947,329	1,001,813	2,835,398
Total exports	$33,585,866	$29,977,982	$21,739,826
Total export of specie	31,638,537	28,976,169	18,904,428

The following will show the exports, quarterly, exclusive of specie, for the first nine months of each of the last four years:

	1861.	1862.	1863.	1864.
First quarter	$33,477,742	$32,075,568	$50,615,908	$41,429,756
Second quarter	33,123,489	29,798,344	41,046,726	48,446,634
Third quarter	30,175,918	45,313,299	38,825,587	79,519,134
Nine months	$96,777,149	$107,187,211	$130,487,221	$169,395,576

The re-exports of foreign goods for the nine months of 1864, included in the above total, amount to $1,582,348 of free, and $13,961,235 of dutiable, making a total of $15,543.583 reshipped to a foreign market, three times the quantity reshipped for the same period of the previous years.

The following comparison gives the total imports and exports for the first nine months of the last four years:

Nine months of	Total imports.	Total exports.
1861	$134,989,116	$99,956,968
1862	137,856,395	150,030,850
1863	137,647,817	163,333,715
1864	189,504,760	204,332,237

TRADE AND COMMERCE OF THE PORT OF NEW-YORK.

RECEIPTS AND EXPORTS OF DOMESTIC PRODUCE—EXPORTS OF DOMESTIC COTTONS—REVIEW OF PETROLEUM TRADE—WHOLESALE PRICES AT NEW-YORK FOR SIX YEARS—IMPORTS OF MERCHANDISE OTHER THAN DRY GOODS—IMPORTS OF DRY GOODS—RECEIPTS OF CUSTOMS.

We have prepared the following review of the Trade and Commerce of New-York, for 1864, giving also, for comparison, the figures for previous years:

MOVEMENTS OF DOMESTIC PRODUCE.

The table we give below, showing the receipts of domestic produce, exhibits the same features as last year—a falling off in most cereals, oats in fact being about the only exception. In 1863 the arrivals of oats doubled in quantity, and again, this year, there is a further increase of nearly two million bushels, while the receipts of Indian corn have fallen off from 20,725,166 bushels in 1861 to 7,164,895 in 1864. Nor has this been made up in meat provisions, as might have been, and was by many, expected.

The table of exports, which will be studied with even greater interest, shows still less encouraging results. Our wheat and corn exports, in 1861, compare as follows with 1864:

	1861.	1864.
Wheat, bush., exported	28,889,914	12,193,433
" flour, bbls. "	3,110,646	1,918,593
Corn, bush. "	12,456,265	846,831

To the table of exports, however, should be added Petroleum, of which 34,792,972 gallons have been shipped from the United States, the past year, against 28,250,721 gallons in 1863, as will appear from the review of the trade given in another part of this article. The following are the receipts and exports of domestic produce referred to above:

RECEIPTS OF CERTAIN ARTICLES OF DOMESTIC PRODUCE AT THE PORT OF NEW YORK FOR FOUR YEARS.

	1861.	1862.	1863.	1864.
Ashes.....bbls.	19,983	19,287	17,181	15,778
Breadstuffs—				
Wheat flour.....	4,968,971	5,384,872	4,574,059	3,967,717

	1861.	1862.	1863.	1864.
Corn meal	98,519	251,319	252,729	267,759
Wheat ..... bush.	28,429,135	29,280,629	17,937,856	13,453,135
Rye	775,665	957,729	439,567	491,915
Oats	4,852,009	5,435,016	11,076,035	12,952,283
Barley	1,854,301	1,865,615	2,143,485	2,544,891
Peas	310,398	211,140	267,490	231,562
Corn	20,725,166	18,548,799	14,243,599	7,164,895
Cotton ..... bales	243,122	103,585	129,611	190,911
Naval stores—				
Crude Turpentine ..... bbls.	32,254	3,404	3,547	6,760
Spirits turpentine	46,097	8,950	4,663	4,139
Rosin	198,772	38,978	11,187	19,128
Tar	49,506	7,345	11,795	6,964
Pitch	2,867	2,938	1,087	3,000
Provisions—				
Pork ..... pkgs.	138,770	377,819	426,981	332,454
Beef	119,028	276,346	206,519	209,664
Cut meats	105,835	329,265	463,995	268,417
Butter	539,284	668,842	518,587	551,159
Cheese	988,718	853,655	798,070	756,872
Lard ..... tcs. and bbls.	126,942	397,431	400,928	186,000
Lard ..... kegs.	60,305	89,838	41 144	16,104
Whisky ..... bbls.	311,019	364,791	261,814	289,481

EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS OF CERTAIN LEADING ARTICLES OF DOMESTIC PRODUCE FOR FOUR YEARS.

	1861.	1862.	1863.	1864.
Ashes—pots ..... bbls.	13,608	9,503	9,146	8,847
Ashes—pearls	3,507	1,580	1,264	1,593
Beeswax ..... lbs.	238,553	122,349	170,230	465,667
Breadstuffs—				
Wheat flour ..... bbls.	3,110,646	2,961,518	2,527,338	1,918,593
Rye flour	11,807	8,397	5,461	2,840
Corn meal	108,385	132,606	140,561	105,142
Wheat ..... bush.	28,389,914	25,564,755	15,424,889	12,193,433
Rye	1,000,405	1,104,549	416,369	538
Oats	160,825	210,669	126,556	42,135
Barley	3,927	42,061	52,489	150
Peas	139,284	113,819	110,911	186,154
Corn	12,456,265	12,020,848	7,533,431	846,831
Candles ..... bxs.	93,315	138,595	125,587	121,742
Coal ..... tons	36,536	80,884	53,713	53,417
Cotton ..... bales	152,552	24,400	13,945	26,765
Hay	15,776	48,674	19,936	40,325
Hops	28,377	33,409	25,409	22,077
Naval Stores—				
Crude turpentine ..... bbls.	21,571	17	22	770
Spirits turpentine	18,825	788	884	433
Rosin	208,061	18,200	4,172	2,207
Tar	26,646	4,601	8,184	1,771
Pitch	3,030	906	1,634	2,955
Oils—whale ..... galls.	1,196,468	1,554,359	269,634	421,931
Oils—sperm	1,080,328	756,173	510,648	1,366,159
Oils—lard	110,401	710,885	803,469	129,529
Oils—linseed	35,626	35,640	17,344	79,244
Provisions—				
Pork ..... bbls.	116,654	171,302	192 903	130,679
Beef	29,013	32,977	41,632	36,548
Beef ..... tcs.	33,924	27.765	62,868	49,299
Cut meats ..... lbs.	50,565,732	145,102,758	183,519,060	93,800,258

	1861.	1862.	1863.	1864.
Butter	23,159,391	30,603,235	23,060,799	14,174,861
Cheese	40,041,225	39,200,439	40,781,168	49,755,842
Lard	47,290,409	126,651,091	120,881,862	53,436,128
Rice...tcs.	15,867	701	182	4
Rice...bbls.	15,527	12,143	12,044	20,673
Tallow...lbs.	25,820,335	43,866,920	43,487,731	31,987,976
Tobacco—crude...pkgs.	116,598	113,575	107,439	161,404
Tobacco—manufactured...lbs.	3,152,484	1,598,044	3,542,210	5,250,014
Whalebone	975,075	1,191,907	259,185	509,646

EXPORTS OF DOMESTIC COTTON.

The following table giving the exports of domestic cottons for the year, with the destination of the various shipments, will be found very useful. At the close we have added the total clearances from Boston to foreign ports during the same period. It will be seen that the exports for the last year have been very small. This of course must continue so long as prices are so high. More than two-thirds of the shipments for the year have gone to Mexico:

EXPORTS OF DOMESTIC COTTONS FROM THE PORT OF NEW YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS.

	1859.	1860.	1861.	1862.	1863.	1864.
Mexico...pkgs.	2,475	4,873	2,766	2,427	1,886	849
Dutch West Indies	531	664	569	84	9	2
Swedish West Indies	..	47	38	..	..	..
Danish West Indies	696	952	522	316	29	1
British West Indies	227	497	537	165	149	24
Spanish West Indies	366	193	374	140	66	86
St. Domingo	977	2,196	1,257	484	63	12
British North America	78	10	60	23	16	..
New Granada	967	1,381	2,005	609	350	83
Brazil	3,637	8,103	5,400	953	86	4
Venezuela	919	1,328	1,421	141	32	9
Argentine Republic	903	1,111	480	145	13	2
Cisplatine Republic	..	..	..	..	19	8
Central America	55	53	23	1	1	6
West Coast South America	6,806	13,294	5,299	1	..	2
Honduras	259	389	245	12	5	4
Africa	323	1,406	876	49	11	24
Australia	135	323	180	3	..	..
East Indies and China	53,663	47,785	31,911	137	5	7
All others	1,793	1,792	1,823	47	30	8
Total	74,549	86,318	55,736	5,977	2,776	1,132
" from Boston	32,661	33,588	18,146	4,238	422	264

PETROLEUM.

Notwithstanding the Petroleum interest has apparently attracted a very large amount of capital during the past year, still the quantity produced has not increased. For instance the total amount taken for consumption at New York, and exported from New York, Boston, &c., during 1863 and 1864, was as follows:

	1863.	1864.
Exported from New York...bbls.	488,690	533,394
Taken for consumption in New York	314,481	242,187
Total—New York	803,171	775,567

Boston—exported	51,235	42,307
Philadelphia "	134,593	194,003
Baltimore "	22,896	23,249
Portland "	8,552	1,769
Total	1,026,747	1,036,915

We thus see no material change. There are several reasons for this. In the first place it should be remembered that the increase of capital, the past year, actually employed in producing Petroleum, is not so great as at first sight might be supposed. Very many companies, to be sure, have been formed, and of large nominal capital, but very few of them have their stock all taken up, and much of the money that has been paid in, has been given to those organizing the companies for the land they have purchased, while another large portion of it is paid out in commissions. But, besides this, very little of the land upon which the new companies are based has, as yet, been developed. It requires time to accomplish much in that way. The coming year, however, must show the effect of these new investments. Thus far, production has not kept pace with the growing demand, and prices, therefore, have ruled high.

The following table, from the *Shipping List*, shows the exports of Petroleum during the past three years:

EXPORT OF CRUDE AND REFINED (INCLUDING NAPTHA, ETC.), FROM NEW YORK, FOR THE YEARS 1864, 1863 AND 1862.

	1864. Gallons.	1863. Gallons.	1862. Gallons.
To Liverpool	734,755	2,156,851	1,781,377
London	1,430,710	2,576,331	1,133,399
Glasgow, &c.	368,402	414,943	24,181
Bristol	29,124	71,912	—
Falmouth, E.	316,402	626,176	—
Grangemouth, E.	—	425,334	—
Cork, &c.	3,310,362	1,532,257	299,356
Bowling, E.	87,164	—	195
Havre	2,324,017	1,774,890	791,221
Marseilles	1,982,075	1,167,893	135,765
Cettee	4,800	—	200
Dunkirk	232,803	—	2,700
Dieppe	79,581	46,000	61,693
Rouen	—	143,646	—
Antwerp	4,149,821	2,692,974	823,090
Bremen	971,905	903,004	452,522
Amsterdam	77,041	436	—
Hamburg	1,186,080	1,486,155	229,384
Rotterdam	532,926	757,249	16,938
Gottenburg	33,813	—	81,960
Cronstadt	400,376	88,060	—
Cadiz and Malaga	58,474	33,284	—
Tarragona and Alicante	16,823	33,000	—
Barcelona	25,500	—	—
Gibraltar	89,181	308,450	157
Oporto	17,474	2,239	—
Palermo	7,983	57,115	3,990
Genoa and Leghorn	679,603	399,674	21,000
Trieste	165,175	3,000	—
Alexandria, Egypt	4,000	—	—
Lisbon	167,195	64,662	—

	1864. Gallons.	1863. Gallons.	1862. Gallons.
Canary Islands	3,368	5,125	1,295
Madeira	——	490	480
Bilboa	2,500	——	——
China and East Indies	34,338	36,942	3,970
Africa	25,195	12,230	655
Australia	377,384	304,165	233,622
Otago, N. Z.	10,810	5,500	7,850
Sydney, N. S. W.	97,880	48,013	113,750
Brazil	149,676	160,152	54,967
Mexico	112,986	69,481	18,616
Cuba	418,034	356,436	213,680
Argentine Republic	20,260	24,470	7,390
Cisplatine Republic	78,552	117,626	18,217
Chile	92,550	66,550	17,898
Peru	169,061	256,407	56,011
British Honduras	6,072	440	——
British Guiana	7,881	15,104	9,396
British West Indies	70,976	60,931	18,888
British North America Colonies	28,902	16,995	2,943
Danish West Indies	8,468	31,503	4,102
Dutch West Indies	26,638	12,148	7,117
French West Indies	16,020	9,104	2,882
Hayti	7,088	12,064	4,856
Central America	993	456	1,764
Venezuela	28,583	15,455	1,094
New Grenada	57,490	107,837	37,058
Porto Rico	20,026	59,439	25,244
Total	21,335,784	19,547,604	6,720,213

TOTAL EXPORT IN 1864, 1863 AND 1862.

	1864.	1863.	1862.
From New York,.....gallons	21,335,784	19,547,604	6,720,278
From Boston	1,696,307	2,049,431	1,071,100
From Philadelphia	7,760,148	5,395,738	2,800,972
From Baltimore	929,971	915,566	174,330
From Portland	70,762	342,082	120,250
Total export from the United States..	31,792,972	28,250,721	10,887,701

There was also exported, from Cleveland direct to Liverpool, 80,000 gallons refined.

WHOLESALE PRICES OF FOREIGN AND DOMESTIC PRODUCE AT NEW YORK.

We also present our annual comparative statement of the wholesale prices at this port of the leading articles of foreign and domestic produce. There are few, even of those who are engaged in the trade, who can remember the changes in price from year to year, and this table will, therefore, be found very useful for reference.

We give the prices, January 3d, of each of the last six years:

	1860.	1861.	1862.	1863.	1864.	1865.
Ashes, pots.....100 lbs.	$5 12½	$5 00	$6 25	$8 50	$8 50	$11 75
Pearls	5 37½	5 00	6 25	8 25	9 75	13 00
Breadstuffs—						
Wheat flour, State ...bbl.	4 80	5 35	5 50	6 05	7 00	10 00
Wheat, best extra Genesee	7 50	7 50	7 50	8 75	11 00	12 00

	1860.	1861.	1862.	1863.	1864.	1865.
Rye flour, "	4 00	4 00	3 87½	5 45	6 65	9 00
Corn meal, Jersey.....	3 90	3 15	3 00	4 00	5 65	8 80
Wheat, white Gen...bush	1 50	1 45	1 50	1 60	1 80	2 60
White Michigan	1 50	1 45	1 50	1 53	1 83	2 70
White Ohio	1 45	1 45	1 48	1 53	1 83	2 60
White Southern.....	1 45	1 45	1 52	....	....	2 75
Red Western.....	1 30	1 38	1 42	1 48	1 57	2 45
Chicago Spring.....	....	1 18	1 30	1 33	1 48	2 22
Rye, Northern.....bush.	92	75	83	96	1 30	1 75
Oats, State.....	46½	37	42	71	93	1 06
Corn, old Western.....	90	72	64	82	1 30	1 90
Corn, new Southern.....	80	72½	68	86	....	....
Cotton, mid. upland .....lb.	11	12½	35½	68½	82	1 20
Mid. New Orleans.....	11⅝	12⅝	36	66	..	1 21
Fish, dry cod .....qtl.	4 50	3 50	3 50	4 50	6 75	9 00
Fruit, bunch raisins.....box	2 52	1 75	3 20	3 50	4 00	5 85
Currants... ....lb.	6	4½	9	13 a 13½	15	21
Hay, shipping .....100 lbs.	1 00	90	77½	85	1 45	1 55
Hops .....lb.	16	25	20	23	33	40
Iron, Scotch pig.....ton	24 50	21 00	23 00	33 50	45 00	63 00
English bars	53 00	52 00	57 00	77 50	90 00	190 00
Laths... .....per M.	2 00	1 30	1 25	1 45	1 50	2 40
Lead, Spanish .....ton	5 65	5 25	7 00	8 00	10 50	15 00
Galena.....	5 77½	5 50	7 12½	8 00	10 50	16 00
Leather, hemlock, sole...lb.	30	10½	20½	27	30	42
Oak.....	30	27	28	33	42	52
Lime, com. Rockland....bbl.	75	75	65	85	1 35	1 15
Liquors, brandy, cognac..gal.	3 26	2 00	4 00	5 25	..	....
Domestic whisky.....	26	19⅝	20½	39	94	2 24
Molasses, New Orleans..gal.	53	37	53	55	70	1 43
Naval stores, crude turp.bbl.	3 43½	2 75	10 00	..	..	....
Spirits turpentine ....gal.	44½	35	1 47½	2 60	2 95	2 10
Common rosin, N. C...bbl.	1 65	1 25	6 00	10 50	30 00	28 00
Oils, crude, whale .....gal.	52	51	48	83	1 10	1 48
Crude, sperm.....	1 40	1 40	1 40	1 75	1 60	2 13
Linseed.....	57	50	86	1 27	1 47	1 50
Provisions—						
Pork, old mess .....bbl.	16 37½	16 00	12 00	14 50	19 50	43 00
Pork, old prime	11 75	10 50	8 50	12 50	14 50	36 25
Beef, city mess.....	9 00	6 00	5 50	12 00	14 00	20 50
Beef, repacked Chicago..	9 50	9 00	11 00	13 00	15 00	23 00
Beef hams, extra.....	14 50	14 00	14 50	15 50	18 30	27 00
Hams, pickled.....lb.	9½	8	6	8	11	20
Shoulders, pickled	6½	5½	4⅝	5⅝	8½	18
Lard.....	10½	10⅝	8⅝	10	13	23
Butter, Ohio.....	16	14	15	22	24	45
Butter, State.....	20	18	19	22	29	55
Butter, Orange County...	24	22	22	25	32	63
Cheese	11	10	7	12	15½	20
Rice, good.....100 lbs.	4 20	4 00	7 00	8 75	10 00	13 00
Salt, Liverpool, ground.sack	1 15	65	86	1 25	1 85	2 27
Liverpool, fine, Ashton's..	1 95	1 60	1 70	2 15	2 80	4 75
Seeds, clover.....lb.	8½	8⅝	7½	10⅝	12½	27
Sugar, Cuba, good.....	7⅝	6½	8½	10	12	19
Tallow.....	10½	9⅝	9⅝	10⅝	12	18
Whalebone, polar.....	90	88	76	1 65	1 60	2 25
Wool, common fleece.....	40	30	50	60	75	95

The rise in prices, as compared with last year, extends to every article upon the list, except some productions of the Southern States, and is very strongly

marked with regard to all articles of food. If we make the comparison with the year 1860, there will be found to be a rise of about one hundred and fifty per cent.

IMPORTS OF MERCHANDISE OTHER THAN DRY GOODS.

The following is our usual table showing the quantities and values (invoiced specie values) of foreign imports (other than dry goods and specie) the past year. The figures for 1862 and 1863 may be found in volume 50, page 136 :—

FOREIGN IMPORTS AT NEW YORK FOR 1864.

[The quantity is given in packages when not otherwise specified.]

	Quantity.	Value.		Quantity.	Value.
Alabaster ornaments	459	$6,914	Brimstone	7,946	224,218
Baskets	7,969	116,485	Barytes	110	408
Bags	..	179,422	Castor oil	550	6,690
Boxes	12	22,968	Camphor	4,377	114,818
Bricks	..	4,452	Camomile	..	1,572
Buttons	1,649	415,868	Cantharides	10	5,749
Building stone	3	17,496	Cardamoms	..	3,419
Burr stones	..	17,778	Carmine	12	3,988
Clay	..	51,533	Chalk	22	1,395
Cheese	1,728	59,207	Cream tartar	674	150,487
China, Glass and Earthenware—			Chiccory	5,555	88,746
Bottles	..	24,856	Cochineal	1,480	243,480
China	6,509	348,737	Cubebs	333	19,234
Earthenware	37,341	1,205,478	Cudbear	1,117	91,186
Glass	191,462	382,109	Cutch	711	3,306
Glassware	9,647	181,540	Divi Divi	..	1,533
Glassplate	3,224	425,524	Dye stuffs	..	1,283
Graphite	..	834	Flor sulphur	..	8,011
Cigars	..	788,237	Gentian root	..	1,585
Coal.....tons	245,361	693,268	Gambier	30,906	246,244
Corks	..	230,159	Gum arabic	4,503	223,221
Chronographs	2	837	Gum crude	9,422	198,732
Cotton.....bales	76,085	11,157,449	Gum copaiva	1,369	61,567
Clocks	116	14,107	Gum coroni	4,611	85,413
Cocoa..... bags	8,103	155,966	Gum copal	303	4,782
Coffee..... bags	764,983	14,543,955	Gum gedda	50	1,174
Drugs, &c—			Gum tra'canth	38	522
Acids	2,401	14,107	Glue	4	230
Alkali	563	8,598	Indigo	4,056	706,806
Aloes	72	7,493	Iodine	106	28,684
Alum	382	8,077	Iodine pot	181	22,088
Aluminous cake	90	4,279	Ipecac	162	49,696
Ammonia carb	9	881	Insect powder	..	2,228
Ammonia	847	46,645	Isinglass	..	1,188
Ammonia sal	235	19,697	Jalap	90	12,331
Ammonia sulph	61	5,127	Lac dye	340	15,220
Annatto	2,040	17,755	Leeches	124	6,761
Aniline colors	..	137,238	Licorice root	11,372	48,433
Arrowroot	1,062	12,464	Licorice paste	11,246	363,893
Asphaltum	189	2,976	Madder	4,516	810,066
Argols	1,645	220,386	Magnesia	693	12,037
Assafœtida	..	4,134	Manna	121	8,902
Arsenic	214	2,811	Morphine	..	1,127
Bark, Peruvian	6,288	267,525	Muriate potash	..	1,273
Balsam Tolu	421	3,197	Nutgalls	..	1,542
Bismuth	22	12,578	Nitrate soda	..	298,904
Blue powders	29,271	493,090	Nitrate silver	..	1,823

	Quantity.	Value.
Oils, unspec.....	993	89,798
Oil, cod.....	81	4,275
Oil, cocoanut.....	187	8,716
Oil, ess.....	2,277	170,830
Oil, linseed.....	1,956	161,128
Oil, olive.....	50,069	202,851
Oil palm.....	593	33,923
Oil sperm.....	700	5,740
Opium	557	311,087
Orchilla weed....	97	16,746
Orange peel.....	..	4,827
Paints.....	..	435,763
Paris white	421	1,925
Potash bitch.....	14	2,286
Persian berries ...	..	3,112
Potash chlo.....	518	17,473
Potash hyd.....	76	7,577
Phosphorus	415	20,079
Plumbago.....	..	97,928
Pruss. potash....	51	8,090
Quinine.....	440	65,032
Quicksilver	1,295	134,198
Reg. antimony...	1,162	70,947
Rhubarb.....	142	8,844
Safflower	15	4,632
Safflower ext....	13	3,744
Saltpetre.....	..	122,091
Sarsaparilla.....	1,553	35,929
Scammony.....	4	7,202
Senna.....	25	2,587
Shellac	2,006	87,392
Soda, bicarb.....	68,959	206,823
Soda, sal.....	21,552	109,874
Soda, caustic....	7,176	151,949
Soda, ash.....	26,398	680,056
Soda, hyd. sulph.	..	817
Sponges.....	950	47,468
Sugar of lead....	572	31,640
Sulph. morphia...	..	1,290
Sumac	34,430	151,087
Velonia	..	791
Tonqua beans ...	83	11,070
Ultramarine.....	..	1,776
Vanilla beans....	78	29,485
Verdigris	..	5,320
Vermillion.	530	48,395
Worm seed.....	..	4,041
Yellow ochre....	4,271	14,634
Yellow berries...	..	7,455
Drugs, unspec....	..	217,939
Emery	1,070	15,202
Fancy goods.....	..	1,749,028
Fans.....	..	12,613
Feathers.....	..	284,601
Fire crackers.....	..	41,847
Fish	..	502,472
Flax.....	2,698	115,016
Flour.....	..	5,074
Furs, &c.—		
Felting.....	564	21,308
Hatters' goods...	1	746
Furs	4,966	2,053,780
Fruits—		
Bananas	..	41,963
Citron.....	..	70,911
Currants.....	..	139,772
Dried fruits	..	15,510
Dates	..	3,178
Figs	..	24,462
Lemons.....	..	199,579
Nuts.....	..	637,127
Oranges	..	437,043
Pine-apples	..	61,508
Plums.....	..	60,078
Prunes	..	58,196
Raisins	..	373,244
Sauces and pres.	..	158,417
Grapes.....	..	2,440
Furniture	158	16,736
Grain	..	155,936
Grindstones	..	16,004
Gunny cloth.....	2,342	51,562
Guttapercha	7,089	47,016
Guano.....	920	7,218
Hair.....	2,686	379,598
Hair cloth.....	279	131,517
Hemp.....	113,830	1,533,949
Honey	3,752	127,798
Hops	..	17,443
India rubber.....	27,742	1,196,781
Ivory	148	87,637
Instruments—		
Chemical	25	1,948
Mathematical....	32	9,695
Musical..... ...	1,783	229,224
Nautical.....	6	835
Optical.....	263	95,975
Surgical....	30	7,575
Jewelry, &c.—		
Jewelry	621	726,949
Watches.....	798	1,450,166
Leather, Hides, &c.—		
Boots and shoes..	213	25,506
Bristles..... ...	695	181,812
Hides, dressed...	3,504	1,157,663
Hides, undressed.	..	5,329,337
Horns	..	12,412
Leather, pat.....	65	34,247
Liquors, Wines, &c.—		
Ale	6,976	68,445
Brandy.....	16,202	574,878
Beer	1,752	14,610
Cordials.....	2,212	17,192
Gin.....	7,018	81,315
Porter.....	4,166	35,088
Rum.....	1,260	60,958
Whisky.....	875	58,020
Wine.....	255,001	1,615,365
Champagne	102,744	656,965
Metals, &c.—		
Brass goods.....	277	41,471
Bronze metal....	..	50,764

	Quantity.	Value.
Bronzes	34	9,934
Chains and A	8,428	531,772
Copper	..	689,048
Copper ore	..	355,563
Cutlery	3,025	1,157 424
Gas fixtures	48	4,402
Guns	3,927	219 756
Hardware	4,464	578,094
Iron, hoop, .. tns	4,197	228,464
Iron, pig ....tons	50,050	803,788
Iron, railroad. bars	579,148	3,687,970
Iron, sheet...tons	5,451	383,975
Iron tubes	47 440	148,403
Iron, oth....tons	64,022	3,427,850
Lead, pigs	474,437	2,682,319
Lead ore	..	32,595
Metal goods	4,338	474,116
Nails	2,871	57,919
Needles	347	147,335
Nickel	284	124,168
Old metal	..	392,050
Plated ware	47	14,079
Platina	33	96,554
Percussion caps	302	64,261
Saddlery	172	53,383
Steel	107,946	2,012,197
Spelter .....lbs.	7,422,486	336,540
Silver ware	22	8,097
Tin plates ...bxs.	440,635	2,904,646
Tin slabs, lbs	2,367,441	556,778
Wire	2,634	49,332
Zinc.....lbs.	7,296,435	370,675
Lith. stone	..	3 689
Machinery	2,222	218,886
Lamps	..	2,285
Marble & mfd. do	..	94,269
Matches	67	1,895
Macaroni	11,314	17,346
Molasses	117,286	3,496,790
Oil paintings	466	209,482
Oakum	210	2,455
Onions	..	10,167
Paper hangings	313	30,455
Pearl shells	..	5,342
Perfumery	919	103,756
Personal effects	21	202,602
Plaster	..	20,709
Pitch	60	560
Pipes	..	208.047
Potatoes	..	90,080
Provisions	..	215,289
Rags	27,261	648,054
Rice	..	591,775
Rope	..	42,137
Quarts rock	..	3,750
Rosin	1,767	56,788
Sago	365	2,616
Salt	..	448,199
Shells	..	1,501

	Quantity.	Value.
Seeds unspec'd	..	145,457
Castor seed	13,384	40,817
Linseed	217,959	914,447
Soap	58,856	150,676
Spices—		
Cassia	..	12,254
Cinnamon	..	2,678
Cloves	..	78,170
Ginger	..	53,972
Mustard	..	12,140
Nutmegs	..	78,617
Pepper	..	286,394
Pimento	..	39,090
Stationery, &c.—		
Books	3,040	327,716
Engravings	292	89,309
Paper	3,755	236,790
Other stationery	1,526	181,640
Statuary	..	85,074
Sugar, hhds. bbls & tcs	203,517	12,988,567
Sugar, boxes & bags	279,627	2,950,089
Tar	19,826	106,278
Tapioca	3,209	17,824
Teazles	40	2,240
Trees and plants	..	24,946
Thistles	..	1,377
Tea	604,972	8,172,072
Twine	775	24,842
Toys	8,348	427,246
Tobacco	23,932	625,472
Tomatoes	..	2,826
Turpentine	297	2,431
Turpentine spirits	4,118	294,834
Waste	15,879	586,808
Whalebone	..	61,844
Wax	..	23,159
Woods—		
Box wood	..	1,886
Brazil wood	..	6,406
Camwood	..	240
Cedar	..	211,067
Cork	..	68,148
Ebony	..	5,817
Fustic	1,862	32,332
Lima wood	..	16,635
Lignumvitæ	76	12,836
Logwood	54,829	330,937
Mahogany	..	84,356
Palm leaf	..	79,508
Ratan	..	91,542
Rosewood	..	189,532
Sapan wood	..	2,960
Spruce	..	8,608
Willow	..	26,809
Other woods	..	103,456
Wool, bales	115,724	9,428,409
Other miscellan	..	52,583
Grand total		$133,472,764

We repeat the above values, for 1864, of a few of the leading articles, for

the sake of showing the comparative imports during each of the last four years.

IMPORTS OF A FEW LEADING ARTICLES OF GENERAL MERCHANDISE AT NEW YORK, FROM FOREIGN PORTS, FOR THE YEARS 1861, 1862, 1863, 1864.

	1861.	1862.	1863.	1864.
Books	$346,279	$376,607	$371,430	$327,716
Buttons	88,557	162,452	176,448	415,863
Cheese	56,152	60,155	47,957	59,207
Chinaware	190,511	210,968	263,218	348,737
Cigars	1,064,228	1,012,162	608,403	788,237
Coal	964,527	901,311	808,456	693,268
Coffee	11,865,082	8,517,284	7,796,635	14,543,955
Earthenware	587,574	887,322	1,067,477	1,205,473
Furs	771,889	1,435,518	1,912,166	2,053,780
Glass plate	277,628	176,512	363,459	425,524
India rubber	705,732	992,348	1,407,536	1,196,781
Indigo	1,449,990	2,083,180	713,730	706,806
Leather and dressed skins	943,355	1,278,688	1,087,266	1,157,663
Undressed skins	3,379,271	5,134,345	5,966,395	5,829,337
Liquors—				
Brandy	514,949	477,213	261,234	574,878
Metals—				
Copper	903,966	670,478	574,286	689,048
Iron, bars	1,054,718	1,801,010	2,457,575	3,427,850
Iron, pigs	378,058	203,375	397,916	803,788
Iron, railroad	398,536	500,419	1,484,973	3,687,970
Iron, sheet	127,631	329,461	270,576	383,975
Lead	534,584	3,075,313	1,520,519	2,682,319
Spelter	30,079	135,195	204,710	336,540
Steel	1,125,014	1,602,391	2,063,842	2,012,197
Tin and tin plates	2,334,766	4,174,651	3,975,605	3,461,424
Zinc	64,408	228,832	228,210	370,675
Molasses	1,136,094	1,562,904	1,928,598	3,496,790
Rags	374,075	285,926	1,288,431	648,054
Salt	511,156	550,161	373,725	448,199
Saltpetre	381,870	336,439	392,349	122,091
Sugar	13,847,000	14,727,598	14,534,579	15,938,756
Tea	6,455,408	8,676,245	6,796,102	8,172,072
Watches	576,971	861,710	920,522	1,450,166
Wines	739,080	860,710	1,198,283	2,272,330
Wool and waste	2,380,941	6,860,609	9,035,557	10,015,217

IMPORTS OF DRY GOODS.

We also give below the imports of dry goods the past year. These values are likewise the invoice specie values. To know the cost to the country in our currency it is necessary to add the freight and duty (payable in gold,) and then double the whole:

IMPORTS OF DRY GOODS AT NEW YORK.

Description of goods.	1860.	1861.	1862.	1863.	1864.
Manufactures—					
Wool	$34,975,011	$16,720,931	$25,718,592	$29,703,956	$31,411,965
Cotton	18,415,258	7,192,524	8,501,512	7,913,957	8,405,246
Silk	35,582,035	13,334,411	11,568,807	15,534,469	16,194,080
Flax	8,952,812	3,580,803	7,666,946	10,381,059	11,621,831
Miscellan. dry goods	6,901,984	2,808,520	2,665,370	3,731,106	3,956,630
Total imports.	$103,927,100	$43,636,689	$56,121,227	$67,274,547	$71,589,752

We annex a summary of the imports of dry goods, by months, in each of the last five years :

TOTAL IMPORTS OF DRY GOODS AT NEW YORK.

Months.	1860.	1861.	1862.	1863.	1864.
January.....	$11,770,005	$10,956,857	$2,965,952	$5,269,181	$3,184,814
February.....	13,880,688	6,782,936	5,344,514	5,027,857	9,437,454
March.....	9,022,403	5,536,076	6,471,901	9,204,581	12,635,127
April.....	4,865,743	2,767,645	3,296,498	4,384,007	5,220,245
May.....	5,581,598	2,489,823	2,944,483	3,612,511	6,081,186
June	5,535,042	1,205,882	3,535,102	2,901,423	4,801,703
July.....	12,707,213	1,476,887	5,628,014	4,713,365	6,762,750
August	14,989,044	3,536,333	3,707,710	3,316,878	7,529,800
September ...	6,740,185	2,102,064	6,185,193	5,892,712	4,147,449
October	5,327,907	1,971,541	3,865,798	6,509,783	2,996,100
November	5,797,556	2,506,926	3,710,357	6,071,208	2,235,107
December.....	7,709,721	2,004,219	3,466,405	5,371,041	1,558,567
Total	$103,927,100	$43,636,689	$56,121,227	$67,274,547	$71,589,752

The imports of dry goods for each year since 1849, may be seen by the following table :

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN DRY GOODS AT NEW YORK.

	Invoiced value.		Invoiced value.		Invoiced value.
1849.....	$44,435,575	1855.....	$64,974,062	1861.....	$43,636,689
1850.....	60,106,371	1856.....	93,362,893	1862.....	56,121,227
1851.....	62,846,731	1857.....	96,534,129	1863.....	67,274,547
1852.....	61,654,144	1858.....	60,154,509	1864.....	71,589,752
1853.....	93,704,211	1859.....	113,152,624		
1854.....	80,842,936	1860.....	103,927,100		

RECEIPTS OF CUSTOMS AT NEW YORK.

The revenue at the port for 1864 shows a gain of about eight millions over the corresponding figures for the previous year. The following is a comparative summary :

	1860.	1861.	1862.	1863.	1864.
Jan ...	$3,899,166 17	$2,059,202 33	$3,351,657 22	$4,127,906 82	$6,180,536 09
Feb ...	3,378,043 28	2,528,736 83	3,565,063 83	3,590,713 97	7,474,027 93
March..	3,477,545 74	2,489,026 25	4,626,862 86	4,554,460 13	7,659,770 47
April..	2,444,267 96	1,643,261 99	4,149,952 36	3,957,197 57	13,982,555 60
May...	2,466,462 76	979,145 14	4,704,914 62	3,873,865 42	3,855,186 46
June ..	2,024,193 39	885,062 41	4,664,927 19	3,738,934 06	3,311,148 43
July....	4,504,066 04	2,069,590 86	7,211,817 68	4,912,718 49	3,585,848 44
August.	4,496,243 10	1,558,824 11	4,762,581 54	6,206,735 58	6,237,364 17
Sept ..	3,038,803 28	1,642,882 43	5,239,045 50	7,270,543 65	4,084,492 54
Oct. ...	2,632,078 38	1,672,616 84	4,309,419 87	6,238,943 46	3,670,188 38
Nov...	1,794,748 67	1,851,384 73	3,003,270 23	5,075,846 24	3,455,156 53
Dec ...	1,171,862 74	2,334,847 38	2,664,593 82	5,248,189 03	3,440,852 67
Total..	36,027,481 51	21,714,981 30	52,254,116 72	58,886,054 42	66,937,127 71

We would refer our readers to the Commercial Chronicle and Review of last month for the movements in specie, prices of United States paper and of gold, and the rates of exchange for the year 1864. Those tables, together with the foregoing, will afford a complete summary of the commercial movements at the port of New York the past twelve months. The official returns showing the total imports and exports have not yet been made up. We give, however, the figures for the first nine months in the Commercial Chronicle and Review of this month.

JOURNAL OF BANKING, CURRENCY, AND FINANCE.

CONVERSION OF STATE BANKS INTO NATIONAL—FURTHER OPPOSITION TO NATIONAL BANKS USELESS —SHOULD BE ADMITTED INTO THE CLEARING-HOUSE—CIRCULATION AND CONDITION OF BANKS OF THE THREE CITIES AT END OF THE YEAR—BANKS OF THE STATE OF MAINE.

We referred in previous numbers to the inevitable conversion of the great majority of the State Banks into National Banks, and this process is now going rapidly on. The official reports of Massachusetts show that of 181 Banks in this State, 52 have become national associations, 47 more have filed papers, and the remainder are looking forward to change, while 25 new ones have been started. In New York the same process is being developed, and an act has been introduced in the Legislature to authorize and facilitate the conversion. The desire for change seems to seize the stockholders strongest where the existing Banks hold the most gold and have the most surplus. These two items to be divided up, hold out a tempting bonus, and in many cases will allow the stockholder his shares in the new institutions as profits. These shares in the new Banks, however, will probably not be very valuable, since all cannot have the Government deposits, or do a large business in loaning to the Government, and general business is by far too much reduced from the old credit system to allow a large share to multiplied Banks. It is also the case that many of the old Banks are large holders of Government stocks, bought with their depositors' money, and which, in case the latter should demand it, they would find it difficult to pay off under the State system. Under the national system, however, they can deposit the stock with the Comptroller, and obtain as many notes as will pay the depositors without disturbing their investments. It is true these national notes are not legal tender generally, but are so between the public and the Government, and, as at present, almost all business is done with the Government, that faculty will suffice. The Banks are not required to pay specie in any event, and there will therefore be no incentive to require the notes to be paid in legal tender. These considerations are the leading ones in bringing about the change that is being made, and it is very apparent that it is only another stage on the road to insolvency. The New York Bank Superintendent in his report states in relation to the national law, "its essential features are," as he expresses it, "transcrips from the banking laws of New York applied to a wider theatre of operations."

This seems to be a strange misconstruction of the law. The constitution of the State of New York, (art. viii., sec. 5,) declares that—

"The Legislature shall have no power to pass any law sanctioning in any manner, directly or indirectly, the suspension of specie payments by any person, association, or corporation issuing bank notes of any description."

Under this provision the Banks are required to deposit New York State stocks to an amount which will always bring sufficient to pay the notes issued in *specie*. The national law requires only that the notes shall be paid in *paper*. When a Bank obtains notes on pledge of stock, and fails, the New York law requires the stock to be sold for *specie*, with which the notes shall be redeemed. The

United States law only requires the stock to be sold for *the dishonored notes* themselves. The Comptroller has, however, a clear sense of the evils at hand. He remarks:

"The system has in some measure the attraction of novelty, and is buoyed up by the gratuitous bestowment of currency, the receipt and payment of these notes in all governmental operations, and the prospect of deposits by the collectors and disbursers of public revenue. Few seems to take cognizance of the fact that it comes into existence on a wave of public expenditure such as has never been witnessed in this, and, with a single exception, in no other country; that it is floated upon an ocean of irredeemable paper, whose ebb and flow no human intellect can regulate, or whose currents and quicksands no intelligence can fully determine. Without waiting for the return of the business of the country to its normal condition—ignoring the lessons taught by the great revulsion which followed the war of 1812-15, and which has crowned every inordinate expansion of paper credit—our people, having arrived at the conclusion that the congressional system of banking promises profitable results, rush into it with all the impetuosity inherent in our national character."

Some of the best of the State institutions will not adopt the new system, and the public will one day see the wisdom of their course, and thank them for it. Often have we stated in these pages the perils that attend this new banking experiment. Not a word would we now change. We firmly believe that the result will be a disasterous failure, and yet we cannot conceive that any good will be accomplished by further opposing it. Let it now be tried without opposition from any quarter. From time to time we shall notice its defects, especially as they are more clearly developed, and hope to see them modified. The right to flood the country with their circulation, at the present time, will, we trust, be taken away from them and from the State institutions; then let them run their course. There is much discussion just now about their being admitted into the New York Clearing-house. This would necessitate a change in its constitution, but should not, in our opinion, be delayed. Let every applicant stand on its own merits, and, if on examination of its affairs it be found a safe associate, let it be admitted. There are objections to this course to be sure; but we must come to it sooner or later—so why longer hold out?

With the conversion of the State Banks into National Banks, it will be borne in mind that the State stocks held will be sold. Nearly all the New York debt is held by the Banks, and will be put upon the market. The New York State Bank capital has been reduced $1,951,199 in the past year, and the circulation as follows:

The total number of circulating notes issued and outstanding on the 30th of September, 1863, was.....	$42,192,645
On the 30th of September, 1864, it was	40,118,635
Decrease of circulation within the year.....	$2,074,010

The circulation of the National Banks has considerably increased the outstanding amount of notes. The weekly returns will show the general movement of all the Banks. The loans have fluctuated with the movements of the Government transactions, and the specie has generally declined to the amount owned by the Banks, which has been about $20,000,000 since July. Latterly, however, many of the Banks have begun to dispose of their specie, while the Bank of New York, (having become a common depository for the gold dealers,) has to

some extent, increased the amount it holds. The deposits of the Banks were at their lowest point in January last year, when money was very dear and the Treasury had not begun to issue its new legal tender notes; after that event the deposits rose to over $174,000,000 in June, and subsequently fell to $144,000,000 in September. They are now low, under a state of affairs, as connected with the Treasury, similar to that of last year. We are compelled to omit the previous returns for the year; but they will be found in the January number:

NEW YORK BANKS.

NEW YORK BANKS. (*Capital, Jan.*, 1864, $————; *Jan.*, 1865, $69,658,737.)

Date.	Loans.	Specie.	Circulation.	Net Deposits.	Clearings.
Dec. 24,..	$203,512,093	$20,600,441	$3,383,346	$153,805,909	$593,336,137
" 31,..	199,444,969	19,662,211	3,283,832	147,442,071	471,039,253
Jan. 7,..	195,044,687	20,152,892	3,183,526	147,821,891	535,055,671
" 14,..	189,686,750	21,357,608	3,074,029	148,931,299	538,780,682
" 21,..	187,060,586	20,211,569	2,979,851	146,068,855	611,194,907
" 28,..	189,502,630	18,174,316	2,906,194	143,842,230	656,828,378

The returns of the Philadelphia Banks show a line of loans $10,000,000 higher than in January last year. The increase has taken place mostly since their determination to merge into the new law. The specie also declined from $4,153,000 to $1,803,000, that not being requisite. The deposits of the new Banks have greatly increased since their adhesion to the national system. The returns are as follows:

PHILADELPHIA BANKS.

PHILADELPHIA BANKS. (*Capital, Jan.*, 1863, $11,740,080; 1862, $13,313,880.)

Date.	Loans.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Due to banks.	Due from banks.
Dec. 17,...	$46,460,087	$1,943,143	$2,871,579	$39,168,580	.....	.....
" 24,...	47,406,491	1,830,635	2,516,063	39,643,010	.....	.....
" 31,...	48,059,403	1,803,583	2,793,468	39,845,963	$7,462,222	$3,786,553

The returns of the Boston Banks show the most remarkable fluctuation. There has been a steady contraction since the beginning of the year, under preparations for merging in the new law. The results of the State Banks are as follows:

BOSTON BANKS.

BOSTON BANKS. (*Capital, Jan.*, 1863, $38,231,700; *Jan.*, 1865, $22,350,000.)

Date.	Loans.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Due to banks.	Due from banks.
Dec. 17,..	$45,092,121	$3,601,228	$7,397,227	$23,124,821	$5,470,000	$11,806,500
" 24,..	45,746,230	3,936,311	7,731,981	23,222,391	5,470,000	11,431,291
" 31,..	46,312,700	3,434,300	7,767,000	23,086,800	5,689,000	11,452,800

The State Banks of Maine report as follows their business for the years 1863 and 1864:

LIABILITIES.

	1863.	1864.		
Capital	$8,008,000	$6,785,000	dec.	$1,222,400
Circulation	6,019,156	7,042,093	inc.	1,032,937
Deposits	6,421,005	5,120,762	dec.	1,310,243
Bank balances	118,020	258,042	inc.	140,022
Profits	759,859	965,566	inc.	205,707
Immediate liabilities	2,558,181	12,430,897	dec.	127,284

RESOURCES.

Loans	$14,983,609	$15,167,320	inc.	$183,711
Real estate	245,846	195,222	dec.	50,624
Bills of other banks and checks	1,047,979	1,281,413	inc.	233,434
Bank balances	4,370,562	3,015,961	dec.	1,351,601
Specie	678,043	522,146	dec.	155,897
Immediate resources	6,096,584	4,819,520	dec.	1,277,064
Number of banks	69	50	dec.	19
Overdue paper	761,492	612,249	dec.	149,243
Estimated loss on same	111,356	95,146	dec.	16,210

The savings institutions report as follows:

In 1860 the deposits were			$1,466,457 56
In 1861	"	"	1,620,270 26
In 1862	"	"	1,876,165 18
In 1863	"	"	2,641,476 41
In 1864	"	"	3,672,975 85

The current of money which set towards Paris and London, on the raising of the rate of interest by those institutions, had continued to fill the reservoirs up to the latest dates, and had been followed by further reductions in the Bank rates. The leading cause that underlies the money difficulties of the Paris, as well as the London markets, is the Indian cotton, the value of which, imported into Great Britain in nine months of the year, has been as follows:

	1862.	1863.	1864.
Value	$58,603,825	$126,293,450	$205,809,975

This doubling process is going on without any corresponding increase in exports to meet it. The strain upon silver and gold is, therefore, steadily augmenting, and must be felt here, where the supply is reduced, with great force.

In December, this operating cause lost much of its vigor, by reason of accounts from this side leading to the conviction that, in consequence of the steady march of events in America, the destruction of the Confederate Government may within a comparatively short space of time take place, control the disposition to speculate in cotton, and prevent the employment of any materially greater sum of money in its purchase abroad.

This feeling induced a diminished operation in cotton, and less demand for remittances to Asia, and therefore helped to strengthen the Bank. The returns of which are as follows:

THE BANK OF ENGLAND RETURNS.

Date.	Circulation.	Public Deposits.	Private Deposits.	Securities.	Coin and Bullion.	Rate of Discount.
Dec. 7,...	20,118,116	6,468,544	12,666,764	28,726,674	13,840,591	7 per ct.
" 14,...	19,669,832	7,161,719	12,267,474	28,301,608	14,122,711	6 "
" 21,...	19,669,007	7,694,616	12,927,807	29,326,027	14,307,760	6 "
" 28,...	19,810,455	8,601,125	13,040,643	30,708,083	14,190,974	6 "

The increase of specie in the Banking Department has been steady. The reduction of the rate of interest was, however, more rapid in Paris than in London. Although the Bank of France has put down the rate in order to mitigate the pressure upon French merchants, she does not in any degree remit the close scrutiny upon all kinds of bills or the rigor with which are rejected all such as are likely to send money out of France.

The influence of the price of money upon the flow of the metals is very marked. The rate of interest was put up to 8 per cent October 20, and was again lowered November 30. The effect upon the Bank returns was as follows:

	Loans.	Specie.
October 20.... .....francs	621,458,240	250,423,737
November 30.....	564,370,793	327,718,612
Reduction.....	57,087,447	
Increase		77,295,075

Thus the loans were contracted $11,000,000, and the specie increased nearly $16,000.000. A portion of this increase was due to the purchases by the Bank, said to have been $10,000 000 or 50,000,000 francs, of which a considerable portion was sent hence. This is a system which is, in effect, borrowing in London. Thus, if the agent of the Messrs. ROTHSCHILD here draws upon the London house at sight, and sells for gold what is shipped to France, it is, in fact, London which has lent the money to Paris, and, on the maturity of the bills, Paris must pay London, and she expects to do so when the spring business shall have turned the current of exchange.

From November 30th the specie continued to accumulate to December 22d, when it stood at $364,000,000 francs, a rise of 50 per cent in 60 days, without any increase in the loans, which were kept down notwithstanding the low price of money by the severe rule applied to the paper to be passed. The returns are as follows:

BANK OF FRANCE.

	Loans.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Interest.
December 8	fr.566,921,053	fr.355,640,597	fr.722,291,475	fr.178,968,028	5
" 15	586,521,733	351,562,024	739,383,125	161,270,492	5
" 22	561,603,376	364,008,378	721,487,475	153,193,515	4½
" 29	597,157,830	359,969,767	726,212,275	171,321,867	.

The contest which has been some time in progress in relation to the Bank of Savoy, which claimed the right under its new organization to issue circulating notes, has been decided against that institution. The exclusive power to issue notes being confined to the Bank of France.

GRAIN TRADE OF THE UPPER LAKES.

THE grain trade of the upper lakes is of such magnitude as to challenge the attention of commercial men and statesmen, and they will be glad to obtain, through your pages, the leading items of this trade for the year 1864, just passed.

The three leading ports which gather in and export most of the breadstuffs of the great interior plain that seek a market eastward, are Chicago, Toledo, and Milwaukee.

The following table, taken from the reports of the several boards of trade of the cities named, will be found substantially reliable:

RECEIPTS OF FLOUR AND GRAIN AT THREE LAKE PORTS, FOR THE YEAR 1864.

	Flour, bbls.	Wheat, bu.	Corn, bu.	Oats, bu.	Rye, bu.	Flour reduced to wheat, bu.
Chicago ...	1,141,791	11,257,196	13,623,087	13,653,941	1,709,562	45,952,741
Toledo	1,052,479	6,907,243	1,035,222	441,417	110,838	13,757,115
Milwaukee.	280,874	9,120,255	473,309	1,051,953	287,490	12,337,697
	2,475,144	27,284,694	15,131,618	15,147,311	2,107,890	72,047,553

AT THE SAME PORTS THE RECEIPTS FOR THE YEAR 1863 WERE AS FOLLOWS:

	Flour, bbls.	Wheat, bu.	Corn, bu.	Oats, bu.	Rye, bu.	Flour reduced to wheat, bu.
Chicago ...	1,474,282	11,180,344	24,459,508	9,189,525	1,968,106	56,079,903
Toledo	1,126,260	6,194,130	1,705,096	733,796	62,137	14,326,459
Milwaukee.	428,747	13,024,323	359,052	949,570	369,019	16,845,699
	3,029,289	30,398,797	26,523,656	10,822,891	2,399,262	87,252,061

From these tables it will be seen that the receipts of these three ports the past year, compared with those of the year 1863, show an aggregate decrease of 15,203,458 bushels; of which 10,127,162 are chargeable to Chicago; 4,507,002 was the loss of Milwaukee, and 569,294 bushels the deficit of Toledo. The deficient and badly ripened corn crop of the year 1863, occasioned the chief reduction of receipts at Chicago and Toledo. The loss of Milwaukee, it will be seen, was principally in wheat. The commerce of Chicago and Toledo, in articles other than breadstuffs, for the past year, was much in advance of that of any other preceding year.—Yours, &c., J. W. S.

STATISTICS OF TRADE AND COMMERCE.

COMMERCE BETWEEN BRAZIL AND UNITED STATES—THE WHALE FISHERY FOR 1864—RAILROAD AND STEAMBOAT ACCIDENTS—COMMERCE OF UNITED STATES.

COMMERCE BETWEEN BRAZIL AND UNITED STATES.

THE following, prepared for the *Merchants' Magazine* by L. H. F. D'AGUIAR, Brazilian Consul at New York, will be found particularly valuable in the absence of the commerce and navigation report. It presents the trade of Brazil with the United States for the past three years:

EXPORTS TO BRAZIL.

	Vessels.	Tons.	Value reduced from greenback currency.
1863-64....American vessels.....	46	19,804	£293,899
....Foreign vessels.....	203	46,314	945,450
Total.....	249	66,618	1,239,349
1862-63....American vessels.....	144	46,441	753 793
....Foreign vessels.....	76	17,629	475,996
Total.....	220	64,070	1,129,789
1861-62....American vessels.....	183	54,904	743,043
....Foreign vessels.....	37	7,987	166,842
Total.....	220	62,891	909,885

IMPORTS FROM BRAZIL.

	Vessels	Tons.	Value reduced from gold.
1863-64....American vessels.....	41	14,219	£374,717
....Foreign vessels.....	282	66,459	2,684,469
Total.....	323	80,678	3,059,186
1862-63....American vessels.....	150	45,960	1,139,496
....Foreign vessels.....	107	27,149	1,299,734
Total.....	257	73,109	2,439,230
1861-62....American vessels.....	191	65,598	1,216,736
....Foreign vessels.....	105	30,376	1,560,225
Total.....	296	95,974	2 776,961

	Articles exported. Flour, bbls.	Dry goods, vol.
1863-64.....	410,862	88
1862-63.....	410,094	242
1861-62.....	376,315	5,187

Imports.	1863-64.	1862-63.	1861-62
Coffee.....bags	574,182	366,908	567,146
Hides.....numb.	352,226	343,282	157,884
Sugar.....vol.	76,415	93,947	97,250
India rubber.....arrobes of 32lbs.	96,623	78,612	45,602

ANNUAL STATEMENT OF THE WHALE FISHERY FOR 1864.

THE year 1864 has witnessed a further decline in the number of vessels employed in the business, and the number now thus employed is less than at any time within the last twenty-five years, being 276, with an aggregate of 79,692 tons. The greatest number within the above-named period employed in the whaling business was in 1846, which was 735, amounting to 233,189 tons. The present number of vessels, however, is as large as the business will warrant.

The success of the fleet in the Arctic Ocean in 1863, induced many of those engaged in sperm whaling, to abandon the latter and try their fortune North, but with one or two exceptions the change was not successful. The whole number of American ships that cruised in the Arctic Ocean in 1864, was 63. Of this number, all but one, the William Gifford, have arrived in at different ports. These have taken an aggregate of 29,440 bbls. whale oil, and 439,250 lbs. bone —an average of 475 bbls. oil and 7,084 lbs. bone. Add to these nine foreign vessels also cruising in the Arctic, which took 4,220 bbls. whale oil and 66,600 lbs. bone, and the whole Arctic fleet numbers 71 ships, with an aggregate catch of 33,660 bbls. oil and 505,250 lbs. bone, or an average of 474 bbls. oil and 7,116 lbs. bone each.

The Ochotsk fleet consisted of six American and four foreign vessels. All the American ships but the Hercules have arrived in port, and taking her last report —500 bbls.—will give an aggregate catch of 6,050 bbls. oil and 87,800 lbs. bone, or an average of 1,008 bbls. oil and 14,633 lbs. bone each. The four foreign

ships took 3,675 bbls. oil and 49,000 lbs. bone, or an average of 919 bbls. oil and 12,250 lbs. bone. These added together make the whole Ochotsk fleet ten ships, with an aggregate catch of 9,725 bbls. whale oil and 136,800 lbs. bone, averaging 972 bbls. oil and 13,680 lbs. bone each. Thus the whole number of vessels comprising the North Pacific fleet in 1864 is 81 (exclusive of the William Gifford, to hear from) with a aggregate catch of 43,385 bbls. whale oil and 642,050 lbs. bone, or an average of 535 bbls. oil and 7,926 lbs. bone each.

On the whole the success of the Northern fleet has not been very encouraging, for although oil and bone are commanding apparently high prices, yet almost every article of merchandise has advanced more than our staples, and the enormous expenses attending a whaling voyage in these times, will require a much larger catch to make any favorable compensation to owners of these vessels.

Although the weather in the Arctic and Ochotsk has been very boisterous, there have been only two vessels lost the last season—the Henry Kneeland, in the Arctic, and the Mary in the Ochotsk, both belonging to this port.

The success in the Hudson's Bay whaling, did not come up to our expectations the past year. The great difficulty appears to be the short time between the breaking up of the ice and the closing up of the same, rendering the season available for whaling extremely short. Whales seem to be plenty, but they are very shy and difficult to capture. There were four arrivals from Hudson's Bay in 1864—three into New Bedford, and one into New London, bringing 3,454 bbls. whale oil and 55,000 lbs. bone. There are now wintering in Hudson's Bay and Cumberland Inlet 12 American whalers—the Antelope, Ansel Gibbs, Black Eagle, Glacier, Morning Star, and Orray Taft, of this port; Cornelia, George and Mary, Helen F. Monticello, and Pioneer, of New London, and Concordia, of Sag Harbor, all of which will probably arrive home next fall.

Of the American whalers from the North twenty-three arrived at San Francisco, forty-two at the Sandwich Islands, one at Monterey, and one at Panama. All the foreign whalers arrived at the Sandwich Islands.

Of the 81 whalers which sailed from home ports in 1864, 19 were bound to the North Pacific, 15 to Cumberland Inlet and Hudson's Bay, 5 to Desolation and Hurd's Island, and the balance sperm whaling to the Atlantic, Indian, and Pacific Oceans.

From present appearances the import of sperm oil will be considerably less this year than in 1864. The fleet on the Pacific coast is very small, and doing very little, with one or two exceptions. The South Pacific fleet is also much reduced, and have done poorly; very few ships are in the Indian Ocean. The fleet in the Atlantic have done better, although whaling has been much interrupted about the Western Islands, the "Two Forties," and other grounds, by uncommon rough weather. The quantity of oil landed at Fayal in 1864 by whalers is 4,862 bbls. sperm, 883 bbls. whale; also 1,395 lbs. bone. All the oil but about 300 bbls. has arrived home.

The import of sperm oil for the year is 64,372 bbls., 683 bbls. less than in 1863; of whale oil, 71,863 bbls., an excess of 8,889 bbls. over the preceding year; of whalebone, 760,450 lbs.—271,700 lbs. more than in 1863.

The exports exceed those of 1863 by 28,634 bbls. sperm, 703 bbls. whale oil, and 250,600 lbs. bone.

The average prices for the year are: Sperm oil, $1 78 per gallon; whale oil, $1 28 per gallon, and whalebone, $1 80 per pound, exceeding that of the previous year, 17 cents for sperm, 33 cents for whale oil, and 27 cents for bone.

The stock of sperm oil on hand January 1, 1865, is 10,818 bbls. less, and that of whale oil 2,665 bbls. less than the corresponding period in 1864. Whalebone is in excess 21,170 lbs.

We refer our readers to the following tables of statistics:

EXPORTS OF SPERM OIL, WHALE OIL, AND WHALEBONE FROM THE UNITED STATES.

	Bbls. sp.	Bbls. wh.	Lbs. bone.
1864	45,000	12,000	530,000
1863	18,866	11,297	279,394
1862	27,976	68,583	2,004,981
1861	37,547	49,969	1,145,013
1860	32,792	13,007	911,226
1859	52,207	8,179	1,707,929

IMPORTS FROM 1846 TO 1865.

	Bbls. sp.	Bbls. wh.	Lbs. bone.
1864	64,372	71,863	760,450
1863	65,055	62,974	488,750
1862	55,641	100,478	763,500
1861	68,932	133,717	1,038,450
1860	73,708	140,005	1,337,650
1859	91,408	190,411	1,923,850
1858	81,941	182,223	1,540,600
1857	78,440	230,941	2,058,900
1856	80,941	197,890	2,592,700
1855	72,649	184,015	2,707,500
1854	76,696	319,837	3,445,200
1853	103,077	260,114	5,652,300
1852	78,872	84,211	1,259,900
1851	99,591	328,483	3,966,500
1850	92,892	200,608	2,869,200
1849	100,944	248,492	2,281,100
1848	107,976	280,656	2,003,000
1847	120,753	313,150	3,341,680
1846	95,217	207,493	2,276,930
1845	157,917	272,730	3,167,142

IMPORTATIONS OF SPERM OIL, WHALE OIL, AND WHALEBONE INTO THE UNITED STATES IN 1864.

	Bbls. sp.	Bbls. wh.	Lbs. bone.
New Bedford	48,172	35,883	224,250
Fairhaven	1,278	711	600
Westport	2,241	32	—
Dartmouth	500	525	—
Mattapoisett	881	4	700
Sippican	155	9	—
District of New Bedford	57,227	37,164	225,550
New London	915	8,091	149,600
Nantucket	78	18	—
Provincetown	1,850	1,742	2,600

Salem	90	20	—
Edgartown	153	1,525	15,650
Falmouth	931	232	1,700
Sag Harbor	1,133	505	3,700
Boston	3,894	9,611	159,000
New York	2,101	12,955	202,650
Total	64,372	71,863	760,450

STOCK OF OIL AND BONE ON HAND ON THE FIRST OF JANUARY IN THE LAST SEVEN YEARS.

	Bbls. sp.	Bbls. wh.	Lbs. bone.
1865	20,382	6,679	170,150
1864	31,200	9,344	148,980
1863	16,038	23,019	91,500
1862	16,132	58,378	295,600
1861	15,838	80,469	438,700
1860	13,429	96,480	380,600
1859	17,176	82,376	400,000

AVERAGE PRICES OF OIL AND BONE.

	Sperm.	Whale.	Bone.
1864	178	128	180
1863	161	95½	153
1862	142½	59½	82
1861	131½	44½	66
1860	141½	49½	80

RAILROAD AND STEAMBOAT ACCIDENTS.

THESE figures give the result of the railroad and steamboat accidents in the United States the past year:

RAILROAD ACCIDENTS.

Number of accidents and the killed and wounded in 1864 and the ten preceding years:—

	1864.			1863.		
	Accidents.	Killed.	Wounded.	Accidents.	Killed.	Wounded.
January	15	27	28	11	14	75
February	7	17	28	9	102	57
March	11	37	37	10	14	64
April	8	7	26	9	4	41
May	12	42	166	4	4	23
June	10	19	106	8	26	62
July	9	74	145	6	11	49
August	17	37	194	10	14	33
September	15	47	105	10	30	103
October	13	59	177	7	24	76
November	15	23	111	2	13	66
December	8	15	110	3	8	17
Total	140	404	1,486	89	264	671

The above figures do not include accidents where no lives were lost, accidents to individuals which were caused by their own carelessness or design, or deaths

or injuries resulting from the recklessness of persons in crossing or standing upon railroad tracks where trains were in motion.

The following table exhibits the number of accidents, with the number of persons killed and injured, during the last eleven years:

	Accidents.	Killed.	Wounded.
1854	193	186	589
1855	142	110	529
1856	143	105	629
1857	126	130	536
1858	82	119	417
1859	79	129	411
1860	74	57	315
1861	68	101	459
1862	99	264	877
1863	89	264	674
1864	140	404	1,846
Total	1,230	1,869	7,289

STEAMBOAT ACCIDENTS.

Number of accidents and the killed and wounded in 1864 and the ten preceding years:—

	1864			1863		
	Accidents.	Killed.	Wounded.	Accidents.	Killed.	Wounded.
January	.	..	..	2	5	1
February	2	13	..	2	6	5
March	1	2	..	1	5	2
April	.	..	..	3	43	20
May	1	7	15	2	4	6
June	2	45	..	1	..	14
July	2	72	4	.	..	..
August	1	8	..	3	65	10
September	6	72	60	2	31	..
October	6	28	22	2	71	3
November	3	86	10	1	13	18
December	2	25	32	1	12	6
Total	26	358	143	20	255	85

The above table does not include accidents where no lives were lost, the killed and wounded by accidents occurring at sea, or those who lost their lives or received injury on board of steam vessels during engagements.

The following table shows the number of accidents and the killed and wounded during the last eleven years:

	Accidents.	Killed.	Wounded.
1854	48	587	225
1855	27	176	107
1856	29	353	127
1857	30	322	82
1858	27	300	107
1859	21	342	146
1860	29	597	134
1861	19	69	88
1862	16	220	70
1863	20	255	85
1864	26	358	143
Total	292	3,584	1,314

COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES.

THE Commerce and Navigation Report, for 1862, which is just issued, has been delayed so long that the returns have lost much of their interest. Their value, however, for future reference and comparison, is the same. We give, this month, simply the exports.

EXPORTS FROM THE UNITED STATES TO FOREIGN PORTS FOR THE YEAR ENDING JUNE 30.

	1860.		1861.		1862.	
PRODUCTS OF THE SEA—	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
Oil—sperm.....galls.	1,335,736	$1,759,089	1,518,457	$2,110,823	719,477	$962,603
Do.—whale and other fish.....do.	939,872	537,547	1,069,468	581,264	2,599,316	1,280,697
Whalebone.....lbs.	1,068,895	896,293	979,231	736,552	796,384	556,795
Spermaceti and sperm candles.....do.	157,783	51,829	456,408	148,907	280,526	64,481
Fish, dried or smoked.....cwt.	219,628	690,088	219,324	634,941	250,819	712,584
Do. pickled.....bbls.	33,815	191,684	48,352	244,028	67,575	410,138
Do. do.....kegs.	2,433		2,662		8,538	
Total product of the Sea.....		$4,156,480		$4,451,515		$3,987,298
PRODUCTS OF THE FOREST—						
Staves and headings.....M.	75,800	$2,365,516	73,408	$1,959,392	69,965	$2,590,649
Shingles.....M.	41,601	169,546	30,078	108,610	20,118	67,356
Boards, planks, &c.....M. ft.	170,922	2,777,919	132,382	2,092,949	129,243	2,016,982
Hewn timber.....tons	32,376	231,668	8,821	97,875	4,391	138,521
Other lumber.....	.....	705,119	.....	441,979	.....	1,162,163
Oak bark and other dye.....	.....	164,260	.....	189,476	.....	186,863
Manufactures of wood.....	.....	2,703,095	.....	2,344,079	.....	1,755,793
Tar and pitch.....bbls.	60,623	151,404	55,057	143,280	9,765	55,884
Rosin and turpentine.....bbls.	770,652	1,818,238	536,207	1,060,257	65,441	293,400
Ashes—pots and pearls.....cwt.	271,949	822,820	99,701	651,547	74,895	457,049
Ginseng.....lbs.	395,909	295,766	347,577	292,899	630,714	408,590
Skins and furs.....	.....	1,533,208	.....	878,466	.....	794,407
Total product of the Forest.....		$13,788,559		$10,260,809		$9,926,157

Product of Agriculture—	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
(Animals.)						
Beef.....tcs.	78,674	$2,674,824	41,822	$1,675,773	57,284	$2,017,077
Do.....bbls.	76,283		65,468		50,171	
Tallow .....lbs.	15,269,535	1,598,176	29,718,364	2,942,370	46,773,768	4,026,113
Hides.....	.....	1,036,260	.....	673,818	.....	518,687
Horned cattle.....No.	27,501	1,052,426	8,885	223,246	3,634	197,019
Butter .....lbs.	7,640,914	1,144,321	15,531,881	2,355,985	26,691,247	4,164,344
Cheese .....lbs.	15,515,799	1,565,630	32,361,428	3,321,631	34,052,678	2,715,892
Pork .....tcs.	1,616	3,182,313	1,682	2,609,818	2,102	3,980,153
Do.....bbls.	202,319		153,964		305,949	
Hams and bacon..... .....lbs.	25,844,610	2,273,768	50,264,267	4,848,339	141,212,786	10,290,572
Lard.....lbs.	40,289,519	4,545,831	49,908,911	4,729,297	118,573,307	10,064,521
Hogs .....No.	48,355	377,604	463	3,267	3,806	23,562
Horses .....No.	1,635	233,368	1,469	193,420	1,534	157,442
Mules.....No.	1,435	158,080	1,799	191,873	3,237	212,187
Sheep .....No.	.....	33,613	.....	28,417	.....	34,600
Wool ... .lbs.	1,055,928	389,512	847,301	287,846	1,153,388	296,225
		$20,215,226		$24,035,100		$38,688,394
(Vegetable Food)—						
Wheat.....bush.	4,155,153	$4,076,704	31,238,057	$38,313,624	37,289,572	$42,573,295
Flour .....bbls.	2,611,596	15,448,507	4,323,726	24,645,849	4,882,033	27,534,677
Indian corn .....bush.	3,314,155	2,399,808	10,678,244	6,890,865	18,904,898	10,887,383
Corn meal.....bbls.	233,709	912,075	203,313	692,003	253,570	778,344
Rye meal.....bbls.	11,432	48,172	14,143	55,761	14,463	54,488
Rye, oats, &c..... ..	.....	1,058,304	.....	1,124,556	.....	2,364,625
Biscuit .....bbls.	119,236	478,740	110,690	429,708	128,846	490,942
Do .....kegs and boxes	46,543		36,847		39,463	
Potatoes.....bush.	380,372	284,673	413,091	285,508	417,133	300,599
Onions	.....	109,861	.....	102,578	.....	90,412
Apples .....bbls.	78,809	206,055	112,523	269,363	66,767	238,923
Rice .....tcs.	84,163	2,567,399	39,162	1,382,178	2,146	156,899
Do.....bbls.	77,887		50,038		7,335	
		$27,590,298		$74,191,993		$84,970,587

	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
Cotton, Sea Island.....lbs.	15,598,698	$191,806,555	6,170,321	$34,051,483	66,443	$1,180,113
Do. other.....lbs.	1,752,087,640		301,345 778		4,998,121	
Tobacco, unmanufactured.....hhds.	167,274		160,816		107,233	
Do .....cases	15,035	15,906,547	18,815	13,784,710	31,962	12,325,356
Do .....bales	17,817		19,450		15,489	
Flaxseed.....bush.	2,715	3,810	28,540	49,609	15	59
Cloverseed.....bush.	116,574	596,919	200,417	1,063,141	66,064	295,255
Hemp .....tons	186	9,531	136	8,608	48	8,800
Brown sugar.....lbs.	1,133,986	103,244	3,275,024	301,329	1,284,849	90,022
Hops .....lbs.	273,257	32,866	8,835,837	2,006,053	4,850,046	663,898
Total produce of Agriculture		$256,264,996		$149,492,026		$138,171,984
MANUFACTURES—						
Wax.....lbs.	362,474	$131,803	270,425	$94,495	142,312	$47,383
Refined Sugar.....lbs.	3,382,045	301,674	3,236 110	287,881	1,470,403	147,397
Chocolate .....lbs.	17,194	2,593	9,906	2,157	18,822	4,288
Spirits (from grain).....galls.	748,185	311,595	2,994,181	867,954	768,295	328,834
Do (from molasses)..... do	2,855,952	930,644	2,885,869	850,546	2,496,220	715,694
Do (from other materials) ..... do	494,643	219,199	1,362,414	593,185	3,956,359	1,577,909
Molasses ..... do	70,439	35,292	91,593	39,138	45,009	21,914
Vinegar..... do	304,257	41,368	315,994	38,262	268,927	29,701
Beer, ale, porter and cider ..... do	160,887	31,371	136,082	25,876	201,672	45,464
Do do .....doz. bottles	13,043	22,202	7,477	13,604	25,062	20,893
Linseed oil.....galls.	37,809	26,799	42,638	27,982	43,507	54,691
Spirits of turpentine ..... do	4,072,023	1,916,289	2,941,855	1,192,787	.....	.....
Household furniture	.....	1,079,114	.....	838,049	.....	942,454
Carriages, cars, &c.....	.....	816,973	.....	472,080	.....	519,175
Hats	.....	211,602	.....	156,956	.....	132 727
Saddlery.....	.....	71,382	.....	61,469	.....	67,759
Candles, adamantine, &c.....lbs.	4,875,552	708,699	4,569,259	633,048	5,819,503	836,849
Soap..... do	6,852,485	494,405	7,202,130	455,648	9,986,984	636,049
Snuff..... do	39,923	11,354	81,465	17,703	38,839	7,914
Tobacco, manufactured..... do	17,697,309	3,372,074	17,783,363	2,742,828	4,071,963	1,068 730

	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
Leather.....lbs.	2,946,633	$674,309	2,714,466	$555,202	1,775,556	$389.007
Boots and shoes.....pairs	678,136	782,525	655,808	779,876	679,594	721,241
Cables and cordage.....cwt.	26,053	246,572	28,422	255,274	19,690	199,669
Gunpowder.....lbs.	3,276,411	467,772	2,319,641	347,103	649,002	101,803
Salt.....bush.	475,445	129,717	537,401	144,046	397,506	228,109
Lead.....lbs.	903,468	.50,446	103,023	6,241	79,237	7,334
Iron—pig.....cwt.	7,097	19,143	14,056	25,826	27,868	38,412
Bar ..... do	5,901	38,257	6,941	16,411	16,478	45,584
Nails ..... do	5,005,694	188.754	5,3[illegible]4,536	270,084	4,578,807	175,856
Castings ..... do	55,726	282,848	26,400	76,750	11,790	54,671
Other manufactures of.....	.....	5,174,040	.....	5,536,576	.....	4,212,448
Copper, brass, &c.	.....	1,664,122	.....	2,375,629	.....	1,098,546
Medical drugs.....	.....	1,115,455	.....	1,149,433	.....	1,490,336
Cottons—Printed and colored	.....	3,356,449	.....	2,215,032	.....	587,500
Do white other than duck	.....	1,403,506	.....	1,076,959	.....	508 005
Do duck	.....	382,089	.....	300,668	.....	221,685
Do other manufactures.....	.....	5,792,752	.....	4,364,879	.....	1,629,274
Hemp thread.....	.....	430	.....	30	.....	.....
Hemp bags, &c.....	.....	27,884	... ..	39,490	.....	31,940
Wearing apparel	... ..	525,175	.....	462,554	.....	472,924
Earthenware, &c.....	.....	65,086	.....	40,524	.....	32,108
Combs and buttons	.....	23,845	.....	32,792	.....	14,221
Brushes and brooms.....	.....	61,377	.....	62,360	.....	99,166
Billiard apparatus	.....	15,979	.....	8,910	.....	19,884
Umbrellas and parasols.....	.....	4,862	.....	1,271	.....	553
Morocco, &c.....	.....	19,011	.....	7,507	.....	13,049
Fire engines	.....	9,948	.....	7,940	.....	86,280
Printing materials	.....	157,124	.....	106,562	.....	169,147
Musical instruments.....	.....	129,653	.....	150,974	.....	152,026
Books and maps.....	.....	278,268	.....	250,365	.....	215,281
Stationery.....	.....	285,798	.....	347,915	.....	399,793
Paints and varnish.....	.....	223,809	.....	240,928	.....	264,114
Glassware.....	.....	277,948	.....	394,781	.....	523,906
Tinware.....	.....	39,064	.....	50,229	.....	62,286

	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
Manufactures of pewter and lead	.....	$46,081	.....	$80,534	.....	$28,882
Marble and stone	.....	176,289	.....	185,267	.....	195,442
India rubber boots and shoes.....pairs	107,693	58,826	62,729	33,605	35,116	35,903
Do other manufactures of.....	.....	182,015	.....	160,088	.....	107,953
Gold and silver leaf	.....	140,187	.....	53,372	.....	63,078
Jewelry, &c.....	.....	24,659	.....	48,740	.....	67,750
Artificial flowers	.....	207	.....	1,459	.....	130
Trunks and valises	.....	50,184	.....	40,622	.....	50,771
Lard oil.....galls.	60,209	55,783	85,676	81,783	239,608	148,056
Oil cake	.....	1,609,328	.....	1,386,691	.....	875,841
Bricks, lime and cement	.....	154,045	.....	93,292	.....	83,385
Unenumerated manufactures	.....	2,397,445	.....	2,530,689	.....	1,986,976
Total Manufactures		$39,544,398		$35,786,804		$25,066,000
Coal.....tons	187,059	$740,783	153,171	$577,386	213,046	$837,117
Ice.....tons	49,153	183,134	44,753	172,263	48,390	182,667
Petroleum, crude and refined.....galls.	.....	.....	.....	.....	5,828,129	1,539,027
Quicksilver.....	.....	258,682	.....	631,450	.....	1,237,643
Gold and Silver Bullion	.....	30,918,173	.....	13,311,280	.....	13,267,739
Gold and Silver Coin	.....	26,033,678	.....	10,488,590	.....	17,776,912
Raw Produce not specified	.....	1,855,891	.....	2,794,046	.....	1,067,703
Total Exports of Domestic Products...		$373,189,274		$227,966,169		$213,060,247

RAILWAY NEWS.

RAILWAYS IN SPAIN—THE PYRENEES TO BE TUNNELLED.

A few years ago Spain was as innocent of railroad conveniences as she was in the days when Don Quixotte bestrode his Rosinante and set forth in search of adventures for the honor of Dulcinea del Toboso. The Dons had heard of the the modern invention, and thought, doubtless, that the devil had much to do with it; but the muleteers, as they toiled over the sunny vine-clad hills, whistled in stolid indifference, and with full confidence that their business was not to be broken in upon by the tireless industry and force of the iron horse. The dream, however, has passed; and now the city of Madrid is connected by railroad with all the frontiers of the kingdom—with the Mediterranean by way of Alicante, Valentia, and Barcelona; with the ocean by way of Cadiz to the south and of Santander to the north; with Portugal by way of Estremadura and Badajoz, famed in warlike story, and with France by way of the Basque provinces and Irun.

The length of the lines conceded, according to returns published in 1864, was 3,781 miles; that worked, 2,230 miles. The concessions were made to as many as 37 different companies. The capital raised by shares was about £24,000,000 sterling; and by the issue of debentures, rather more than £25,000,000. The subventions which the government undertood to allow were £12,600,000; but only about half of them were actually paid. The average receipts per mile are not clearly stated, but they were slightly less than in 1862. In the first six months of 1864, compared with the corresponding period of 1863, some of the principal lines, however, showed a marked advance—in the north of Spain, of as much as 23 per cent; Seville, 20; Pampeluna, 12; Barcelona, 4. French capital, as is known, is very largely invested in Spanish lines; and the French now see that, in order to enable them to prosper, it is absolutely necessary that a radical reform should be made in the customs system of Spain—a reform which by abolishing many of the import duties and reducing the rest, shall permit the introduction of foreign merchandise in considerable quantities. Unfortunately, however, Spanish cabinets show no disposition to reform the commercial *regime*; and so little inclination is there in Spain to befriend railways, that a tax of 10 per cent of the receipts of express trains has just been imposed.

The companies enjoy the privilege of importing the materials for the work free of duty. The construction of the line to the French frontier necessitates the construction of a tunnel through the Pyrenees—almost as great a work as that of tunnelling the Alps. The elevation is to be six feet in one hundred.

PACIFIC RAILROAD TO BE COMPLETED—ISSUE OF BONDS BY ST. LOUIS.

The County Court of St. Louis, at its session December 18th, ordered the issue to the President and Directors of the Pacific Railroad Company, bonds to the amount of $700,000, being the same that the County Court was authorized to issue by the recent act of the Legislature. This loan of the county credit is

upon what is regarded as ample security, and for an amount sufficient to carry the road through to Kansas City we believe.

In anticipation of this issue, the St. Louis *Republican* says that work had been commenced upon the section from Kansas City to Independence, where some bridges destroyed by the rebels, are being rebuilt. Soon it will be resumed along other portions of the line, and it is hoped that by midsummer, the last rail will be laid and the last spike driven, so that by that time the communication will be perfected between St. Louis and the interior of Kansas.

BRIDGE OVER THE MISSISSIPPI AT FULTON.

The Chicago *Tribune* contains an elaborate account of the completion of a massive bridge spanning the Mississippi River, between Fulton, Illinois, and Clinton, Iowa, forming a connecting link in the railroad communication between the Lake City and the North-Western Trans-Mississippi States. The river, at this point, has been crossed hitherto by the vexatious and inadequate medium of of a ferry-boat transporting three cars at once, and obviously subject to great detentions and annoyance, notwithstanding which, the business of the route has largely increased each year. It has cost the railway company, hitherto, more than one dollar per ton to take freight over the Mississippi River by ferry boats. Hereafter it will cost no more than to run their trains upon other portions of the road, per mile, except the trifling expense of watching it and turning the draw of the bridge. Such was the nature of the stream and its banks, that it has been found impossible, heretofore, to take across all freight offered at that point. Hereafter, no such difficulty will be experienced, and an immense increase in freight is inevitable. This route, which is called the Dixon and Air Line Road, will connect the nearest points of the Missouri and Mississippi rivers to Chicago, following very nearly the forty-second parallel of latitude, and destined to give us connection with the great Platte Valley, the great highway of empire Westward.

THE EXTINGUISHMENT OF THE SCHELDT DUES.

The President has issued a proclamation declaring that the treaty between the United States and the King of the Belgians for the extinguishment of the Scheldt dues has been duly ratified on both sides, and also another proclamation announcing the exchange of ratifications of the convention between these same nations, completing by new stipulations the treaty of commerce and navigation of July, 1858.

By these arrangements the United States, in view of the propositions made by Belgium to regulate by a common accord the capitalization of the Scheldt dues, consents, to contribute to this capitalization, under certain conditions, an amount not exceeding 2,000,780 francs. The tariff of import duties resulting from the treaty of the 1st of May, 1861, between Belgium and France, is extended to goods imported from the United States on the same conditions with which it was extended to Great Britain by the treaty of July 23, 1862.

The reduction made by the treaties entered into by Belgium with Switzerland on the 15th of December, 1862, with Italy on the 9th of April, 1863, with the Netherlands on the 12th May, 1863, and also with France on the 12th of May, 1863, is to be equally applied to goods imported from the United States.

It is agreed that Belgium shall also extend to the United States the reductions of import duties which may result from her subsequent treaties with other powers.

In derogation to the ninth article of the treaty of the 7th of July, 1858, the flag of the United States is to be assimilated to that of Belgium for the transportation of salt.

THE COMMERCIAL FAILURES IN 1864.

Office of the Mercantile Agency, 293 and 295 Broadway,
New York, January 2, 1865.

To Subscribers.—In our annual review of the condition of the mercantile, manufacturing, and trading interests of the country, we are warranted in congratulating subscribers and friends upon the general existent healthy state of affairs. Our record, during the past year, shows only five hundred and ten failures, with liabilities amounting to $8,579,700, which, by comparison, exhibits a remarkably healthy state of the trading community. The number and liabilities of failures for the past eight years are as follows:

Northern States.	Number.	Liabilities.	Northern States.	Number.	Liabilities.
1857.....	4,257	$265,818,000	1861.....	5,935	$178,632,170
1858.....	3,113	73,608,747	1862.....	1,652	23,049,300
1859.....	2,959	51,314,000	1863.....	495	7,899,000
1860.....	2,733	61,739,474	1864.....	510	8,579,700

In submitting these figures we call attention to the fact of a large diminution in the amount of annual failures since the rebellion broke out. This we attribute mainly to that rigid caution which has obtained in our business community in dispensing credits, and to the increased values of stocks on hand.

The immense and general prosperity of all branches of agriculture has augmented the wealth of the trading classes, and the scarcity of labor, suitable to the requirements of the mechanical interests, has tended to increased wages, and enhanced receipts of the operating classes. These, the principal consuming interests, on account of their vast number, and constituting, as they do, the material wealth of the country, have created an unusually large expenditure through the channel of the retail trade, and yielded returns that enabled this class of merchants to meet their obligations promptly to the jobber. The latter has, therefore, been prompt with the importer and commission merchant. Hence the natural conclusion must be that each, acting in harmony with the other, has produced a more satisfactory result than could have been anticipated by even the most sanguine.

Satisfactory as trade for the past few years has proved itself to be, we cannot but think that merchants should continue to rigidly follow out the course they have of late adopted, and thus avert any impending crisis that even the most conservative of our merchants think may yet be in store for us. We make this

suggestion from the statistics furnished by our records, which clearly prove that whenever merchants have deviated from the strict rules of a conservative system of credit, based upon a well founded pecuniary security, and the closest scrutiny as to character and business experience, they have been the sufferers.

The deep interest we have felt in arriving at correct statistics, to submit to the judgment of our subscribers, has induced us to make the most rigid and careful research of our records, at this particular juncture, in order to present to them, at a glance, an estimate of the wealth of the mercantile, manufacturing, and trading interests in the loyal States. This estimate is not obtained by averaging the whole number of traders, but by a specific examination of each name or firm. It has been the work of months, both with us and our associate officers throughout the country, and the result is shown in the appended table, arranged by States and the principal cities. The States of Missouri, Kentucky, Louisiana, and Kansas having been made the theatre of war, thereby disorganizing trade, are consequently not fully represented in this estimate; and California, as it will be observed, is entirely omitted. Still, without them, the aggregate shows 168,925 business houses, representing a wealth of $4,944,766,000 mostly invested in personal property. It is generally conceded that the average profits of trade range from twelve to fifteen per cent; but assuming the low figures of ten per cent, we have $494,476,000 as the accrued gain the past year on the business interests spoken of. This, in view of the unprecedented expenditure necessarily incurred, both by heavy taxation and in otherwise sustaining the Government, exhibits the self-supporting character of our people, and but one element of the strength of the country, which, when added to the other immense resources not brought into our estimate, such as real estate, agricultural, mining, and other interests, should inspire the most hopeful confidence in our future growth and permanent prosperity.

Faithfully, yours,

R. G. Dun & Co.

R. G. DUN AND CO.'S STATISTICAL TABLE, SHOWING THE ESTIMATED WEALTH OF THE MERCHANTS, MANUFACTURERS, AND TRADERS THROUGHOUT THE NORTHERN STATES.

States and principal cities.	Business houses.	Wealth.	States and principal cities.	Business houses.	Wealth.
Connecticut...	5,832	$145,588,000	Michigan	5,934	$83,943,000
Delaware	1,150	24,701,000	Missouri*	3,263	81,334,000
Dis't. Columbia	1,282	17,448,000	Minnesota	979	7,602,000
Illinois.....	12,215	207,508,000	N. Hampshire.	2,851	38,685,000
Indiana	8,512	134,240,000	New Jersey ..	5,910	90,250,000
Iowa	5,052	38,532,000	New York....	36,932	1,677,204,000
Kansas*.....	438	3,357,000	Ohio.....	17,005	310,725,000
Kentucky*....	1,528	39,559,000	Pennsylvania..	22,941	733,296,000
Louisiana* (N. O. only)....	802	50,794,000	Rhode Island..	2,487	115,704,000
Maine.....	4,982	99,293,000	Vermont	2,494	19,989,000
Maryland	3,665	102,359,000	Wisconsin	5,369	53,775,000
Massachusetts.	17,302	868,815,000	Total.....	168,925	$4,944,766,000

* These States, in consequence of the disorganized state of trade caused by the rebellion, are not fully represented.

REPORT OF THE SECRETARY OF THE TREASURY.

In our last issue we noticed some of the suggestions contained in the Report of the Secretary of the Treasury. We now give the more important facts and figures. The report for the previous year will be found in vol. 50, p. 39, of the *Merchants' Magazine.*

RECEIPTS AND EXPENDITURES FOR 1863.

The following is a statement of the receipts and expenditures, estimated and actual, for the year ending June 30, 1863, including balance for the preceeding year:

Receipts.

	Estimated.	Actual.
From customs	$72,562,018	$102,316,152
Lands	436,183	588,333
Miscellaneous	5,641,542	47,511,488
Direct tax	.....	475,648
Internal revenue	77,599,713	109,741,134
Total	$156,239,456	$260,632,717
Add balance July 1, 1863	5,329,044	5,329,044
Aggregate	$161,568,500	$265,961,761
Estimated receipts from loans	594,000,000	618,114,884
Total	$755,568,500	$884,076,646

Expenditures.

	Estimated.	Actual.
For civil service	$34,267.811	$2,755,599
Pensions and Indians	7,840,314	7,517,930
War Department	885,479,511	690,791,842
Navy Department	112,799,186	85,733,292
Interest on debt	59,165,136	53,685,421
Total	$1,099,731,960	$865,234,087
Deduct estimated	350,000,000	
Total	$749,731,960	
Estimated balance	5,836,539	18,842,558
From actual receipts from loans		618,114,884
Deduct balance on hand July 1, 1864		18,842,558
It shows the amount received from loans applied to the service of the year ending June 30, 1864		959,272,326

The statement may be more intelligible in another form, as follows:

Actual expenditures for the fiscal year	$865,234,087
Deduct receipts from ordinary sources and balance from preceding year	265,961,761
Balance provided from loans applied to the service of the year	599,272,316

The amount derived from loans specifically stated, is as follows:

Five-twenty bonds, act February 25, 1862	321,557,283
Fractional currency exceeding amount redeemed	2,702,421
Six per cent bonds, act July 17, 1861	30,565,875
Ten-forty bonds, act March 3, 1864	73,337,600
Twenty years six per cents, act March 3, 1863	42,141,771

United States notes, act February 25, 1862	43,869,821
One year five per cent notes, act March 3, 1863	44,520,000
Two year five per cent notes, act March 3, 1863	152,864,800
Three year six per cent compound interest notes	15,000,000
Certificates of indebtedness exceeding amount redeemed	4,098,758
Whole amount	$730,642,410
Of which amount there was applied to repayment of public debt	112,527,526
Which deducted, it leaves applicable to expenditures	618,114,884
Deduct balance July 1, 1864	18,842,558
Balance applied to the service of the year	$599,272,326

National Debt.

The public debt, as stated by my predecessor in his report of December 10, 1863, was	$1,098,793,181
To this amount should be added amounts paid into the Treasury previous to July 1, 1863, for which evidences of debt were subsequently issued	23,782,423
Amount of debt July 1, 1863	1,122,575,604
Add amount of loans applied to actual expenditures, as above, and balance in the Treasury July 1, 1864	618,114,884
It gives the amount of public debt July 1, 1864	1,740,690,489

RECEIPTS FROM MISCELLANEOUS SOURCES.

The very large comparative receipts from miscellaneous sources require explanation. They are accounted for as follows, viz.:

From captured and abandoned property	$2,146,715
Premium on gold shipped from San Francisco to London	2,799,920
Sales of prizes due to captors	4,088,111
Internal and coastwise intercourse fees	5,809,287
Premium for sales of gold coin	16,498,975
Commutation money	12,451,896
All other sources	3,716,542
Total	$47,511,448

The Secretary is of the opinion that not over $25,000,000 can be safely calculated upon as likely to accrue from similar sources during the current year.

FINANCIAL OPERATIONS ABROAD.

The item of "premium on gold shipped from San Francisco to London" may also require further explanation. In March, 1863, it became necessary to transmit a considerable amount of funds to London for a special purpose, for which an appropriation had been made by Congress; and it was thought advisable to deposit a certain amount of our securities with an eminent London banker, against which bills might be drawn. Five-twenty bonds to the amount of ten millions were accordingly placed in the hands of two distinguished citizens, to whose care the negotiation was committed. The negotiation failed, and the ten millions were returned to the Treasury and disposed of. It was thought advisable that the amount of four millions should remain, and that exchange should be drawn against it and the bonds disposed of abroad if a favorable market should be found. It appears, however, that very nearly this amount of issue is in excess of the five hundred and eleven millions authorized by existing loans, $510,756,900 having been disposed of. It is at least questionable whether by this clause power is conferred to dispose of an amount beyond that fixed by existing laws. Additional legislation may remove that doubt, should Congress think it advisable, otherwise they may be cancelled. Exchange having been drawn, it became necessary to provide funds to meet the bills at maturity, which was accomplished by shipments of gold from California.

ESTIMATED EXPENSES OF THE CURRENT FISCAL YEAR.

The expenditures for the current fiscal year were estimated in the last report of the Secretary as follows, viz.:

Estimated balance of former appropriations	$350,000,000
For the civil service	27,973,194
For pensions and Indians	9,681,303
For the War Department	536,204,127
For the Navy Department	142,618,785
For interest on the public debt	85,337,677
Aggregate	$1,151,815,089
Deducting as likely to remain unexpended on the 30th June, 1864	$400,000,000
Leaving to be provided for	751,815,089
And the receipts from ordinary sources were estimated in the aggregate at	206,836,539
Leaving to be provided by loans	544,978,549

This estimate, like all others of a similar character, was necessarily based on past experience with regard to unexpended balances, and upon estimates from the different departments, which, in a time of war, must be liable to great uncertainty. Additional information enables me to state the probable expenditures with a near approach to accuracy, as corrected, by including so much of the actual balance of former appropriations as is liable to be used during the year, those made at the last session of Congress, the additional amounts called for to meet probable deficiencies, and reducing the balance of unexpended appropriations at the end of the year, as from amounts expended during the first quarter, would seem necessary. The estimate is as follows, viz.:

Actual unexpended balances as above	$330,387,050
For the War Department	625,945,741
For the Navy Department	110,047,459
For the civil service	21,796,572
For pensions and Indians	6,550,089
Indefinite appropriations	9,152,007
Total	$1,153,918,920
Add interest on public debt	$91,810,215
Add public debt matured and maturing during the year, viz.:	
Certificates of indebtedness	160,729,000
Texas debt	2,149,000
Loan of 1842	196,803
Treasury notes under act of March 2, 1861, and prior thereto	278,511
Total	$1,409,082,455

OUTSTANDING CERTIFICATES OF DEBT.

The amount of certificates outstanding on the 1st November, 1864, was $238,593,000. This being a much larger amount than the market ought to bear, it would not be wise to calculate upon these securities as available for the service of the year beyond $75,000,000.

THE RESOURCES FOR THE CURRENT YEAR.

The available probable resources for the current year may then be stated as follows:

From customs	$70,271,091
Lands	642,165
Internal revenue	249,562,859
Miscellaneous resources	24,020,171

Direct tax	16,079
Certificates of indebtedness	75,000,000
Total	$419,512,389
To this should be added probably unexpended balances, June 30, 1865	350,000,000
Balance of cash July 1, 1864	18,842,558
Total resources	$788,354,947
Which, deducted from expenditures, leaves balance to be provided for by loans	620,727,508
If, however, an additional sum of fifty millions should be realized, as proposed by the Commissioner, from internal duties, the amount to be raised by loans would be	570,727,508
From this should be deducted the public debt redeemed	88,353,320
Leaving an increase of public debt at the close of the year	482,374,188

[*Note.*—In addition to the liabilities before stated, it may be mentioned that the seven-thirty notes, now called the issue of 1861, and the one year five per cent legal tenders, amounting to $43,585,000, also become payable during the current year. The conversion of the former being provided for, however, by the act of August, 1861, and the latter, by a power of substitution, under the act of June 30, 1864, they have been excluded from this estimate. The amount of seven-thirty notes redeemed in money to November 1, 1864, is only $63,500, charged to current expenditure, while the whole amount converted to that date is $125,864,900.]

RECEIPTS AND EXPENDITURES FOR 1864–65.

Stated in the usual form, by taking the actual receipts and expenditures of the first quarter as a distinct basis of calculation, the result is the same, viz.: For the first quarter of the current year, ending September 30, 1864, the actual receipts, as shown by the books of the Treasury, were as follows:

From customs	$19,271,091
From lands	342,185
From direct tax	16,079
From internal revenue	46,562,850
From miscellaneous sources	9,020,171
Total receipts	$75,212,889
Add balance in Treasury July 1, 1864	18,843,558
Receipts from all sources excepting loans	$94,054,947

For the three remaining quarters, ending on the 30th of June, 1865, the estimates are:

From customs	$51,000,000	
Internal revenue	203,000,000	
Lands	30,000,000	
Miscellaneous sources	15,000,000	
Total		$269,000,000
Total receipts from ordinary sources, actual and estimated, with balance on hand July 1, 1864		$363,354,947

The expenditures for the first quarter, ending September 30, 1864, were as follows:

Civil service	$8,712,422
Pensions and Indians	4,935,179
War Department	286,200,288
Navy Department	33,292,916
Interest on public debt	19,921,054
Total, exclusive of principal of public debt	$353,061,861

For the three remaining quarters the estimated expenditures, based upon appropriations and estimated deficiencies, are:

For the civil service	$26,852,489
For pensions and Indians	6,516,595
For War Department	677,479,384
For Navy Department	109,939,644
For interest on public debt	71,889,160
Total of expenditures, actual and estimated	$1,245,729,135

These estimates include all unexpended appropriations from former years, and there may be deducted, as a probable unexpended balance at the close of the year, $350,000,000, leaving the total amount, actual and estimated, for the current year, $875,729,135. Deducting the receipts from the total of expenditures, actual and estimated, there will remain $512,374,188.

THE DEFICIENCY.

If Congress should adopt the measures for increasing the internal revenue at an early day, the Secretary believes there may be added to the receipts from that source $50,000,000, which being deducted, there would remain to be provided $482,374,188.

THE PUBLIC DEBT.

The public debt, matured and maturing during the year, is, as before stated, $163,353,320. From this may be deducted, as likely to be provided for by new certificates of indebtedness, $75,000,000. Add this sum ($88,353,320) to the balance to be provided for the expenditures of the year, viz. $482,374,188, and it makes the whole amount to be provided from loans $570,727,508. But as this would include so much of the existing public debt as would be redeemed, exceeding certificates issued within the year, viz., $88,353,320, this sum is to be deducted from the amount to be obtained by loans, viz. $570,727,508, showing the probable increase of the public debt during the year to be $482,374,188, which, added to $1,740,690,489, would make the public debt on July 1, 1865, $2,223,064,677, subject to such increase as may be occasioned should Congress not provide for additional revenue, or should the income from ordinary sources fall short of the estimate submitted.

ESTIMATED RECEIPTS AND EXPENDITURES.

Any estimate which may be made of the probable receipts and expenditures for the next fiscal year must necessarily be liable to still greater uncertainty. This remark applies more particularly to expenditures, for while, if existing laws remain unchanged, the amount of revenue may be calculated with reasonable certainty, it is impossible to anticipate what the exigencies of war may require. On the one hand this may call for increased effort, and on the other, it may be confidently hoped that the great struggle is near its termination, and that, consequently, the estimate now submitted will prove far beyond the wants of the year. While any doubt remains, however, it would be unsafe to assume any other basis of calculation than one predicated upon the existing state of affairs.

The receipts for the year ending June 30, 1866, are estimated as follows:

From customs	$70,000,000
Internal duties	300,000,000
Lands	1,000,000
Miscellaneous sources	25,000,000
Aggregate	$396,000,000

The expenditures are estimated as follows:

Balance of unexpended appropriations	$350,000,000
For the civil service	33,082,097
Pensions and Indians	14,196,050
The War Department	531,758,191
Navy Department	112,219,666
Interest on public debt	127,000,000
Aggregate	$1,168,256,005
But from this aggregate there may be deducted as likely to remain unexpended at the close of the year	350,000,000
Total	$818,256,005

Deduct estimated receipts from ordinary sources, $396,000,000, there will remain to be provided for by loans $422,256,005. To this should be added for redemption of excess of certificates of indebtedness $47,365,000, making the whole amount to be provided for by loans $469,621,005. Assuming the correctness of these estimates, the whole debt on the first day of July, 1866, would be found by adding the foregoing amount of $422,25,6005 to the estimated debt in July 1, 1865, $2.223,064,677, giving $2,645,320,682 as the amount of the debt at the close of the next fiscal year.

This calculation is made on the same basis of receipts as that assumed for the current year. It is quite probable, in the judgment of the Commissioner of Internal Revenue, that $300,000,000 may be received in another year from that source, without the additional legislation suggested by him. Should this supposition be verified, and the new taxes proposed for this year be laid and continued, an additional $50,000,000 might be expected from internal revenue. The Secretary has, however, thought it wiser to name $300,000,000 as all that would probably be realized.

NATIONAL BANKS OF THE UNITED STATES.

From the Annual Report of the Comptroller of the Currency to the Secretary of the Treasury.

Since my last annual report two hundred and eighty-two new banks have been organized, and one hundred and sixty-eight State banks have been changed into national ones. Of the one hundred banks last organized, sixty-seven have been conversions of State banks, and nearly all the papers now being filed are for the change of State banks into national associations.

There are now in existence, under the national currency act, five hundred and eighty-four associations, which are located in the following States:

In Maine	18	In Ohio	84
In New-Hampshire	9	In Michigan	15
In Vermont	10	In Indiana	34
In Massachusetts	67	In Illinois	38
In Rhode Island	2	In Wisconsin	15
In Connecticut	20	In Minnesota	4
In New York	100	In Iowa	20

In New Jersey	16	In Missouri	7
In Pennsylvania	109	In Kansas	1
In Delaware	1	In Nebraska Territory	1
In Maryland	8	In Kentucky	1
In District of Columbia	2	In Tennessee	3
In Virginia	1	In Louisiana	1
In West Virginia	2		

A detailed statement of the affairs of each bank on the first Monday of October last, with an abstract of the condition of all of them in the aggregate on that day, is herewith submitted, together with the names and compensation of the clerks, and the total expenses of the bureau for the fiscal year.

A large proportion of the circulating notes which have been furnished by the Comptroller was intended to take the place, and is taking the place of the circulation of such State banks as have been converted into national ones, or of those whose notes have been voluntarily retired, or have been returned from those parts of the country in which the notes of the United States and of the national banks are alone current; so that the currency delivered to the national banks is not, and will not, be altogether an addition to the paper money of the country, but rather, to a considerable extent, the substitution of it for that of the State banks.

The paid-in capital of the banks in the respective States and Territories. the currency delivered to them, (a considerable portion of which has not been put in circulation,) and the bonds deposited with the Treasurer to secure their notes, are as follows:

State.	Capital stock paid in.	Circulation.	Bonds.
Maine	$2,749,800 00	$1,887,880	$2,244,500
New Hampshire	1,120,000 00	552,700	944,000
Vermont	1,149,000 00	1,311,800	1,636,000
Rhode Island	700,000 00	414,000	560,000
Massachusetts	25,909,040 00	12,536,850	16,888,650
Connecticut	5,176,638 00	4,084,050	4,525,500
New York	20,599,175 03	12,584,950	14,064,600
Pennsylvania	21,120,148 88	10,183,830	14,964,100
New Jersey	2,141,249 00	1,756,170	2,011,000
Delaware	300,000 00	200,000	250,000
Maryland	1,560,000 00	1,245,000	1,400,000
District of Columbia	600,000 00	477,000	534,000
Virginia	95,025 00	95,000	112,000
West Virginia	206,950 00	140,000	230,000
Ohio	10,035,165 86	7,505,880	8,749,850
Kentucky	200,000 00	162,000	184,000
Indiana	4,201,671 26	3,148,400	3,924,100
Illinois	4,147,887 25	3,396,560	3,794,600
Michigan	1,065,090 00	797,800	943,500
Wisconsin	1,040,277 00	774,500	903,050
Minnesota	590,000 00	442,000	603,000
Iowa	1,215,000 00	945,200	1,092,000
Nebraska Territory	40,000 00	27,000	30,000
Kansas	100,000 00	49,000	55,000
Missouri	1,621,530 00	722,000	865,000
Tennessee	340,000 00	234,380	263,000
Louisiana	500,000 00	180,000	200,000
Total	$108,964,597 28	$65,864,650	$81,961,450

It is, perhaps, to be regretred that so many new banks have been organized in States where, before the passage of the act, there was no deficiency of banking capital. There would have been less cause for apprehension that banking capital in any of the States was being too rapidly increased, if, by suitable legislation

of the States, State banks had been sooner authorized to avail themselves of the benefits of the national currency act, and the managers of banks, where the necessary legislation had been obtained, had more promptly discerned the inevitable tendency of the public sentiment, and co-operated with the government in its efforts to nationalize the bank note circulation of the country. It was not the intention of the originators and friends of the system, nor has it been the policy of the Comptroller, to swell, through the instrumentality of the national banks, the volume of paper money. On the contrary, the system was designed to check over-issues, by requiring ample security for every dollar which should be put into circulation; and it has been the aim of the Comptroller so to administer the law as to prevent, instead of encouraging, an unhealthy and dangerous expansion of credits.

* * * * * * * * *

Of course this system depends for its success upon the maintenance of the faith and credit of the nation, which, in their turn, depend upon the preservation of the national integrity. If these fail, the national banking system will fail; but it will go down with all other important interests, and will be but a part of the general wreck. That such a calamity is not in store for us is the confident hope and belief of all true men of the loyal States. The anxieties and apprehensions which have existed heretofore on this point are rapidly disappearing, as the loyal mind of the United States has hardened to the inexorable resolution that the Union shall be preserved, and the public credit shall be maintained, no matter what sacrifices and burdens the execution of this resolution may involve.

It is a common objection to the national banking system, on the part of some who favor a national currency, that it will deprive the government of the privilege it might safely use, and the field it might profitably occupy, by the continued circulation of its own notes. Why, it is asked, should not the government drive out of circulation all bank notes, and continue to issue, as it has done since the commencement of the war, its own notes, and thus save the interest which otherwise will go to the banks? In answer, I would remark:

The banking interest in the United States is an important one; it has grown with the business of the country, and has been largely instrumental in developing the national resources and in increasing the national wealth. Banks of issue, badly and dishonestly as many of them have been managed, and disastrous as have been the failures which bad management and dishonesty have produced, have still been of unquestionable advantage to the people. The capital of the country has been largely, and in good faith, invested in them, and thousands of stockholders depend upon the dividends upon their bank stock for support. It is an interest which has stood by the government in its struggles with a gigantic rebellion; and now, when it is indispensable that the government should control the issues of paper money, there has been created a national banking system, not to destroy the State banks but to absorb them, and that, too, without prejudice to their stockholders.

Governments should not be bankers. None has existed which could be safely trusted with the privilege of permanently issuing its own notes as money. Circulating notes have been issued under peculiar circumstances by other governments, as it is now being done by that of the United States; but the judgment of the world is against it as a permanent policy, and nothing but an overpowering public exigency will at any time justify it. Under popular institutions like ours, no more dangerous, no more corrupting power could be lodged in the hands of the party in possession of the government; none more perilous to official probity and free elections. Give to a party dominant in the legislative and executive branches of the government the authority of issuing paper money for the purpose of furnishing the country with its currency, subject as it would be to no restraint but its own pleasure, and what guaranty would there be that this authority would be honestly and judiciously used? If there were no risk in the preparation of the notes, and checks were provided to make fraudulent issues an impossibility, the power of issuing government promises as a circulating medium is too.

dangerous a one to be conferred upon any party, except under extraordinary circumstances.

The present issue of United States notes as lawful money, and the decisions of the courts sustaining the constitutionality of the issue, have been justified by the consideration that under a great public necessity, when the nation's life is in peril, policies must be framed and laws must be interpreted with a view to the preservation of the government. This is the paramount consideration to which all others must bend. Whatever opinions may have been, in times past, entertained in regard to United States notes, and the expediency as well as the constitutionality of the law making them a legal tender, there are now, I apprehend, very few intelligent persons who are not persuaded that without these notes, and the character of lawful money given to them by Congress and confirmed by the courts, the credit of the nation would have given way at the very outbreak of the rebellion. When the war has been concluded, and the exigency which made the issue of government notes a necessity has ceased to exist, there will be very few to advocate the continued use of them on the ground of economy.

If, however, there were no objections of the kind alluded to, there are other objections to the permanent issue of circulating notes by the government, which must be apparent to all who have considered the object and uses of a paper currency.

Paper money has been found to be useful, or rather an absolute necessity in all commercial countries for the convenient transaction of business, and as a circulating representative of values too large to be represented by coin. Although the fruitful cause of great evils, by reason of its unregulated use, and of its uncertain and frequently deceptive character, the general utility of it can hardly be questioned. Now, what is needed in a paper circulating medium is, that it should be convertible into coin; that it should be sufficient in amount to answer the purposes of legitimate business; that it should not, on the one hand, by being over-issued, encourage extravagance and speculation, and give an artificial and unreliable value to property; nor, on the other hand, by being reduced below the proper standard, interrupt business and unsettle values. It should be supplied to just the extent of the demands of a healthy trade. It should be increased as the regular business of the country may require its increase, and be diminished as the proper demand for it is diminished.

It is not pretended that banks of issue have furnished this kind of circulation. Bank notes, with few exceptions, have been convertible into coin when there was no demand for coin, and inconvertible when there was. They have, too generally, been issued for the exclusive benefit of the bankers, and not for the convenience of the public, and they have encouraged speculation, when their true mission was to facilitate trade. It has been the bane of a bank-note circulation, that it has been expanded by the avarice of the bankers, and contracted by the distrust that over-issues have created.

Now, this objection to a bank-note circulation applies with much greater force to government issues. There is always inducement enough for banks to keep up a full circulation, and against excessive issues there are the restrictions of law and the liability to redeem. Government notes, in the issue thereof, would be regulated only by the necessities of the government or the interests of the party in power. At one time they might be increased altogether beyond the needs of commerce and trade, thereby enhancing prices and inducing speculation; at another, they might be so reduced as to embarrass business and precipitate financial disasters. They would be incomparably worse in this respect than a bank-note currency, because the power that should control circulation would be the power that furnishes it. Supplied by an authority not in sympathy with trade, they would not be accommodated to the requirements of trade. They might be the fullest in volume when there was the least demand for a full circulation, and the most contracted when there was a healthy demand for an increase. They would eventually become an undesirable circulation, because there would be no way in which the redemption of them could be enforced; they would be a

dangerous circulation, because they would be under the control of political parties; an unreliable circulation, because, having no connection with trade and commerce, they would not be regulated by their necessities.

There are objections to all kinds of paper money; but, in some form, it is a commercial necessity, and no form has yet been contrived so little objectionable as that which is authorized by the national currency act. Under this act the government performs its proper functions by exercising one of its constitutional powers for the regulation of commerce, by fixing the maximum of bank-note circulation, securing its solvency, and giving to it nationality of character and uniformity of value. It takes the promises, which are to go among the people through the national banks, put its seal upon them, and guarantees *their* redemption, as it takes the precious ore from the mines—the property of individuals—coins it into money of the United States and fixes the value thereof. It thus performs the proper offices of government. In doing so it interferes with no State rights, meddles with no man's lawful pursuits. It stands between the bankers and the people, and while it protects the latter from imposition in the use of a bank-note currency, it trespasses upon no privileges of the former. Without becoming a banker, and without, as in the case of the charter of the United States Bank, conferring peculiar if not dangerous privileges upon a single corporation, it provides a national circulation, indispensable for its own use and safety in the collection of its internal revenues, and suited to the circumstances of the country.

But while the national currency act is restrictive in its general provisions, and is expected, when generally adopted, to prevent expansions, there is still danger that too much capital will be invested under it during the suspension of specie payments, and in the existing unsettled condition of our political and financial affairs. When money is plenty, and fortunes are being rapidly acquired, the country is always in a feverish and unhealthy state. This is especially true at the present time. The enormous expenditures of the government, and the great advances in prices since the commencement of the war, have made many persons suddenly rich, and, upon fortunes suddenly acquired, have followed reckless expenditures, extravagance, waste. Speculation is taking the place of sober and persevering industry, and thousands are deluded with the notion that the wealth of the nation is being increased by the increase of its indebtedness. The inauguration of a new system of banking, under such circumstances, is peculiarly hazardous; and I have been, from the time of my appointment, more apprehensive that too many banks would be organized, than that the system would not be sufficiently attractive to induce capitalists to become connected with it. The government is the great borrower. Its obligation compose a large portion of the discount line of the banks, which are making large profits on government securities at little apparent risk, and the danger is, that the national banking system, with all its restrictions, may, during the suspension of specie payments, and the continuance of the war, add to the plethora of paper money; and that, when the war is over, the banks, deprived of the existing means of investment in government obligations, and finding no legitimate use for their capitals, may be tempted to use them in encouraging operations that will eventually prove to be as unprofitable to themselves, as they will be injurious to the country. For the double purpose, therefore, of keeping down the national circulation as far as it has seemed possible to do it, consistently with the establishment of the system throughout the country, and preventing an increase of banking capital that might hereafter be instrumental in keeping up the inflation and retarding the resumption of specie payments, or prove unprofitable to its owners, I have felt it to be my duty to discourage, in many instances, the organization of new banks, and in more instances to refuse my sanction to the increase of the capital of those already organized. In doing so, I may seem to have exercised a power not warranted by the act; but if not sustained by its letter, I have been by its spirit, and I am willing to let the future decide as to the correctness or incorrectness of my course.

* * * * * * * * *

Some important amendments are required to the act, in order that it should be fully accommodated to the wants and business of the country.

The provisions in regard to the lawful money reserve, and the distribution of the assets of insolvent banks, require modification.

I am still of the opinion that the rates of interest to be charged by the national banks should be fixed by Congress, and not by the States.

There are too many points at which the banks may redeem their notes. All, with the exception of those in Philadelphia and Boston, should redeem in New-York. The banks ought to be compelled by law to retain a part, if not all the coin received by them, for interest on their gold-bearing bonds, in order that they may be prepared to lend their influence in favor of a return to specie payments; and some provisions should be introduced by which, when specie payments are resumed, excessive importation of goods may be checked, and dangerous exportations of coin may be prevented.

It is of the greatest importance that the national currency system should be independent of politics and freed from political influences. To effect this, and to facilitate the business of the banks with the Comptroller, I am clearly of opinion that the bureau should be made an independent department, and removed from Washington to Philadelphia or New-York.

I do not, however, recommend that any amendments be made by the present Congress. The act will do well enough as it is for another year. When the next Congress assembles, the defects in it will be better understood, by the practical working of the system, than they can be at the present time. The act can then be taken up, and, with the light which the experience of another year has thrown upon it, judiciously amended.

REPORT OF POSTMASTER GENERAL.

THE postal revenues for the year ending the 30th June last were $12,438.253 78, and the expenditures of this department during the same period were $12,644,786 20, showing an excess of the latter of $206,532 42

The increase of expenditures in 1864, compared with those of 1863 is 11¼ per centum, and the increase in the revenues for the same year 11¼ per cent.

This exhibit promises an increase of the revenues for 1865 over the estimate submitted in the report of last year.

During the fiscal year 334,054,610 postage stamps, of the value of $10,177,327: 26,044,300 stamped envelopes amounting to $765.512 50: and 1,574,500 newspaper wrappers amounting to $31,490, were issued. The total value of these *issues* was $10,974,329 50, which compared with the issue of the previous year, (10,338,760) shows an increase of $635,569 50, or about six and one-eight per cent. The value of the stamps, and stamped envelopes sold was $10,776,589 58, and the amount used in the prepayment of postage was $9,878,155 61.

Notwithstanding the advance of every article used in the manufacture of stamps, and the large increase in the number required by the department, the National Bank Note Company, of New York, have fulfilled, in a satisfactory manner, all their obligations.

The length of routes in operation 30th June last was 139,173 miles, and the service as follows, viz.: Railroad, 22,616 miles; steamboat, 7,278 miles; "celerity, certainty, and security," 109,278 miles—costing $5,818,469, divided as follows, viz.: Railroad, 23,301.942 miles of transportation at $2,567,044, about 11 cents a mile; steamboat, 2,112,134 at $253,274, about 12 cents a mile; "celerity, certainty, and security," 30,901,281 at $2,998,151, about 9 7-10 cents a mile.

Under an advertisement dated March 22, 1864, inviting proposals for service from Atchison, Kansas, or St. Joseph, Missouri, to Folsom City, California,

JOHN H. HEISTAND, of Lancaster, Pennsylvania, was the lowest bidder, at $750,000 per annum; but his bid having been subsequently withdrawn, contracts have been made with BEN. HOLLADAY, of New York, for the service between Atchison, or St. Joseph, and Salt Lake City, at $365,000, and with WM. B. DINSMORE, President of the Overland Mail Company, also of New York, from Salt Lake City to Folsom City, at $385,000, making an aggregate $750,000 per annum. These parties are believed to be able to fulfill their obligations. The contracts are from October 1, 1864, to September 30, 1868; the trips to be made in sixteen days eight months in the year, and in twenty days the remaining four months; to convey through letter mails only, mail matter prepaid at letter rates, and all local or way mails.

Paper and document mails for the Pacific coast are to be carried by sea, *via* New York and Panama, temporary arrangements having been made for their conveyance, within the sum named in the law of March 25, 1864, viz: $160,000 per annum, making the whole expense of territorial and Pacific mails not over $910,000 per annum, or $90,000 less than under the former contract.

In this connection it is proper to add that, from information which has recently reached me, I am apprehensive that the postal service in the Pacific States is not in as good condition as should be desired; and I may have occasion to communicate with Congress upon the subject during its approaching session.

Inquiry has been made of Lieutenant-General GRANT relative to the existing arrangements for supplying our armies with mails, with the assurance of my earnest purpose to co-operate with him in carrying into effect any desired improvements of that service; and I am gratified to learn, from his reply, that the system of receiving and forwarding mails now in operation is entirely satisfactory; and that "our soldiers receive their mail matter with as much regularity and promptness as is possible for armies in the field, and with perhaps as much celerity and security as the most favored portions of the country.

The aggregate postage (sea, inland, and foreign) upon the correspondence exchanged with Great Britain, Prussia, France, Hamburg, Bremen, and Belgium, amounted to $1,399,605 69, being an increase of $174,930 48, as compared with the last year, and $21,458 37 in excess of the largest amount realized in any previous fiscal year. The collections in this country amounted to $881,730 68, and in Europe to $517,875 01; excess of collections in the United States $363,855 67. This result is significant and gratifying, showing a largely increased correspondence with Europe, notwithstanding the civil troubles agitating the country, and the interruption of postal communications with the Southern States.

The amount paid by this department for mail steamship service to and from Europe was $371,740 44—the steamships employed receiving the sea postage on the mails conveyed as compensation for the service. Of this amount the Liverpool and New York and Philadelphia Steamship Company received $202,914 34 for fifty-two outward and fifty-three inward trips between New York, Queenstown, and Liverpool; the Canadian mail packets, $77,175 30 for fifty-three round trips between Portland and Liverpool and Quebec and Liverpool; the North German Lloyd Steamship Company, $46,149 61 for sixteen outward and fifteen inward trips, and the New York and Hamburg Steamship Company, $45,501 18 for thirteen outward and twelve inward trips, between New York and Southampton.

The total postages on the correspondence exchanged with British North American Provinces during the year amounted to $307,371 39, being an increase of $81,628 09 over the amount reported last year, and $129,618 88 over that for the previous fiscal year.

The total postages on the mails conveyed to and from the West Indies amounted to $59,990 18, and the cost of transporting the same to and from Havana and other West India ports was $40,337 03, being $19,653 15 less than the United States postages on the mails conveyed.

The provisions of the 4th section of the act of June 15, 1860, have not been construed by this department as *requiring* the Postmaster General to allow the

sea and inland postages on the mails conveyed, to all American vessels, but simply as limiting the compensation in any case to that amount.

The United States postages upon the correspondence exchanged with Central and South America, *via* Aspinwall and Panama, amounted to $14,208 51, all of which was paid to CORNELIUS VANDERBILT for the sea and Isthmus transportation.

The initiatory steps taken to conclude postal arrangements with the colonies of Vancouver's Island and British Columbia, referred to in the last annual report, have not as yet been attended with the success anticipated.

In conformity with the provisions of the act "to authorize the establishment of ocean mail steamship service between the United States and Brazil," approved May 28, 1864, an advertisement was issued inviting proposals for carrying the mails of the United States by a monthly line of first class American sea-going steamships, between a port of the United States north of the Potomac River, and Rio Janeiro, in Brazil, touching at St. Thomas, in the West Indies, and at Pernambuco and Bahia, in Brazil, for a contract term of ten years, to commence on or before the first day of September, 1865, and to date from the day the first steamship of such line shall leave the United States with the mails for Brazil. Three proposals were received for this service, the lowest and the accepted bid being that of the New York, Nuevitas, and Cuba Steamship Company, with THOMAS ASENCIO & Co. and MANUEL J. MORA, of New York, as guarantors for the performance of the required service, at the sum of $240,000 per annum, to be divided equally between the two governments. The act authorizing the establishment of this line of American steamships was the beginning of a new era in the history of our ocean mail service, which is being performed principally by steamers sailing under foreign flag.

There are other ocean routes besides the one to Brazil, which can be safely and profitably occupied by American lines of mail steamers, among which the route between San Francisco, Japan, and China, at present unoccupied by foreign mail packets, is perhaps the most important in a commercial point of view.

Various considerations render it important that the Pacific routes properly belonging to us, should be occupied by American mail steamers, the profits of which with the addition of a small subsidy for the mail service, would justify the establishment of one or more steamship lines, which would be remunerative to the proprietors.

The number of dead letters of every description received and examined during the year was 3,508,825, being an increase of 958,409 over the preceding year, attributable mainly to the return of large numbers of army and navy letters which it was found impracticable to deliver.

During the year there were registered and remailed to their respective owners, as containing money, 25,752 letters, containing an aggregate of $131,611 24, of which number 20,059 containing $104,665 84, were delivered; 4,412 letters, containing $20,485 49, were returned to the department, being addressed chiefly to soldiers and sailors, and persons transiently at places of mailing or address.

NAVAL ORDNANCE.

The Chief of the Bureau of Ordnance (H. A. WISE) makes an elaborate report to the Secretary of the Navy, setting forth in detail the results of the year and the experiments made with new inventions. The growing demands of the navy have been fully supplied; 1,522 guns of different calibres having been manufactured during the year. The present aggregate is not stated in the report. In the rifled ordnance adopted, no changes have been made, except in the introduction of a 60-pounder among the Parrotts. This, as an intermediate between the 30 and 100-pounder, has been found of great service as a chase gun, fully supplying the place of the 50 pounder of Admiral DAHLGREN's system. It is gener-

ally used as a pivot gun, and, as its bore corresponds with that of the army smooth bore 18-pounder, the round projectile of the latter is always available where high velocities are needed at close range.

Bronze howitzers and rifles have been introduced, as the special armament of many transports of the War Department. As a special gun for long range in chase, the 20-pounder three grooved rifle is preferred, and it now occupies a prominent place in the armament of the double-ender vessels.

ARMAMENTS OF SHIPS OF WAR.

The governing rule in arming our ships of war is to furnish batteries of the very heaviest guns they can bear with safety. Nine-inch guns are generally used for broadside; 10 and 11-inch guns and Parrott rifles on pivot; 15-inch guns for monitors; and bronze howitzers and rifles for boat and deck service in shore. A few of our ships continue to be armed with the 32-pounder and 8-inch gun of the old system, but these will probably give way to the modified guns of similar classes.

The battery of a first-rate ship of war is forty eight cannon and four howitzers, one of the guns being a rifled 150-pounder; that of a second-rate is twenty-four guns, including two rifled 100-pounders and two howitzers; of a third-rate ten guns, including two rifled 100-pounders; of a fourth-rate four guns, including one rifled 20-pounder. The development of the power of ships named in the report as representatives of the several rates is as follows:

	In shot, lbs.	In shell, lbs.
First rate	2,606	2,123
Second rate	1,220	990
Third rate	434	343
Fourth rate	210	183
and	294	255
In the monitors:		
Tonawanda	1,764	1,320
Onondaga	1,180	930
Montauk	606	465
In the Western gunboat:		
Carondelat	583	480

These figures express the weight of metal thrown for breaching purposes by the guns at a single broadside in solid shot or shells. Conjoined with these, however, are the destructive agencies of grape, canister, and shrapnel, available at all times in the general course of naval warfare, but especially when used against uncovered masses of men. The effective power of a ship is therefore increased in a very great degree by these auxiliaries, which are common to both rifle and smooth bores, excepting grape, which is not used in the rifles.

PIVOT GUNS.

The decisive power of the heavy pivot gun, strikingly exemplified in the fight between the Kearsarge and Alabama, is dwelt upon in the report, and the following comment is added:

"There can be no question with regard to the superiority of the 11-inch guns over the Blakely 120-pounder and the 68-pounder of the English pivot system, either in penetration, smashing effect of the shot, or explosive power of the shells. Hence, although the vessels were nearly equally matched as to tonnage, motive power, and number of men and guns, yet the preponderating influence of calibre, properly disposed in pivot, and coolly and deliberately handled by American seamen, was sufficient to settle the question briefly and most conclu-

sively. For the Alabama was sunk in a little more than an hour after the Kearsarge began firing, and the English and French navies were thus taught a lesson in practical gunnery and seamanship, which they will not soon forget.

"The result of this action may therefore be taken as proving, beyond doubt, the wisdom of arming our ships with a mixed battery of pivot and broadside guns, taking due care to place on board of each ship the heaviest and most powerful guns that she can safely carry and manage with ease in all weathers."

QUALITY OF GUNS.

The report claims that it is no idle boast that the cannon of our navy, made exclusively from American iron, are not surpassed by those of any other nation; and this, it is added, "will continue to be the case so long as the enterprise of our citizens is left untrammeled, and full opportunities are afforded for the exercise of their skill in this most important art"

The Fort Pitt foundry, and two others, in South Boston, and Reading, Pennsylvania, have taken contracts for making 15-inch guns. Several other foundries are engaged in making guns of lighter calibre.

EXPERIMENTS.

During the past year experiments have been systematically made, with both shells and shot, from smooth bores and rifles, of all the heavier calibres. The power of the guns belonging to our navy, and in common use in the batteries of our ships, have been fairly tested against both solid and built up plates, and the conclusion reached is wholly in favor of the guns and their solid projectiles—the spherical shot for smooth bores being, however, immeasurably superior to the elongated rifle shot in every form. No manner or thickness of iron or steel armor that could be carried on the hulls of sea-going ships will resist the impact of solid spherical shot, fired from the heaviest calibres of the navy, at close range, with appropriate charges of cannon powder. It was generally accepted an an established fact that it was impossible to cast a spherical shot of large diameter which would be solid throughout. It is now known, however, that it is easy to cast a 15-inch or 20-inch shell which will be perfectly sound and solid from circumference to center of figure, and one of the former has resisted, without breaking, two hundred and twenty-two continuous blows of an eight ton steam hammer.

GUNPOWDER AND NITRE.

The consumption of gunpowder by our squadrons in service, and for experimental practice during the year, required a supply of 1,325,000 pounds of powder and 575 tons of nitre, 500 tons of the latter being domestic, and supplied entirely from the New Haven Chemical Works, the only establishment that has yet undertaken its manufacture for the navy.

The number of mills engaged in the fabrication of powder for the navy has been diminished by one since the last report, so that the only present sources of supply are the works of Messrs. DUPONT and those of the Schaghticoke, Hazard and Union Powder companies. Their product has been quite sufficient to supply the demand, although frequent explosions have occurred to retard their operations.

Congress is earnestly urged to make special provision for the encouragement of the production of nitre.

The establishment and maintenance of a thoroughly organized gunnery ship, for the training of officers and men in all the details of gunnery, is earnestly recommended by the bureau.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

DECISIONS OF THE TREASURY DEPARTMENT UNDER THE TARIFF ACTS.

THE following decisions have been made by the Secretary of the Treasury, of questions arising upon appeals by importers from the decisions of collectors, relating to the proper classification, under the tariff acts, of certain articles of foreign manufacture and production, entered at the ports of New York, Boston, &c.:—

ORGANZINE SILK, NOT IN THE GUM.

Treasury Department, October 5, 1864.

SIR:

Your appeal, dated September 20, 1864, (No. 2,369,) from the decision of the collector at New York, assessing duty, at the rate of 50 per cent ad valorem, on certain organzine silk imported by you, is received.

You claim "that the article is subject to only 35 per cent duty ad valorem, as being an unmanufactured article." "The organzine silk in question has been washed only, and is in nowise a manufactured article."

The experts of the customs report, in substance, as follows: The article referred to is organzine silk not in the gum; it is a manufacture of silk, and is therefore properly classified as a manufacture of silk not otherwise provided for, and liable, under the 8th section of the act of June 30, 1864, to 50 per cent ad valorem duty.

The decision of the collector is hereby affirmed.

I am, very respectfully,

W. P. FESSENDEN,
Secretary of the Treasury.

To B. G. WAINWRIGHT, Esq.,
Post Office Box, 747 New York City.

KRUPT'S CAST-STEEL TIRES, AXLES, SHAFTS, &c.

Treasury Department, October 6, 1864.

SIR:

Messrs. THOMAS PROSSER & SON have appealed from your decision assessing duty, at the rate of 45 per cent ad valorem, under the 43d subdivision of section 3 of the act approved June 30, 1864, on certain articles designated as "Krupt's cast-steel tires, axles, shafts, and other fogings in the rough."

The appellants claim to enter them as "steel in any form, not otherwise provided for, thirty per cent ad valorem," as provided for by the 33d subdivision of section 3, act approved June 30, 1864.

For the reasons given in the decision of this Department under date of December 23, 1863, on the appeal of Messrs. PAGE, RICHARDSON & Co., I am of the opinion that your decision in assessing duty on the importation of Krupt's cast-steel tires, &c., at the rate of 45 per cent, was proper, and it is hereby affirmed.

I am, very respectfully,

W. P. FESSENDEN,
Secretary of the Treasury.

To SIMEON DRAPER, Esq.,
Collector, New York.

LOOMS AND SHUTTLES.

Treasury Department, October 10, 1864.

SIR:

JOHN W. STEARNS has appealed from your decision assessing duty, at the rate of 45 per cent ad valorem, on certain Looms and Shuttles imported by him in the steamer "Hecla," from Liverpool, and claims that, whilst the latter are properly assessed—being composed partly of steel—at 45 per cent, the former, being iron, are liable to only 35 per cent under the provision in the 3d section of act approved June 30, 1864, as follows: "On all manufactures of iron not otherwise provided for, thirty-five per centum ad valorem."

The appraisers report as follows: "We regard the steel portion (the shuttles) as an indispensable appendage to the loom, which is the machinery referred to; and therefore, although contained in separate packages, or, as in the present case, contained in the same package with the loom, but separately charged for on the invoice, must be deemed a component part of the manufacture, clearly rendering the manufacture of the machine complete, subject to the provision of the existing tariff above quoted, viz: 'On all manufactures of steel, or of which steel shall be a component part, not otherwise provided for.'"

I do not concur with the appraisers in their special report, in which they claim that although the machine known as a loom is not a manufacture of which steel is a component part, yet the shuttle, which is an accessory machine, a machine *per se*. being composed partly of steel, renders the whole importation a manufacture of steel in part, and subjects it to 45 per cent. duty.

The Department, in analagous cases, where the classification of different articles in the same package could be easily determined, has directed that the rate of duty applicable to each *per se* should be separately levied.

I am advised that the opinion here expressed is in accordance with the views entertained by you on the subject.

You will please have the entry adjusted accordingly.

I am, very respectfully,

W. P. FESSENDEN,
Secretary of the Treasury.

To SIMEON DRAPER, Esq.,
Collector, New York.

STAVES, ETC.

Treasury Department, ctober 11, 1864.

SIR:—Messrs. Sherman & Wibirt have appealed from your decision assessing duty, at the rate of 10 per cent. ad valorem, under section 6, Act of July 14, 1862, "as staves for pipes, hogsheads, or other casks," on certain rough staves imported by them from Canada.

The appellants claim "that these staves are exempt from duty under the reciprocity treaty with Great Britain, being included in 'schedule of articles free of duty,' in article 3 of said treaty, under the head of timber and lumber of all kinds, round, hewed, and sawed, unmanufactured in whole or in part."

In the regulations (article 921) under the reciprocity treaty between the United States and Great Britain, concluded June 5, 1854, it is provided that "articles of wood entered under these (timber and lumber) or any other designations, remain liable to duty under the existing tariff, if manufactured in whole or in part by planing, shaving, turning, *splitting*, or riving, or any process of manufacture other than rough-hewing or sawing."

It is admitted by the appellants that the articles in question are *split*, and consequently they are clearly embraced in the provision just quoted. Similar appeals have been made to the Department, and the action of the Collectors has been uniformly affirmed. I see no reason for changing the practice.

Your decision is affirmed in the cases of Sherman & Wilbirt as presented in their appeals dated and numbered respectively September 9 and October 4, 1864, (Nos. 2,362 and 2,377.)

I am, very respectfully,

W. P. FESSENDEN,

Secretary of the Treasury.

To SIMEON DRAPER, Esq., Collector, New York.

CAMERA TUBES—MANUFACTURES OF GLASS.

Treasury Department, October 17, 1864.

SIR:

Messrs. B. FRENCH & Co. have appealed (No. 2,387) from your decision assessing duty at the rate of 40 per cent ad valorem, under the last subdivision of section 9 of the act approved June 30, 1864, on certain "Camera tubes" imported by them,—as a manufacture of which glass is a component material.

The article is a brass tube, fitted with lenses, and an adjusting screw, and is part of a photographer's camera.

The appellants contend that the article in question is provided for under the clause of 13th section of tariff act of July 14, 1862, imposing a duty of 35 per cent ad valorem on "manufactures, &c., not otherwise provided for, of * * brass * * or other metal, or of which either of these metals, or any other metal, is the component material of chief value."

This provision is not a specific provision for "camera tubes;" they are still non-enumerated. As the tariff stands, the article is as well described by the language of one section as the other; the classification is therefore determined by the provisions of the 20th section of act of 1842, assessing duty on non-enumerated articles at the highest rate of any of their component parts.

Your decision is hereby affirmed.

I am, very respectfully,

GEO. HARRINGTON,

Acting Secretary of the Treasury.

To J. Z. GOODRICH, Esq., Collector, Boston, Mass.

OLIVE OIL, IN CASKS.

Treasury Department, October 18, 1864.

SIR:

Messrs. MAGUIN, GUEDIN & Co. have appealed (No. 2,384) from your decision assessing a duty of one dollar per gallon on certain "olive oil in casks" imported by them per ship "Romaine" from Marseilles, and claim that olive oil in *casks* should not be returned as salad oil, unless it is a very superior and costly article, such as is sent in bottles or flasks, exclusively for salad use, and further claim that their importation in question is liable to only 25 cents per gallon under the 5th section act July 14, 1862, which imposes that duty on "olive oil, not salad."

In the act approved June 30, 1864, 11th section, a duty of one dollar per gallon is imposed on olive oil in flasks or bottles, and salad oil.

The experts of the customs, to whom the subject was referred, report substantially as follows:

Whether olive oil is salad oil or not, depends upon the quality, and not whether it is imported in casks, or in any other manner. The olive oil in question is of such a quality, which, in our judgment, clearly renders it salad oil, and liable to the duty of one dollar per gallon under section 11 of the act of 1864.

Your decision is hereby affirmed.

I am, very respectfully,

GEO. HARRINGTON,

Acting Secretary of the Treasury.

To SIMEON DRAPER, Esq., Collector, New York.

CLAY PIPES.

Treasury Department, October 19, 1864.

SIR:

Messrs. I. HAMBURGER & Co. have appealed (No. 2,389) from your decision assessing duty, at the rate of 75 per cent ad valorem, and $1\frac{5}{100}$ per gross on certain clay pipes imported by them per ship "Victoria" from London, and claim that they should be admitted at 35 per cent ad valorem, under the clause in section 13, act June 30, 1864 viz.: "on pipes, clay, common or white."

The articles in question are *colored* clay pipes, and white clay pipes, *with India rubber bands at the tip*, and are not the articles known and commercially recognized as "common" or "white clay" pipes, being advanced beyond the "common" condition by quality and coloring, and by the addition of India rubber bands, which the "common or white clay pipe" does not exhibit.

The article is therefore provided for in the same section (13) of the act of June 30, 1864, in the clause "on meerschaum, wood, porcelain, lava, and *all other* tobacco smoking *pipes*, and pipe bowls, not herein otherwise provided for, one dollar and fifty cents per gross, and in addition thereto seventy-five per centum ad valorem."

Your decision is hereby affirmed.

I am, very respectfully,

W. P. FESSENDEN,
Secretary of the Treasury.

To SIMEON DRAPER, Esq., Collector, New York.

THE MARINE INSURANCE COMPANIES FOR 1864.

THE success of insurance business the past year is almost beyond precedent. With regard to marine insurance, one, knowing the effect of the war on our commerce, would have anticipated a very different statement, since small business and large losses would naturally follow in the wake of the rebel privateers. Just the contrary of this, however, has been the result, for never have the earnings and dividends been larger. If, for instance, we take the returns of the following leading marine companies in this city, (we omit those also taking fire risks.) to wit, the Atlantic, Great Western, Columbian, Mercantile, Commercial, Sun, Orient, New York, Mutual, and three others, we will find that the aggregate amount of premiums received during the year by these companies doing marine business alone to have been about $29,000,000—a large sum even in these days of large figures. This interest, too, has increased immensely within a few years. It seems but a day since the Columbian advertised a capital of only $500,000, while now its assets are about $6,000,000, and steps are being taken to add a million and a-half more to its capital. The Great Western has also met with wonderful success, increasing its assets largely, and making a statement of its business for the past year, which certainly shows unusual prosperity. As to the Atlantic, it holds its old place. Probably there is no marine office in the world which transacts the business every year that is done there.

But besides these companies doing only marine business, there are others which issue both fire and marine policies, as, for instance, the Metropolitan and Harmony. More than a million dollars have been received in marine and fire premiums by the Metropolitan during the past year, and it has just declared a dividend of ten per cent to its stockholders, and a scrip dividend of fifty per cent to its profit sharing patrons. By enterprising and judicious management it has been enabled during the twelve months just past to double its business and largely increase its assets.

We think our merchants may truly congratulate themselves on their continually improving facilities for marine insurance.

THE BOOK TRADE.

Diary of Mrs. Kitty Trevylyan: A Story of the Times of WHITFIELD and the WESLEYS. By the author of "Chronicles of the Schonberg-Cotta Family," etc., with a Preface by the author for the American edition. New York: M. W. DODD 506 Broadway.

We are rejoiced that the authoress of the Schonberg-Cotta Family is adding a new luster to her reputation by this last work. The whole reading world gave a sigh of disappointment when the "Early Dawn" succeeded the inimitable "Chronicles," not because it lacked merit or interest, but because it fell so far short of its predecessor in these two qualities. The "Diary of Mrs. KITTY," however, is fully equal to that of ELSIE and FRITZ in all that is natural, simple, and charming. The period in which it is written, too, is one of hardly less interest than that of the reformation, being a time of great religious controversy and change, when the preaching of WHITFIELD and the WESLEYS stirred all England to its hearts core. The style is exceedingly pleasant, and the characters most life-like, but the chief power of the book, after all, lies in the exquisit humor with which the religious eccentricities of doctrines and people are shown up, and in that higher attribute which discerns and reveres a pure religious faith, in whatever nation or age or sect it may be found. Men would be wise to remember what this little book so beautifully teaches, that while names divide and doctrines repel, the one hope and one faith of every truly Christian heart forms a tie that is drawing them all together into a closer brotherhood, and welding them more surely into a unity that is indissolable and eternal.

We give below two extracts from the "Diary," not as the best that can be gleaned from it, but as fair specimens of its style and spirit. Aunt HENDERSON is a follower of JOHN WESLEY, and a stout champion for his doctrine of perfection, which, perhaps becomes somewhat exaggerated, like other doctrines, as it travels the further from the original source. Having combatted in vain Scotch Aunt JEANIE and English Mrs TREVYLYAN, she suddenly makes a master stroke, and holds up her two opponents as the proofs of her argument:

"KITTY, my dear, your mother and aunt JEANIE are the best women I know. They are as good examples of perfection as I ever wish to see. They may argue against the doctrine as much as they like, but they prove it every day of their lives. You understand, my dear, the WESLEY only argues for *Christian*, not for *Adamic* or *Angelic* perfection. He admits that even the perfect are liable to errors of judgment, which your poor mother also proves no doubt, by her little bigotry about the church, and aunt JEANIE by two or three little Presbyterian crotchets."

We cannot refrain from gving our readers a piece of BETTY's mind, for BETTY is the character of the book, a faithful old tyrant, as trenchant as she is trusty, and not to be slighted for fear of unpleasant results. She declares herself to be quite above all superstitions, but at the same time she is brim full of the most doleful signs and tokens, and quite disgusted because events dont carry them out. At last, however,

BETTY coming down in the dusk, and going into the dairy, fell over the stable-bucket, which ROGER had left in the way, and broke her leg. The Falmouth doctor came at once and set it, and says it is not at all a difficult or serious case.

But BETTY, never having had an illness which prevented her from moving about, in her life, grimily sets the cheery doctor at defiance, and takes it for granted that she is dying.

"And its a comfort to me Mrs. KITTY," she said to me this evening, "to think I am.

It'll be a warning to ROGER as long as he lives, that's one thing; for if I've told him once about leaving that bucket in the way, and said it would be the death of some one, I've told him so scores of times; and now he'll see that I told him the truth. That is one thing Mrs. KITTY; and another is the signs and the tokens. They'll all be made plain." * * * * * * * * * * *

"But BETTY," I said at last, "it is no better than the heathens to heed such fancies. We must open our hearts wide to the Bible, and let the light of the truth and the breath of the spirit shine and search through every corner. What are all the forebodings in the world to one hour of hearty prayer? Remember, prayer was stronger even than ST. PAUL'S forebodings; for he said he perceived that the voyage would be with much hurt and damage, not only of the ship, but also of their lives. Yet, afterwards, when he had fasted and prayed, he stood forth and said that *God had given him the lives of all* that were in the ship; and though the ship was wrecked, not one life was lost."

"There *be* some prayers," said BETTY, "that can move heaven and earth."

"And prayer was stronger than prophecy once," I said, "not the prayer of an apostle, BETTY, but of a poor sinful heathen city. Ninevah was saved, let JONAH be disappointed as he might at his words being set aside."

"Well Mrs. KITTY," said BETTY dryly, "I hardly take it kind of you to put me down with that poor selfish old Jew. I've thought, many a time, it was as wonderful the Almighty should speak by him as by Balaam's ass—running away from his work, nearly sinking the ship and the sailors, and then sulking and creusling like a spoilt child, because the Lord was more pitiful than he, and the poor sinful men and women of that great city, and the poor harmless dumb beasts were spared. I can't say but I do feel hurt to be likened to him."

"BETTY," said I, "you know I never meant to compare you to the prophet JONAH. * * * I want you to hope BETTY, because the more we hope the better I think we pray."

"Well my dear," said BETTY relaxing, "young folks most times find it easy enough to hope. If the sun shines for an hour, they think there'll never be winter again; and if old folks don't keep their wits about them, where'll the fire wood be when winter comes?

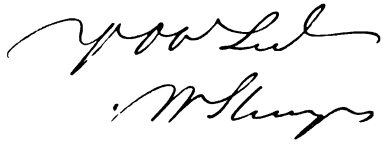
"And Mrs. KITTY my dear, I meant no disrespect to the Prophet JONAH; poor fearful soul he had his troubles sure; and if I'd been in his place I won't say I mightn't have been worse than he, although I do hope the Almighty would have kept me from caring for some poor bits of leaves, that grew up like mushrooms in a night, just because they made me cool, more than all the people in that great town, especially the innocent babes and the dumb beasts."

We might, indeed, fill pages with pieces of Mrs. BETTY'S mind, but we refrain, feeling sure that our readers will be satisfied with nothing less than the whole of the "Diary of Mrs. KITTY TREVYLYAN."

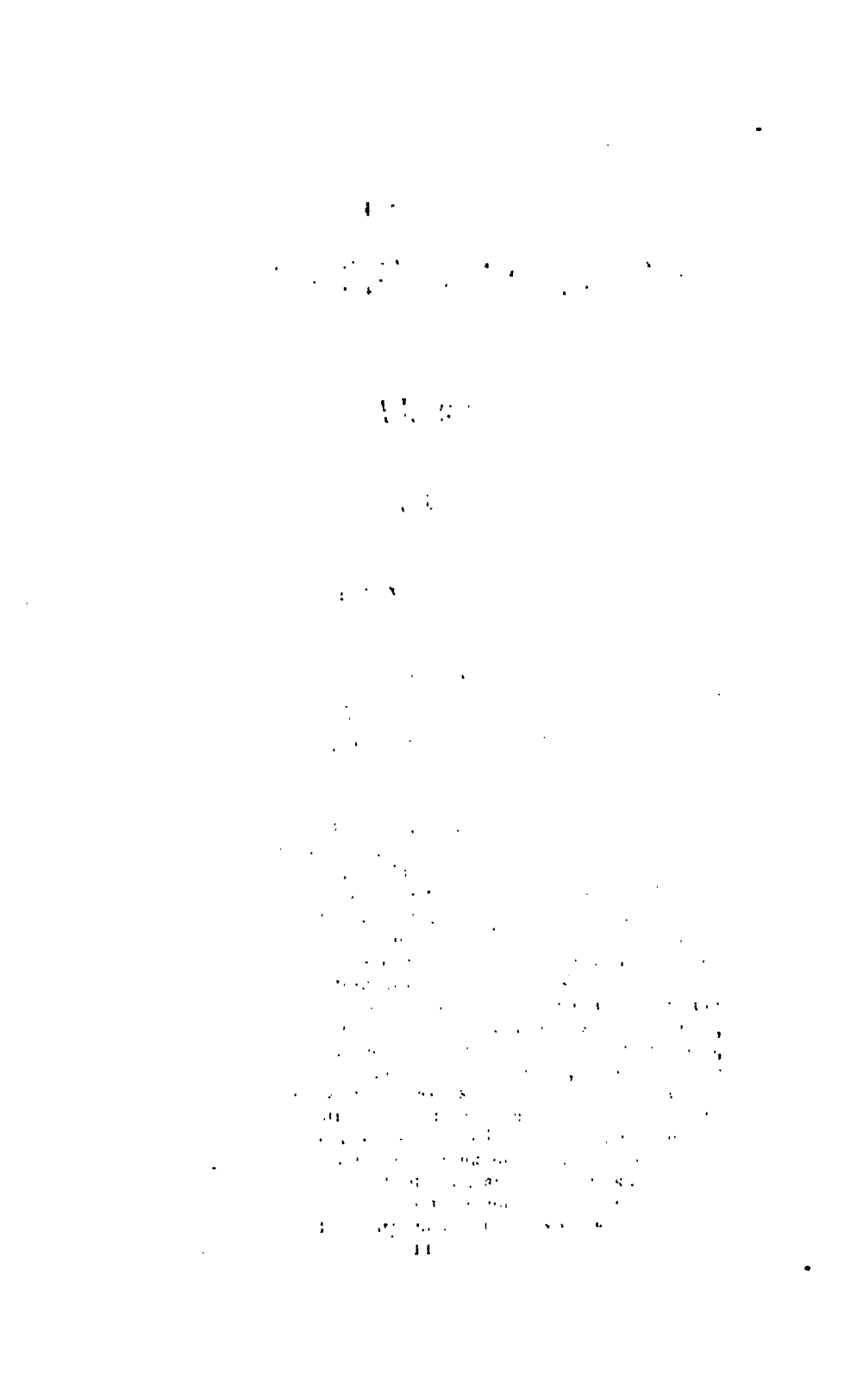
CONTENTS OF FEBRUARY NUMBER.

1. Petroleum: Its Location and Production. By IRA TAYLER 89
2. National Savings and National Taxation. No. II 97
3. Commercial Law.—No. 18. Bankruptcy and Insolvency 109
4. The Bank of the Netherlands 106
5. Commercial Chronicle and Review 110
6. Trade and Commerce of the Port of New York 117
7. Journal of Banking, Currency, and Finance 128
8. Grain Trade of the Upper Lakes 132
9. Statistics of Trade and Commerce 133
10. Railway News 144
11. The Extinguishment of the Scheldt Dues 145
12. The Commercial Failures in 1864 146
13. Report of the Secretary of the Treasury 148
14. National Banks of the United States 158
15. Report of Postmaster General 158
16. Naval Ordnance 160
17. Commercial Regulations 162
18. The Marine Insurance Companies for 1864 165
19. The Book Trade 167

Engd by W G Jackman



Drawn by Agnew. From the Illustrated Magazine



THE

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE

AND

COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

MARCH, 1865.

HON. WILLIAM STURGIS,

OF BOSTON.

It is an instructive fact that the men who of late years have been chiefly distinguished, in New England, for elevation of character, and who have acquired the largest fortunes and exerted the greatest influence upon commercial and manufacturing interests, were men of no early advantages; with no means of providing their daily bread but their own industry; no better education than our public schools afforded; and no patrons but such as faithful service in humble stations had acquired for them. SAMUEL APPLETON, NATHAN APPLETON, AMOS LAWRENCE, ABBOTT LAWRENCE, and WILLIAM APPLETON, are names familiar among us as household words, in their suggestion of ability, wealth, influence, and intellectual and moral pre-eminence. And to the same list may be added the names of FRANCIS C. LOWELL and PATRICK T. JACKSON, who, under some few circumstances usually esteemed more advantageous, rose, independently of them, to be the architects of their own fortunes, and the founders of the vast manufacturing interests of the Eastern States.

The energy, self-devotion, personal independence, moral purity, and earnestness, ever exhibited by these eminently and truly successful men, find a new and wonderful illustration in the subject of this Memoir; who, entering life upon a little farm on the sands of Cape Cod, began his career of self-reliance when sixteen years old, as a sailor-boy before the mast, on wages of seven dollars a month, and has recently closed his days on earth at the ripe age of eighty-one years,—possessed of a most ample estate, standing with his family in the foremost rank of American society, and distinguished for a highly cultivated intellect, and for remarkably extensive knowledge, that embraced not only the commerce of the globe, but a wide field of historical and literary information. Nor was he less con-

spicuous for firm and liberal principles, for a clear perception of justice, for a high sense of honor, for generous sentiments and tender affections; and he died surrounded by numerous and ardent friends of all ages—from gray-haired contemporaries, to the little children who loved to gather around him to listen to his tale of marvels and adventures among the Indians of the North-west Coast.

William Sturgis was born on the twenty-fifth day of February, 1782, in the town of Barnstable, on Cape Cod, in Massachusetts, near to Plymouth, the landing-place of the Pilgrims of the "Mayflower." His father, of the same name, was a highly respectable shipmaster of Barnstable, who for many years sailed in command of various vessels from Boston. He was a lineal descendant of Edward Sturgis, the first of the name in this country, who came over from England in 1630, and, having first settled at Charlestown, afterwards removed to Yarmouth, where, in 1638, he is recorded as one of the "first planters" of that town.

His mother was Hannah Mills, the youngest daughter of the Rev. Jonathan Mills, a graduate of Harvard University, who was settled in the ministry at Harwich, where he died.

His earliest introduction into life was to a sphere of usefulness and responsibility. His father's nautical pursuits kept him from home for the greater portion of his time, leaving to his wife the care of the young family (of which William was the eldest child and the only son), and of the few acres of land that constituted what was then called a Cape-Cod farm. She was a capable and energetic woman, with a large share of sound common sense; but she found it indispensable to avail herself of the aid of her son, as soon as he was old enough to afford any, in the management of their domestic affairs. She was, however, too judicious to suffer her requirements to interfere with his regular attendance at school, whenever one, public or private, was within reach.

At the age of thirteen, she sent him to a private school at Hingham, kept by Mr. James Warren, son of General Warren of Plymouth, a prominent patriot of Revolutionary times. Here he passed a year; and in a memorandum made by him, from which this brief account of his life is chiefly taken, he testifies to his teacher's fidelity by saying, "If I did not make sufficient progress, it was not the fault of the instructor, who was attentive and efficient." As to the faithfulness with which this brief opportunity for gaining the rudiments of an education was improved, his subsequent life furnishes decided and satisfactory testimony. These, however, were the last of his school days. In the year 1796 he came to Boston, and entered the counting-house of his kinsman, the late Mr. Russell Sturgis, at that time largely engaged in the purchase and exportation of what were denominated "shipping furs."

It must be remembered that Mr. Sturgis was then only fourteen years of age, and yet, during the eighteen months he remained in this situation, he so faithfully improved his time and means for acquiring knowledge, as to familiarize himself with the business of his employer, and thereby in a peculiar manner became prepared for taking advantage of the contingencies which soon unexpectedly presented themselves. We well know that there is a divinity that shapes our ends: still we also know that if we do not use the means Providence is wont to bless, neither circumstances will help us nor divinity aid us. Success is within the reach of every

man who improves his every advantage. What are called fortuitous circumstances happen to all. Some, however, have fitted themselves, by previous study, for taking advantage of them, while others have not. Thus was it in the case of Mr. STURGIS. When he entered that counting-house he had no idea the information he might acquire would ever be of any particular use to him. His taste was rather for the sea. Still he went to work earnestly and faithfully, thoroughly acquainting himself with the details of the business, so that when the occasion to use this knowledge arose he was fully prepared.

After remaining in the service of Mr. RUSSELL STURGIS nearly eighteen months, he entered the counting-room of Messrs. JAMES and THOMAS H. PERKINS, merchants of great eminence and extensive commercial relations, and at that time much engaged in trade with the North-west Coast and China.

About this time, and in the year 1797, his father died abroad, his vessel having been captured and plundered by piratical privateers in the West Indies. His family were left in straitened circumstances; and WILLIAM, being now thrown wholly upon his own resources, and compelled to adopt some occupation that might not only secure his present support, but give promise of future success in life, did that "which was most natural for a young Cape-Cod boy to do" under such circumstances,—he decided "to follow the sea."

The rudiments of navigation had been taught at the school he attended. But now he set earnestly to work, devoting all the time that could be spared from his duties in the counting-room to the acquisition of such further knowledge of the theory and practice of the art as would qualify him for office on board of a ship; and after a few months of diligent study under the instruction of Mr. OSGOOD CARLTON, a well-known and highly respected teacher of mathematics and navigation in those days, he was pronounced competent to navigate a ship to any part of the world.

In the summer of the year 1798, his employers, the Messrs. PERKINS, were fitting out a small vessel, the "Eliza," of one hundred and thirty-six tons (below the average in size of those now employed in the coasting trade), for a voyage to the North-west Coast, San Blas on the western coast of Mexico, and China, under the command of Captain JAMES ROWAN. This officer was a good practical seaman, without education or much theorectical knowledge of navigation; but, having been several times on the North-west Coast, he was well qualified to carry on a trade with the Indians, which was conducted wholly by barter. The large number of the crew for a vessel so small, amounting to one hundred and thirty-six men, but necessary for defence against the Indians, rendered the passage one of great discomfort to those before the mast, and exposed the "green hand" to a somewhat severe experience of the hardships of a sailor's life. They sailed from Boston early in August; and, after touching at the Falkland and the Sandwich Islands, they reached the North-west Coast in the latter part of the month of December. Captain ROWAN soon perceived the peculiar qualifications and efficiency of young STURGIS, and selected him as his assistant in the management of the trade. Thus early in life he was able to turn the information obtained in the counting-house to a good account. With his usual faithfulness and thoroughness he now devoted himself not only to the mastery of the business in all its

details, but also to a laborious study of the Indian languages, and to the cultivation of friendly relations with the natives by kind words and courteous manners, as well as by the most scrupulous truthfulness and honor in his dealings with them. By such means he soon succeeded in securing a degree of affection, respect and influence among these natives of the forest, to which no other white man had ever attained. Indeed, his name has ever since been cherished by these untutored savages with singular affection and reverence, in sad contrast with their recollections of the vices and barbarities of others, whose superiority in civilization, if such it can be called, served only as the means of brutal excesses, frauds and cruelties, of which the former experience of the poor Indian afforded no parallel. Among the latest tidings from that decaying race came affectionate inquiries from an aged chief concerning his old friend, "the good Mr. STURGIS,"—the dying echo of the influences of a noble character upon the children of the forest, still reverberating, after more than sixty years, from the shore of the Pacific Ocean to his grave on the shore of the Atlantic.

After visiting numerous tribes, and disposing of the portion of the cargo destined for that coast in exchange for sea-otter skins and other furs, they anchored in the port of Caiganee, in latitude 55° north, much frequented by trading vessels. Here they found two Boston ships—the "Despatch," commanded by Captain BRECK; and the "Ulysses," by Captain LAMB. The crew of the latter ship were in a state of mutiny. They and the officers having revolted a few days before, had seized the captain, put him in irons, and confined him to a state-room, with an armed sentry at the door. This was alleged to have been done in consequence of the cruel treatment by LAMB of those under his command. Captains ROWAN and BRECK interfered, obtained his release, and took him on board of the "Eliza." After negotiations with the mutineers, occupying several days, and a promise by LAMB to pardon all that had been done, and to treat them better in future, the crew, with the exception of the officers and two seamen, consented that he should resume the command of his ship. This was done; the second and third mates, with the two unwilling seamen, being taken on board the other vessels, and the chief mate being confined in irons on board of the "Ulysses." This arrangement left that ship with no officer excepting the boatswain, who was illiterate, and without a knowledge of navigation. Captain LAMB made very liberal proposals to induce some officer from the "Eliza" or the "Despatch" to take the situation of chief mate on board of his ship, but unsuccessfully; his reputation for ill treating his officers as well as his men was so bad that no one was willing to go with him. It was indispensable, however, that there should be some officer on board capable of navigating the ship, and of managing the trade with the Indians, to take the place of Captain LAMB, in the event of his death, or his inability to continue in command.

Young STURGIS being competent for both of those duties, although deficient in practical seamanship, Captain LAMB proposed that he should take the place of chief mate of the "Ulysses," with liberal wages; and should also act as his assistant in trading with the Indians, and for his services should receive a small commission upon all furs collected on the Coast. Such an offer to a lad of seventeen, then a boy in the forecastle, doing duty as a common sailor, but eager for advancement in the profession he had chosen, was too tempting, in regard both to station and

emolument, to be rejected; and on the thirteenth day of May, he left the "Eliza," and joined the "Ulysses," though not without serious misgivings. They remained on the Coast, collecting furs, until November; when they sailed for China, and arrived at Canton near the close of the year. There they found the "Eliza," which, after visiting several ports on the western coast of Mexico, reached Canton in October, and was then nearly ready to sail for home. Young STURGIS had found his situation on board of the "Ulysses" less uncomfortable than he had apprehended, but nevertheless far from being a pleasant one; and he eagerly accepted a proposal from Captain ROWAN to rejoin the "Eliza," and take the position of third mate on her homeward passage. As Captain LAMB could easily procure experienced officers at Canton, he consented to this arrangement; and, professing entire satisfaction with the manner in which Mr. STURGIS had performed his duties, promptly paid him his wages and commissions. The "Eliza" soon afterwards sailed, and arrived in Boston in the spring of the year 1800.

The reputation of Mr. STURGIS was now so far established, that he was immediately engaged to serve as first mate and assistant trader on board of the ship "Caroline," owned by Messrs. JAMES and THOMAS LAMB and others, and then fitting out for a three-years' voyage to the Pacific Ocean and China, under the command of Captain CHARLES DERBY of Salem,—a worthy man, but not particularly qualified for the enterprise, as he was in feeble health, had not before visited the coast, and knew nothing of the Indian trade. He appeared to be in a consumption when they sailed; and his health failed so rapidly, that, before the end of the first year, he virtually gave up the command to Mr. STURGIS; and, in the course of the second year, he formally resigned it to him, went on shore at the Sandwich Islands, and there died shortly afterwards.

Thus this young man, at the early age of nineteen, and with less than four years' experience at sea, became master of a large ship in a far-distant country; the sole conductor of an enterprise requiring the highest qualifications of seamanship, together with the greatest energy and discretion in the management of a large crew, employed in peculiar and miscellaneous services on shore as well as on board; and requiring also unceasing vigilance and courage to prevent surprises and attacks by the savage inhabitants, and great judgment and skill in conducting a barter trade, now committed wholly to his care and responsibility. He proved himself worthy of the trust, for the voyage was completed with entire success. A valuable collection of furs was obtained on the cost; these were exchanged at Canton for an assorted China cargo, with which he returned to Boston in the spring of the year 1803, to the great satisfaction and profit of his employers.

It is difficult to imagine a state of more intense satisfaction and of more laudable pride, than that with which this youth, just entering upon manhood, and not yet invested with its legal responsibilities, must have greeted the shores of his native State. Only five years before, he had left it as a stripling before the mast, and he was now returning to it as the master of a noble ship, with a valuable cargo on board, the fruit in great measure of his own skill and exertions, and with the consciousness of an established reputation that would thereafter enable him to command opportunities in the road to rank and fortune.

These two voyages were unusual ones in many particulars. But especially remarkable was it that during them such responsibilities should have fallen on a mere boy, and that he should have been able to fill successfully the different trusts thus conferred upon him. Yet when we think of his previous, though brief, business life, and especially when we examine the "Diary" kept by him during his first voyage, all astonishment ceases, for we find he was a fully developed man even at that time. He had cultivated to such an extent the habit of doing thoroughly the work before him to do,—mastering and understanding it in all its details,—that success could not fail to follow his efforts. Thus this "Diary" contains a minute and accurate record of all the transactions, not only of his own vessel and trade, but also of all the vessels which they met on the Coast, or of which they could obtain any account: a full account and description of their voyages, the places visited, with the latitude and longitude of each; also, an account of the various Indian tribes, their manners, habits and modes of traffic, with criticisms and comments of great interest and value upon the manner of conducting the trade, and the vices, faults, follies and mistakes of those engaged in it: a detailed statement of the course to be pursued in order to make a successful voyage; also, a sort of dictionary or list of the most familiar Indian words—the English in one column, and those of the several tribes opposite to them in corresponding ones,—evidencing the pains he took for the accurate learning of their languages. Of these he became so thoroughly a master, that, as the writer of this memoir has been recently informed, by one engaged in like enterprises, and who saw him on the coast, he could converse easily with the natives in their own tongues upon all subjects, whether of religion, philosophy, morals or of trade.

Is there not, then, in this daily record which he kept a full explanation of his marvellous success? By this constant study of all the details and various elements and phases of the business in which he was engaged, he became the master of his profession, and was able, whenever a better opening offered, to fill it acceptably. If young men could remember and act upon the lesson these facts teach, it would be to them of great value. To acquaint oneself thoroughly with all the details of one's business, to perform its duties not only faithfully but with the determination to learn all that can be learned in it, is the sure road to promotion. Most are satisfied with accomplishing the labor required of them: but those who succeed are never satisfied so long as there is anything more to be done or learned.

Of course the owners of the vessel were solicitous for the continuance of such an agent in their service. She was accordingly at once fitted out, and sailed under his command on another similar voyage, which also proved eminently successful, terminating in June, in the year 1806.

Mr. STURGIS, or, as he was then uniformly styled, Captain STURGIS, was now foremost among all engaged in this department of commercial enterprise; and his services were of course eagerly sought for. Mr. THEODORE LYMAN, a merchant of Boston, largely interested in the North-west trade, had, at this time, two ships on the Coast; and was fitting out another for the same destination, named the "Atahualpa." He offered Captain STURGIS very liberal terms to take command of this ship and proceed to the Coast for one season, and assume the charge and direction of all his

business there; and thence to go on to Canton, taking with him one of the other two vessels, and the furs collected by all of them, to be exchanged for homeward cargoes. This offer was accepted; and, in October, he sailed on his fourth voyage round the world. Thus the sailor-boy of 1798 had become in 1806, as it were, an admiral, in command of a fleet upon the Coast, where, eight years before, he had arrived in the humblest station. This expedition also proved very profitable both to Mr. LYMAN and to himself, and terminated on his arrival in Boston in June, 1808.

The threatening aspect of the foreign relations of the United States, and the embargo which then paralyzed commercial enterprise, detained Mr. STURGIS at home until April, in the year 1809; when he again sailed in command of the "Atahualpa," for Mr. LYMAN, upon a direct voyage to Canton, with an outfit exceeding three hundred thousand Spanish milled dollars, to be invested there in a return cargo. In this adventure the late Mr. JOHN BROMFIELD was associated with him,—a gentleman of great intelligence and elevated character. A warm friendship immediately grew up between them, which constituted much of the happiness of their lives, until the lamented death of Mr. BROMFIELD, in the year 1849.

The vessel, lightly armed with a few small cannon, came to anchor in Macao Roads (about seventy miles from Canton) on the night of the 21st of August; and, early the next morning, was attacked by a fleet of sixteen Ladrone or piratical vessels, some of them heavily armed, under command of APPOTESI, a noted rebel chief. The fight was a very desperate one on the part of the comparatively small crew of the "Atahualpa," and continued for more than an hour; some of the pirates being so near as to succeed in throwing combustibles on board, which set the vessel on fire in many places. But the coolness and intrepidity of her commander, aided by the presence and assistance of Mr. BROOMFIELD, inspired her gallant crew with invincible courage. The pirates were repulsed with great slaughter, and the ship was enabled to escape, and find protection under the guns of the Portuguese fort. She was again attacked by them on her passage up, in company with four other American ships, but finally reached Canton in safety. This voyage, like all the rest in which he had been engaged, terminated very successfully, and he arrived at Boston in April, 1810.

By twelve years of arduous effort and unremitted toil in the service of others, at sea and in foreign lands, and by prudent economy, Mr. STURGIS had now acquired sufficient means for establishing himself in business on his own account. He concluded, therefore, to abandon the sea; and now entered into copartnership with Mr. JOHN BRYANT, under the name and firm of "BRYANT & STURGIS," as merchants resident in Boston for the prosecution of foreign trade. This copartnership continued for more than half a century, being for many years the oldest in the city of Boston, and was indeed terminated only by the death of Mr. STURGIS. Although these gentlemen were unlike in many respects, and entertained different views on many subjects, their connection was entirely harmonious; and the writer of this memoir heard Mr. STURGIS, not long before his decease, remark that no unpleasant word had ever passed between them. Their business was principally with places upon the Coast of the Pacific and with China; and, from the year 1810 to 1840, more than half of the

trade carried on with those countries from the United States was under their direction. They occasionally, however, had commercial intercourse with nearly every quarter of the world.

We have thus given a hasty and brief review of the business life of Mr. STURGIS. His persevering energy, quick perception and thorough business habits have worked results far reaching in their effect upon the commercial enterprise of the country. It would, therefore, be both pleasant and instructive to dwell longer upon this portion of his life's work, but it is impossible at the present time to do so.

Nor have we the space to notice at length his political career. It could not be otherwise than that a person of the mental strength and activity of Mr. STURGIS should soon become generally known and appreciated, and that any political party should desire to increase its power and influence by sending him as its representative in the public councils. Nor was it less natural, that one whom rapid and unexampled success must have inspired with confidence, should be willing to widen the sphere of his reputation and influence. We find accordingly that in the year 1814 he was elected a representative of the town of Boston in the Legislature of Massachusetts: and such was his capacity and fidelity that from that period until 1845, he was, for the greater portion of the time, a member of the House or of the Senate. He was, however, too independent and self-relying, and too single-minded in his conceptions of duty, ever to be popular among the leaders of a political party; yet in business circles his political influence was the greater on that account. Always true to himself, it is no wonder that the public trusts he held—those we have mentioned and many others—were honorably and acceptably filled.

Among the varied attainments of Mr. STURGIS perhaps the most remarkable was his ability as a writer. With few early advantages, and amidst occupations certainly unfavorable to the cultivation of letters, we find him exhibiting unusual beauty, clearness and power of composition. In 1845-6, he delivered, before the Mercantile Library Association of Boston, and subsequently, by request, before the members of the House of Representatives, "Three Lectures upon the North-west Coast," written in a clear, simple and expressive style, indicating familiarity with English literature, and at times exhibiting the truest eloquence in sentiment and description.

They are particularly valuable, however, for their development of the habits of life and the moral and intellectual characters of those Indian tribes by one who lived with them on terms of familiar and confiding friendship, and as constituting the most important and trustworthy record, if not the only one, of their later, soon to become their final, history.

His opportunities were such as particularly qualified him for this undertaking, since his first visit to the Coast was made in 1799, about twenty years after COOK's discovery of Nootka Sound, and while the generation was still living that "witnessed the arrival of the first white man among them; and many of the very individuals who were prominent at the time of COOK's visit were still in the prime of life, and became personally known to him." He passed a number of years among them at the time when they were first becoming known to the civilized world, and were in a state approximating to that in which the discoverers of the northern portion of our continent found the aboriginal inhabitants; and he continued to carry on the trade with them, personally or by agents, until it ceased to

be valuable,—witnessing its growth, maximum, decrease, and final abandonment by the citizens of the United States.

These Lectures were received with great favor by the audiences before which they were delivered.

We have further evidence of Mr. STURGIS force and power as a writer in a pamphlet which he published upon the Oregon Question.

In the year 1821-22, the people of the United States were startled by claims suddenly and unexpectedly made by the Russian Government to the exclusive possession of the most valuable portions of the North-west Coast, amounting virtually to the right of exclusive possession of the whole American Continent north of the 51° of latitude, and of holding the Pacific Ocean as a close sea to that extent, although about four thousand miles across.

The Emperor had issued a ukase to this effect, which had been communicated by the Russian minister, the Chevalier DE POLETICA, to our Government. By it, all foreign vessels coming within one hundred miles of the shores of the territories so claimed were declared subject to confiscation and forfeiture, with the cargoes on board.

To Mr. ADAMS's inquiry for an explanation "of the grounds of right, upon principles generally recognized by the laws and usages of nations, which could warrant the claims and regulations contained in the edict," M. DE POLETICA declared himself happy to fulfil the task; and he undertook in an official communication to maintain them upon three bases,—the titles of first discovery, of first occupation, and of peaceable and uncontested possession for more than half a century. These propositions he undertook to establish by a variety of historical references and statements, which certainly, to one not otherwise informed, made out a very plausible, if not a very strong case.

Such an event could not fail to excite the deepest interest among those who were engaged in the trade on the Coast, then at its height, and particularly in the mind of Mr. STURGIS, who was thoroughly master of the subject by means of his personal exploration of the most important portions of the territory included in the ukase, and of the study he had made of its history, both by inquiry of the natives, and in the published voyages of the discoverers and adventurers in those regions. The importance of the trade at that time was so great, and the indignity to the United States which would be involved in a summary enforcement of the threat was so manifest, that war between the two countries seemed inevitable, unless the justice of these claims could be demonstrated, or the assertion of them should be abandoned.

Mr. STURGIS immediately prepared, and published in the *North American Review*, a reply to them and to the several arguments adduced by the Russian minister, which, it is believed, constitutes a refutation as annihilating as any to be found in the records of political discussion. His familiarity with all the essential facts and elements of the case from the earliest known period, his admirable array of the argument, and the clear and vigorous style in which it was presented, leave nothing to be desired It gave the *coup de grace* to the most material portions of the claim, and secured for the author an extensive reputation for being among the ablest public writers, as he had long been among the first of the eminent merchants, of his country.

In the subsequent negotiation with Russia upon the subject, she abandoned the chief of these vast pretensions; the United States conceding to her the exclusive right of settlement within ten leagues of the sea north of latitude 54° 40′,—that being the southern limit of the Russian possessions in America thus extended.

But a still more important and signal service was rendered to his country by Mr. STURGIS, upon the breaking-out of the controversy between England and the United States, in the year 1844, concerning the Oregon Territory; which controversy the political partizans on both sides of the water, alike in utter ignorance of the position and extent of the country and of its history, and of the various rights of other nations upon its coasts, were ready to inflame into open war.

Here, again, his personal familiarity with the topography of the coast, with the course of trade on its various rivers, and with the extent to which it had been resorted to and occupied by foreign nations, and particularly by Spain, England, and the United States, qualified him in a very peculiar degree, if not exclusively, as far as an individual could be qualified, for the formation of an impartial judgment, and for enlightening others upon the subject; and he proved himself as well adapted to the task intellectually and morally, as he was by this peculiar knowledge.

He prepared an elaborate treatise upon the subject, which he afterwards delivered as a Lecture before the Association above mentioned, in January, 1845, the substance of which was soon afterwards printed as a pamphlet.

The matter was one of great perplexity and seeming confusion, owing to the miscellaneous claims made by Russia, England, Spain, and the United States, of prior discoveries, and of the use and occupation of various portions of this vast wilderness, bounded on the east by the Rocky Mountains, on the west by the Pacific Ocean, with its numerous indentations, bays, sounds, inlets, capes, and islands, and extending from the forty-second degree of north latitude to that of 54° 40′; constituting an area of seven hundred and sixty miles in length from north to south, and of about five hundred from east to west, with large rivers extending far into and draining the interior.

No one, remembering the agitation of this question at that time, can be forgetful of the insensate cry of "Fifty-four forty, or fight!" which was so flippantly and recklessly uttered by the party politicians of the day, in equal ignorance and disregard of the truth and the right of the case; or can forget the deep apprehension of a closely impending war, felt by the friends of peace on both sides of the Atlantic.

In this treatise, Mr. STURGIS, after an exhausting exhibition of the material facts of the case, and a setting forth of the respective claims and pretensions of the parties interested with great clearness and judicial impartiality, arrived at the following result:—

"Some of the objections made by the British commissioners to our claims to the *exclusive* possession of the whole territory cannot be easily and satisfactorily answered; and some of their objections are unfounded or frivolous,—the mere skirmishing of diplomacy, and unworthy of high-minded diplomatists: but it must, I think, be evident, to any one who looks carefully into the whole matter, that *some* of the pretensions of each party are, to say the least, plausible; and that, according to the rules

established among civilized nations in similar cases, each has some rights, which should be adjusted and settled by compromise and mutual concession."

He then entered upon a discussion of the various interests which each party might be supposed to have in the possession of these territories, and concluded by recommending the adoption of the line substantially established by the subsequent treaty, but defining it in much more precise and clear terms, which, if they had been copied, would have prevented the possibility of misapprehension, and have saved the two countries from the unhappy San Juan controversy, which still rankles as a thorn to disturb their friendly relations.

The line as described in the treaty is in these words: "From the point on the forty-ninth parallel of north latitude, where the boundary laid down in existing treaties and conventions between the United States and Great Britain terminates, the line of boundary between the territory of the United States and those of her Britannic Majesty shall be continued westward along the forty-ninth parallel of north latitude to the middle of the channel which separates the continent from Vancouver's Island, and thence southerly through the middle of said channel and Fuca's Straits to the Pacific Ocean."

The line proposed by Mr. Sturgis was as follows: "A continuation of the parallel of forty-nine degrees across the Rocky Mountains to tide-water, say to the middle of the Gulf of Georgia; thence by the *northernmost navigable passage* (not north of forty-nine degrees) *to the Straits of Juan de Fuca*, and down the middle of these Straits to the Pacific Ocean; the navigation of the Gulf of Georgia and the Straits of Juan de Fuca to be for ever free to both parties; *all the islands and other territory lying south and east of this line* to belong to the United States, and all north and west to Great Britain."

It will be perceived that the insertion of the words here italicized would have rendered the definition of the navigable passage intended, and of the territories intended to be separated by it, too plain to admit of controversy.

This pamphlet was not only widely circulated among the ministers and statesmen at Washington, but also among those in England, where it met with almost universal approbation for its intelligence and candor.

The writer of this memoir feels perfectly justified, by the evidence in his possession, in asserting that the settlement of this dangerous controversy, by the line adopted, was mainly, if not entirely, owing to this effort of Mr. Sturgis, and the use made of it by the friends of peace in both countries.

It must be a rare fortune for any private individual, holding no official station, and in no immediate connection with the statesmen conducting the foreign relations of his country, to be thus instrumental in the final solution of two great national controversies, which, but for his efforts, might have terminated in disastrous wars.

Both of these adjustments are monuments of his intellectual ability and literary accomplishments, and call for a grateful national remembrance; but that of the Oregon Question evinces the breadth of view also, and the rare magnanimity, which enabled him justly to appreciate and honestly

to vindicate the claims of the adversary of his country, while firmly maintaining her own.

To these qualities, signally manifested in this pamphlet, may probably be attributed, in a great measure, its success in moderating the views of his own countrymen, and winning the confidence of the English rulers and people.

Such is the brief, simple narrative of the principal events in the life of this extraordinary man. That he could have found time amidst his engrossing business cares for the mental culture evidenced by his writings is truly wonderful. His whole nurture, indeed, seemed fitted for the cultivation of the sterner virtues almost exclusively. His childhood and early boyhood passed upon a little sterile farm, the labors of which devolved principally upon himself, with no room for mental expansion beyond the occasional privileges of a village school; his youth and early manhood spent on shipboard, in the rough companionship of the forecastle and the steerage, or in the lonely watches of despotic authority upon the quarter-deck,—breasting the tempests of the open sea, or the more harassing perils of coastwise navigation upon wild and inhospitable shores; his introduction to business life in traffic with the savage inhabitants of the Coast; and his almost total seclusion, in most of the forming periods of life, from the opportunities of mental and spiritual culture, and the influences of a refined civilization,—might well have seemed calculated for the growth only of the heroic courage, indomitable energy, self-reliance, and ability to command, by which he was among all men pre-eminently distinguished. To the general observer, his quickness of perception, clearness of judgment, stern love of justice, fearless independence, promptitude of decision, and dauntless resolution,—constituting a character of rare strength,—might often overshadow its gentler traits, and sometimes might obscure these even from his own consciousness. But there was a native urbanity, a depth of affection, a readiness of sympathy, a generosity, a refined nobleness of nature, manifest to those whom he loved, or to whom friendship or any just claim gave opportunity for the exercise of them; and these were exhibited no less in his intercourse with the wild Indians upon the far-off savage coast, than at the domestic hearth or in the social circles of civilized life. And to these we add a love of letters, a ready wit, a sense of honor, and an appreciation of the courtesies and amenities of cultivated life, which might seem hard to be accounted for under such rough training, except in the natural structure of his mind and heart,—as steel of the hardest temper takes the finest polish.

PEACE, PRICES, AND PROSPECTS.

By Hon. Amasa Walker.

That peace between the Federal Government and the Confederate States will come sometime is certain, that it will come soon appears now highly probable, and the effect which such an event will have upon the business of the country cannot but be a matter of deep interest to all.

In the examination of the subject we must take certain things as granted, for in no other way can we make any calculations whatever.

We will first assume that the terms of peace include the perfect restoration of the nationality, and secondly, that the great discordant element has been removed, so that there is no antagonism between different sections of the country growing out of antagonistic institutions—that there is, in fact, that harmony of ideas and interest, which alone can give confidence and ensure tranquility.

These two conditions being established, the country will have peace, national credit and universal confidence will be restored. As soon as this state of things has arrived, as soon even as it is certain that the conflict has ended, the whole industry of the nation will experience a severe shock. That is inevitable. The war paralized industry, and for a while all was stagnation. Peace will produce a similar effect, because the industry of the country must be changed from a state of war to a state of peace. Those who have been engaged in manufacturing the appliances of war and the instruments of human destruction, must change their occupation. Thousands and hundreds of thousands must be transferred from one branch of industry to another. Half a million of men now in arms must return to their homes and find employment in peaceful pursuits. All this cannot take place without temporary derangement and consequent paralysis.

But the greatest shock will be felt upon *prices*. Everybody knows that these are at least double their usual average, and must, to a certainty, come down to the natural standard, that the currency sooner or later will be restored to a specie basis. A great *panic* of course will take place on the announcement of peace. Every man having property of any kind which he desires to sell, will wish to be rid of it as soon as possible. And what is worse, everybody will be afraid to purchase, because they are sure prices must go down and down until they reach the lowest possible point. But the general consumption of the country must go on. Why should it not? Men and women will continue to eat, drink, and wear; and, what must be borne in mind, they have plenty of money, or rather of currency to buy with. What use can they make of greenbacks and National and State Bank notes, of which we have so many hundred millions, but for purchases? Then why should not the people purchase freely? They will do so, and of course trade must and will go on.

The first news of peace will doubtless cause a great decline of prices; most persons will be ready to sell on almost any terms, and at any sacrifice; those who have the courage to make purchases under such circumstances will do so to great advantage, because prices cannot at once per-

manently decline. After the first shock there will be a reaction, and prices will advance again.

Three causes have co-operated in raising prices, the increasing volume of currency, the depreciation of the national credit, and the movements of speculators. All these causes may cease with the return of peace if our finances are managed on sound principles; the currency will be reduced, the national credit will be restored, and the speculators occupation will be gone. But since this change cannot be instantaneous, so far as a redundant currency is concerned, the reaction we have spoken of will take place.

Prices are governed by the existing quantity of currency, and as that cannot be at once greatly contracted, prices cannot immediately return to their natural point. To most persons prices seem to be merely accidental. That they are actually governed by laws as determinate as those of gravitation few understand. Hence there will be a great panic, and many will sell off their stocks, as some did under the senseless panic of September last, at much less than they are worth, and be quite glad to repurchase at advanced rates.

If it were universally known that prices in general can fall only as the currency is curtailed, all would be well. Prices would go down gradually as the currency was called in, until the specie value was reached, and then trade would move on in its accustomed channels. But it will not be so. Changes will be fitful and violent, because so many persons will be unreasonably alarmed.

But we have already said that after this panic there will be a reaction. To what point the returning tide will carry prices it is of course impossible to say. Many not without reason claim that the effects of the inflation will then be more decided than ever before. They reach this conclusion in the following manner. The amount of currency afloat is about one thousand millions. Much of this, say they, is now necessarily used in the vast transactions of Government, and will be so long as its present rate of expenditure is continued. Peace, however, will work a great change; the currency thus employed will be thrown out of use, and when its occupation is gone, it will simply drug the market and force up the value of all commodities. This conclusion is undoubtedly correct unless there are counteracting circumstances. Will there not be another field for this currency in such a contingency? Will not the States now in rebellion absorb as much as will thus be thrown out of use? We do not undertake to answer these questions or to decide what will be the point prices will reach after peace. That they will fall greatly on the first announcement, and will again rise to *at least* about their present level, must be evident to any one acquainted with the laws regulating currency.

What, under such circumstances, should the merchant do who has a large stock on hand and a good list of customers whose patronage he desires to retain? We reply, let him not be unduly frightened. Let the first shock be met with firmness. Those who are greatly scared will doubtless take the first sales by making a great reduction, and will find they were mistaken in so doing, because they will not be able to replace their stocks at the rates at which they have sold. The price of gold will doubtless recede very much on the news of peace, but will certainly advance again after the first impression has passed by, because it is measured

by the paper currency of the country, and that is so greatly redundant, that any thing like a normal price for gold, or any other commodity, is impossible. There are two extremes, then, to be avoided in the emergency contemplated. One is holding on too closely, the other, selling off at too great a reduction. Most persons will take the latter course and suffer unnecessary loss, while the more shrewed will make fortunes by purchasing merchandise thus needlessly sacrificed.

Prudent men will operate under such circumstances with great caution, because they will have in view the fact that prices must continue to decline as the currency is withdrawn, until the bottom is reached. They will, therefore, hold as small stocks as practicable; they will not cease their operating on account of prices, but carefully watch the volume of the currency and govern themselves accordingly.

When the war commenced, many *very* prudent persons stopped their purchases, and laid still waiting for "better times." Such have made nothing during the war, and will find themselves poorer at the end than at the beginning of the contest. Others went straightforward, buying and selling, and have secured fortunes within the last four years.

Business men, who have a valuable trade, should hold on to it. That they will generally make great profits for some time to come is not likely, because we must eventually descend in prices to the normal standard, but in the meantime active men having a future before them would not be wise to relinguish their trade. Nothing is more certain than the wonderful career of prosperity that awaits us, if we only secure nationality and permanent peace; and those who are in a position to take part in the business of the country, will have the best opportunity ever yet known for wealth. Hence the importance of passing through the transition from war to peace, in such a manner as to be prepared for the tide of prosperity which awaits us as a people. Our manufacturers, especially, must start into new life and vigor with the termination of the war. The demand for cotton goods, in particular, will be unprecedented. The markets are comparatively bare, but what is more strikingly true, the homes of the people are more destitute of cotton fabrics than ever before. Every thing has been used up. All are waiting for peace, that they may supply themselves with those goods, of which they have been accustomed to keep a liberal stock on hand.

The demand for home fabrics will be immense; but for foreign merchandise it will be greatly circumscribed. This will arise from two causes; one is heavy duty, the other, the reduced ability of the common people to purchase. These are palpable facts that must be taken into the account when considering the future and its promises. But still another enquiry arises. When and how shall we return to a sound currency?

That will depend entirely upon the wisdom and energy of our statesmen and public servants. It is for them alone to say how soon and in what way. The matter is in their hands. From at least supposed necessity they violated the laws of value, by making that to be currency and legal tender which had no value, only the promise of it. They introduced credit into the currency, and it is by their action alone that the false element can be aliminated, and the true standard can be restored. When the war has ceased, war expenditures will cease; but taxation will doubtless be continued, and the revenue made to exceed disbursements,

and the Government will have the ability to take in its greenbacks and other currency. Besides this, as soon as the credit of the Government is assured, there will be a large, we should say, perhaps, *immense* demand for public stocks, and the floating national indebtedness can thus be rapidly funded.

By these means the volume of the currency can be reduced, provided the proper steps are taken, and banks are not allowed to increase their issues. Congress will have the power, and ought to have the disposition, to compel these banks to resume specie payments, and if that be done, they must greatly contract their circulation. Thus by a gradual process we shall return to the true standard without any violent convulsion.

There is one unprecedented fact connected with the war in which we are engaged; it is that individual indebtedness is being discharged to a most wonderful extent, so that when the contest is ended the people will be freer from pecuniary obligations than ever before. This is a remarkable phenomenon, and quite in contrast with the condition of our country at the close of the revolutionary war, but the course pursued by the Government has brought it about. Private has been exchanged for public indebtedness. The nation is involved to an enormous amount. Every State, every county, and every town has accumulated debt to an extent before unheard of.

This fact must greatly influence the future. Taxation will be heavy, continuous, and pressing. It will bear with great force on the masses of the people. Their consumption of wealth, and of course their trade, must be restricted. What a man pays in taxes he cannot expend for clothes. Every expenditure must be curtailed to meet the demands of the inevitable tax gatherer. The result will be, that ordinary consumption will be less, and extraordinary consumption more. Those who pay the taxes must buy less, those who receive the public dividends will be able to buy more; there will be less low priced, and more high priced goods sold, more luxuries, and fewer necessaries *proportionately*, than before the war.

The crisis through which we are now passing is destined, whether fortunately or unfortunately, to assimilate the nation to European civilization. The great debt which we shall create will probably never be paid, or ever repudiated. The nations of Europe do not pay debts, they pay the interest. They cannot pay the principal because their current revenues are required to meet the interest, carry on government, and prepare for war in time of peace.

Such is our destiny so far as all present appearances indicate the future. But with regard to the currency, that will depend entirely upon what the people have the intelligence to demand, for it is certain that Congress is always ready to do just what the people wish, except to reduce their own pay and privileges.

What then would the people have? Once they would have asked for all the paper money that the banks could put in circulation; but the war has wrought great changes in public opinion on two important subjects, slavery and mixed currency. The nature and influence of each are now understood as never before, and we think the great struggle will be equally fatal to both.

Nothing connected with the war is more remarkable than the general

success of its industry in every department of trade and manufacture. Not that the country has been actually growing rich in the meantime, but that it has been able to sustain itself so prosperously under circumstances so adverse.

Should then the war be closed by a satisfactory peace, there will remain but one cause of anxiety to the business public, and that, we repeat, will be the currency, because on that prices and the security of trade will entirely depend. Shall the descent of prices, which we know must and ought to take place, be gradual and steady, or fitful and violent? That must depend wholly upon the action of the Government; that again upon the clearly understood wishes of the people, and that upon their intelligent perception of their true interests.

Such is the position, wealth, resources, and credit of the nation, such the brilliant prospects of the future, that nothing can prevent a realization of our brightest anticipations, but stupid legislation and ignorant financiering.

DEEP AND SHALLOW OIL.

By E. W. Evans, of Marietta College.

The question in regard to the depth at which petroleum is to be found, or, as the idea is popularly expressed, whether it be deep or shallow oil, is one of great practical importance to those investing in oil lands. Experience has proved that, as a general fact, supplies of oil found at a depth of two or three hundred feet, or more, are much more copious and lasting than those found at a less depth. Even at less than a hundred feet some wells give good promise at first; but they are soon exhausted. The best wells are over five hundred feet deep.

Oil coming to the surface in bulk, so often prized as a good sign, is really nothing more than an index of shallow oil. On some parts of Hughes River and Duck Creek, and in other places where petroleum used to be collected in quarts and even in barrels, as it issued from between the surface rocks or oozed up through the sand, experiments in boring have resulted only in finding small collections at a slight depth. The oil in these localities has worked its way up through open fissures into the upper strata, and is rapidly undergoing the process of exhaustion. If upon boring deeper other oil-bearing strata are found, as on Oil Creek, the kind of surface show here described, affords beforehand no evidence of their existence, but only of the collections near the surface. In such places it is also common to find collections of asphaltum, or a thick, tar-like oil approaching asphaltum; the more volatile ingredients having escaped by evaporation, owing to near communication with the air, while the grosser parts remain. It often happens that shallow wells yield a heavy lubricating oil, the commercial value of which is greater than that of the light illuminating oil; but what is thus gained in quality is, as a general fact, many times lost in quantity.

Of surface signs, that which affords the most reliable evidence, that the source of supply is deep, is a scum of thin volatile oil appearing on

mineral springs. For example, between the two Kanawhas, along the line connecting the two burning springs, there are numerous oil and gas springs in which the analysis of the water always reveals various minerals, such as common salt, carbonates of iron and soda, muriate of lime, sulphates of soda and potash, and sometimes sulphurated hydrogen. On the common springs of pure water, whose source is near the surface, oil is not seen in this region. It comes up through slight cracks and fissures in the strata, from depths where the water has gathered its various mineral contents. The high temperature of these oil springs, as compared with the springs of pure water, is another fact indicating their deep source. These signs characterize the best oil regions generally.

THE CHINESE IN CUBA.

HENRY B. AUCHINCLOSS, ESQ.

A GREAT and important change is silently taking place in the character of the labor employed in the West India sugar Islands, and especially in Cuba, which attracts but very little attention outside of the circle of planters interested, but which, in time, may lead to great results. The Coolie is gradually taking the place of the African negro, and his merits as a laborer are recognized even by the prejudiced and ignorant. It is a great triumph for the Chinaman that his superiority over the slave should be acknowledged at all in a slave country so absolute as Cuba, but we have no hesitation in asserting that the most intelligent Spanish planters decidedly prefer the Coolie to the negro, not only for his greater capacity to labor, but for his greater obedience and attention to his work, whether overlooked or not. This preference is practically expressed in the yearly increase of the Chinese immigration to Cuba, and although the present condition of the poor Coolie is but little better than that of a slave, a few years of the system of immigration now in operation will substitute a large and intelligent class of free Chinese laborers, for an equal number of ignorant African slaves. It is the possibility of the gradual extinction of African slavery—or rather of its decay before a superior system and a superior race of free laborers—which gives interest in the eyes of an American to the question of Coolie labor as compared with slave labor. The probability of such an event in a country like Cuba may seem remote, and yet a careful attention to the signs of the present will show that a radical change in the social and commercial standing of Cuba and the other West Indian Islands may be near at hand from causes now in operation. All have suffered from the same evil, and the British Islands, especially Trinidad and Jamaica, have been benefitted by theimportation of Chinese and Hindoo laborers. In all, alike, free Chinese labor has been a benefit; in all, free negro labor—or rather, negro idleness—has been a curse. In all, alike, slavery has been a drag upon their political and commercial progress. Notwithstanding the defence of the slave system made by the Spaniards, and their more recent schemes to import slaves by consent of all the treaty powers, under the name of

"Ransomed Africans," who are to work for ten years to repay the expense of transportation, and the fair and specious talk about placing the negro to organized labor, civilizing and returning him to his native land; a scheme too transparent to succeed—there is a profound anxiety among the people of Cuba, resulting from the examples of the other West India Islands, the South American Republics, and Brazil; and, still later, the warning which the events transpiring in the United States give to states or countries where slavery is tolerated. Sooner or later it brings trouble and sorrow in its train. The more intelligent Cubans know this, are keenly aware of the danger, and hope to avoid it, at least partially, by their system of Chinese apprenticeship.

Under this system the immigration of Asiatics is largely increasing, and the recent removal of an absurd and cruel restriction, by which women were not allowed to reach the country, gives promise of a still further yearly increase. This restriction arose from the extreme jealousy felt by the Spaniards of pure descent, who rule the colony, of any class which might become so numerous as to provoke insurrection, or even to outnumber the creoles and soldiers. Another object of these wealthy Dons was to make necessary a continual stream of laborers at the lowest possible wages, and so keep down the price of labor that it would be impossible for the poor white man to sustain himself. In this they had the same success as the wealthy slave-owners of our cotton States enjoyed prior to the rebellion. Out of 34,834 Asiatics who figure in the census of Cuba for 1861, only 57 were females!

Many well informed Europeans and Americans believe that the sole reason for this is the old law of the Chinese government prohibiting the emigration of women. This law may still exist, but it is well known in China that practically it is a dead-letter. The Taeping war, the war with the Allies, the capture of Pekin, the dismantling of the Bogue forts, and the opening of the ports, have cruelly shaken the imperial power, and the people do very much as they please. Of late years their free intercourse with foreigners, and the immense emigration to California, Australia, etc., have been the means of increasing the friendly spirit shown by the common people, and have done away with much of the exclusiveness for which they have such a reputation. It is notorious that their women do emigrate. We have seen them in the streets of San Francisco and in the Straits of Malacca, where many families, men and women, are settled, and we will venture to say that if the Spanish government, or its agents, would advance means to the women, or would bring over Chinese families on the plan by which so many pauper emigrants have been sent of late from Lancashire to Australia, there would not be the slightest difficulty in obtaining as many women as they required. The truth is, that the labor of the men being most valuable, men alone are engaged to emigrate, and as those who accept the hard terms of the Spaniards are the poorest of the poor—men who are compelled to live on $15 @ $20 a year—it is absolutely impossible for them to bring their wives and children. Such men are tempted by the wages they will earn during the eight years of service, and the promise of enough to eat. They do not mind the labor for they consider it well paid at $4 25 per month, and if they had their wives and children with them, they would rarely wish to leave the country when their term of service expired. In a country like Cuba,

where cheap labor is the great necessity, a peasantry with the hardihood and industry of the Chinaman, would be the most desirable advantage which a government could give its subjects. Judging by the policy of the Spaniard, his only aim, heretofore, has been to obtain the greatest riches and enjoy the utmost power with the least possible labor and the greatest security. He deems it for his interest that an intelligent race like the Chinese should not be suffered to gain a foothold on his island; and, while he wants the Chinaman's labor, he hopes to keep him under foot by making it obligatory upon him to return to his native land, or, living a bachelor, to die without children, when his master has got from him all the labor of which his frame is capable. There is something peculiarly revolting in this cold-blooded, hard-hearted policy, fit only for the nation which carried the cross to the Indian stained with blood, and which, since the Indian was exterminated, has drawn from Africa thousands upon thousands of negro slaves. This policy defeats itself, if the aim is to secure the cheapest kind of labor.

On the other hand, allowance should be made for the proverbial slowness of the Cubans to change their habits or adopt any new thing, and for the fact that the importation of Chinese Coolies has hitherto been a matter of experiment. They are just beginning to realize that the Coolies are cheaper and more valuable than negroes. Chinese emigration only began in 1847, and in 1852 but 6,000 had been landed. From 1853 to 1859, however, 42,501 were imported, and in the census of 1861 we find them bearing a proportion of ten per cent to the number of negro slaves. Only a very small proportion of these Chinese have worked out their eight years of servitude, not enough to settle the question of what will be their ultimate fate. The mortality on the voyage from China is great,* and the labor in Cuba is so severe that those who leave China in the prime of life are old men in body when free. Those who have served their time find their way to the cities, and, as in the other West India Islands and Demerara, more frequently become peddlers than continue in the sugar mills. Their shrewdness and natural talent for trade make them very successful peddlers. In dealing with the free blacks they are as sure of getting the best of a bargain, as a Yankee would be in Georgia.

On their first arrival in the West Indies they are subject to a suicidal epidemic, which often breaks out without any treatment which would seem

---

* A writer in the *Journal of Commerce*, whose name we have been unable to ascertain, but who is said to be a surgeon on some Coolie ship late from Macao, and whose statements in regard to the Dona Maria we know to be correct, says, "within the last three months six Portuguese ships have arrived in Havana bringing Chinese passengers from Macao, and their losses have been as follows:

The Luisita, out of.....	342	lost 59,	or 14 per cent.
Camoens.....	416	" 51,	" 12¼ "
Alfonso de Albuquerque.....	356	" 38,	" 11 "
Vasco de Gama	506	" 228,	" 45 "
Dona Maria de Gloria	296	" 163,	" 55 "
	1,916	" 539	

"This is an average loss of 28 per cent, and does not include some 30 unfortunates who became blind on the passage."

to provoke such extreme measures, and quite a number of the Coolies on an estate may be lost before this singular fatality is arrested. We are inclined to believe that it arises from home-sickness, and their Buddhist notion that their souls, immediately after death, return to their native country. A singular case lately coming to our knowledge confirms this impression, and may throw light on the morbid state of mind which occasions suicide.

Some years ago, an *administrador* of much sagacity, found that his Coolies were killing themselves at the rate of two a day. Some hung themselves, others were found with their throats cut, and one eccentric individual climbed to the top of the chimney, where he suspended himself in full view of all the laborers on the estate. This example being dangerously conspicious, and our *administrador* having another defunct Chinaman unburied, he determined to try some plan by which their superstitions could be reached. A trench was dug and filled with wood, the bodies placed on the pile and burnt in the presence of all the Asiatics on the estate. The ashes were then scattered. Finally the Chinese were told that every man who killed himself should be burnt up—annihilated. The trench was then cleared, again piled up with wood, and left ready for the next occasion. That occasion has not yet arrived. In most cases, however, this tendency to suicide is directly traceable to some ill-treatment or bad management.

It is understood that on some estates they are employed to cultivate small patches of cane by contract, a system for which we may confidently predict success. It is their favorite system in their own country and in the "Straits Settlements," where many of the sugar estates are cultivated entirely on this plan, and where it is found to be the most economical and profitable which could be adopted. The contractor at the head of the "cong-see" undertakes to cultivate a certain number of acres, and hires all the laborers, furnishing food, and being responsible for them. He receives a small advance from the owner of the estate, and the latter from time to time watches his operations in the field, having the right and power to make any alterations in the system of culture which he may deem essential. This, however, according to Mr. Leonard Wray, whose testimony is of high value on all subjects connected with sugar culture, is arranged beforehand, by contract, with extreme minuteness. When the cane is cut the contractor is paid accordingly to the quantity of raw sugar obtained from it. The master has no care or trouble (further than a general oversight,) and can give his entire attention to the manufacture. The same system, substantially, has been tried in a few instances on the Island of Cuba, with the Chinese and free natives of the country as contractors. The only important difference is that they are paid by the weight of cane delivered at the mill, at the rate of two dollars for one hundred arrobas. We may call two dollars per ton of cane stalks the cost of cultivation under this system. With a large proportion of Chinese laborers in Cuba, settled there with their families, free, and in organized companies or *cong-sees*, the time may come when the Spaniards will discover that they can get more cane to the acre, at a less cost with Chinese laborers under this system than they can with slaves.

The Chinaman will live on as little as the negro, and *will work*. The negro slave must be compelled to work if his labor is to be worth any-

thing to his master. The Chinese laborer costs his master little at the outset, and that little is more than returned in his period of service. Working as a free man, he would cost less than the annual interest of the sum paid for an able-bodied slave, and produce more. It is needless to remark on the great saving the change would effect in releasing the large capital invested in slaves, and freeing the masters from the losses which the present system entails.

Among the most intelligent Cubans—those who are capable of looking beyond their own farms, or their own island—these considerations are beginning to attract attention, and while such a change would be the work of years, it certainly appears as if, in the growing favor with which the Coolie is viewed, the first step had been taken to bring it about. Cuba and Porto Rico bid fair to be the last countries in the world in which negro slavery will exist, for it is agreed by the majority of thinking men, that, as one result of the American rebellion, slavery neither can nor will exist in the Southern States of the American Union after this war is closed. When slavery is narrowed to these two islands, the destruction of the slave trade will be a much simpler matter than ever before. Without the slave trade, slavery must soon become extinct in Cuba. Each census shows that this is only a question of time. We remarked that the proportion of free blacks to slaves is steadily increasing, and now embraces two fifths of the whole negro population. The normal proportion is even greater when we consider the unnatural predominance of males among the slaves, the result of direct importation.

The figures stand thus:

	Men.	Women.
Free	113,805	118,687
Slaves	218,722	151,831

All the world is agitated more or less on the question of the ability of free labor to compete with slave. It has been considered that slave labor was absolutely necessary for the successful cultivation of the cane. We believe this to be a fallacy. The decay of the English West India sugar colonies has been justly ascribed to the rash and headlong measures adopted by the mother country in emancipating the slaves. No provision was made for supplying the colonies with laborers, and the consequence was that the colonist were ruined for want of power to compel the negroes to work on the plantations. The negroes found easy support and more profitable employment in cultivating small patches of land for themselves, and the withdrawal of their labor left a gap which those emancipating the negroes did not foresee, and neglected to fill. If a little foresight had been exercised, and an immigration like that which England has encouraged to Mauritius, had been extended to Jamaica and the other English possessions in the West Indies, before the wholesale withdrawal of laborers by emancipation, the distress which followed that act would have been avoided. The results of British emancipation naturally strengthened the arguments of the sugar planters both in Cuba and the United States; but now political causes are bringing about the same results in the last-named country, and if the people of Cuba are wise, they will be prepared before circumstances compel a change of system, by supplying themselves with Chinamen and Hindoo Coolies, the best and most industrious laborers in the world. Two great causes are now

at work which will eventually make the change compulsory. The slave trade has received heavier blows within the last five years than ever before, and its complete destruction would leave the Cuban planter without labor. The cheapness of free Asiatic labor will, if it has a fair trial, drive slavery from the field. Any signs of this great change, such as the growth in numbers and popularity of Asiatic laborers, are of interest and importance under such circumstances, and among these we notice that on the largest estates where the greatest attention is paid to economy, the proportion of Asiatics to slaves ranges from one-fifth part to three-fifths, and in one instance, which came to our knowledge, the proportion was eight Chinamen to three negroes.

The physical superiority of the Cuban, over the Chinese Coolie, is striking. In Cuba, they are more robust, taken as a class, than the fellows who jog through Shanghai with a tea-chest slung on a bamboo, or hang around the river-side at Canton waiting for a job. Anyone who visits the seaports of China in the summer time has a fine opportunity of judging of the physique of the people, for in hot weather the poorer classes wear nothing but their *panjamas*, or loose breeches, and the broad hat of the country. The better classes, scholars and mandarins, are fastidious and dress well, but among the Coolies and shopkeepers upper clothing is universally thrown aside in the middle of the day. They are a lean race, but muscular. In Cuba some of the Coolies are almost fat notwithstanding the severe labor, and their broad chests and muscular arms show better food than they get at home, where the miserable pittance they receive is barely enough to get them a bellyfull of rice and a cup of tea. Some part of this improvement is to be ascribed to their inability to obtain opium. Although the Cuban law punishes the sale of opium to Chinese by six years in the chain-gang, some do obtain it, and can be detected at a glance by their lean condition. As for their powers of labor, the *mayorals* will tell you that they are not as good as the negroes, and that the creole negro is the best of laborers, the native African the worst; but if you carefully observe the disposition of the laborers on the estate, you will find that if there are many Chinese they can be counted in the sugar house, around the engines and vacuum pan, having charge of the centrifugal machines, or of the defecators; in short, in all those places where it is customary to employ the best negroes of an estate. If they are not all there, depend upon it that the rest are in the cane-field with the sturdiest and most valuable of the field hands. The engineers, on the other hand, will tell you that the Coolies are the best, most obedient, and careful people about the Yngenio; occasionally, they qualify this encomium by expressing a preference for the creole negro, but they always remark that the latter requires watching. Taking yet higher authority, an *administrador* will sometimes candidly acknowledge that he prefers fifty Asiatics to seventy negroes. This is high testimony to the efficiency of the race when we consider what strong prejudices their good conduct must have overcome to elicit any praise at all. Some masters have suffered their prejudices to rule them so far as to give orders to teach negroes the management of machinery in preference to Asiatics, being fearful of losing the services of the latter if they teach them too much, whereas the latter being property, any knowledge which can be driven into their heads only increases their market value. All, from *mayoral* to master,

agree that there is this difference between the Chinaman and the negro. If you tell a Coolie what to do, he quietly and patiently sets about it, and continues working all day without a word of comment, but the negro throws down his work as soon as the *mayoral's* eye is turned, and the chances are ten to one that he goes to sleep. On a well regulated estate every gang of slaves has its *mayoral* on horseback with his whip in sight, and now and then it is cracked at some lazy fellow. The whip is not often needed for the Coolie; and as many of them have committed suicide when beaten, it is prudently trusted to one of their own nation. Of course there are some lazy fellows among them, and a sugar planter knows of only one mode of coercion for such; but the occasions are comparatively rare. We have seen large gangs of Chinese industriously at work, the leader working as hard as the rest; and it is evident by the treatment they receive from the engineers, wherever they are employed about machinery, that the most intelligent are on pretty much the same footing as ordinary laborers in other lands. It is observed that all of them can read and write, and that they readily acquire Spanish.

With such intelligent and industrious laborers to be had in any number from China, at low wages, it is a mistake to suppose that slave labor is the cheapest in the world, notwithstanding the clamors of the English colonies for protection against slave-grown sugar. The price of negroes in Cuba will show that labor is higher in that country than in many others where sugar is produced. A good field hand is worth $1,000 to-day in Havana, and can be hired out for about $25 a month, his food and medical attendance. House servants worth $750 @ $800, command $20 a month, and even girls fourteen years old are paid $9. These prices are less than they were prior to the breaking out of the American rebellion. In the settlements of the Straits of Malacca, Chinese labor—and skilled labor at that—can be obtained under the contract system at from three to five Mexican dollars per month, the laborer finding his own food and clothing. In India labor is quite as cheap. In China it is even less. The sugar planter of Mauritius, with a free Coolie immigration, is on a better footing than the Cuban in this respect. This little island, only 36 miles long by 22 miles wide, supports a free Coolie population of 150,000. Even in the Sandwich Islands, which are just beginning to be known among sugar countries, the Kanaka works for eight dollars a month, his food, lodging, and medical attendance. The cost of slave labor in Cuba, therefore, is considerably greater than in several sugar-growing countries, and that cost keeps pace with the advance in price which sugar now commands in all the markets of the world, and with the increasing risk of the slave trade.

That a cheaper system of labor will eventually supplant slavery, we do not doubt; and we may hope that, with an increasing immigration from China, stringent laws regulating the passenger traffic, and more liberal treatment of the Coolies by their employers; this Coolie immigration, which has often been represented as being quite as bad as the African slave trade, will yet prove to be as great a blessing to Cuba as it has to the British West Indian Islands, by providing them with cheap labor, and an industrious population, well fitted for a tropical climate.

COMMERCIAL LAW.—NO. 19.

BANKRUPTCY AND INSOLVENCY.

(Continued from page 106, vol. 52.)

WHO MAY BE INSOLVENTS.

The statutes provide, with much minuteness, as to who may become, or be made bankrupt. In England, the statute of George III. c. 16, sec. 2, collected in one clause the various kinds of persons whom the bankrupt law considered as traders, and somewhat enlarged the provisions of former statutes in this particular. But still the operation of the law was confined to traders. It will be remembered, however, that the insolvent laws originally differed from the bankrupt laws, in the fact that they were not confined to traders; that is, only a trader could be proceeded against by a creditor, and being so proceeded against, his debt was discharged. But any debtor liable to arrest might seek relief under the insolvent laws, and would be by them protected from imprisonment. Now, all our present statutes are called insolvent laws; and their operation is very wide. In England, for example, no married woman could be a bankrupt who was not lawfully a sole trader; but here, it may be presumed that any woman, whether married or not, who by the present or any future law of a State should be liable to suit upon a debt, could go into insolvency.

An infant cannot be made a bankrupt; but we do not know why he may not be declared insolvent on his own petition; for the modern rule is, that none of his debts are absolutely void, but only—if not for necessaries—voidable by him. And therefore, unless, or until, they are avoided, he is the same as any other debtor.

A lunatic, while insane, could perhaps incur no debt for which he could be held responsible; unless, possibly, for his own benefit, it was permitted to him to make a valid contract for necessaries. In such case, he could become insolvent for that, and he certainly could be declared insolvent on the petition of a guardian, for debts contracted before insanity, or in a lucid interval.

If a debtor attempts to place his property in the hands of assignees, for the benefit of his creditors, this, where there is a bankrupt law, is an act of bankruptcy. That is, the debtor may be proceeded against as a bankrupt, and his voluntary assignment is void, and the assignee appointed under the bankrupt commission takes all his effects. And this is applied, even where there is no intention to defraud; and even where the debtor provided, by the express terms of the assignment, that his effects should be applied and distributed according to the provisions of the bankrupt law. This would now be true in this country only where the State statutes expressly or by implication supersede all voluntary assignments; but would not be true where they merely offer the relief they provide to those who seek it, leaving them at liberty to assign their effects for their debts, if they choose to do so.

THE PROOF OF DEBTS.

As the insolvent laws purpose to divide all the assets of the debtor ratably among all the creditors, it follows that they open the way very widely for all persons who have claims to present, and prove them. This proof is made, in the first place, by the oath of the creditor, and, if further proof be required, by such evidence as would be admissible and appropriate under the general rules of the law of evidence.

The presentation and proof may be, in some degree at least, by agent or attorney; and this is usually provided for in the statutes. In some cases it can only be by an agent or attorney; as, when a corporation is a creditor. In such case, the corporation should act by an attorney specially appointed and authorized to act in their behalf.

If trustees hold claims against a bankrupt, and present them, it has been said that the *cestui que trust*—or the party for whose benefit the trust exists—should join with the trustee. This may be proper in many cases, but in some it would be obviously impossible, as where the *cestui que trust* is a young child, or a lunatic, or out of the country. And if she were a married woman, we should doubt the propriety of her joining, unless under some particular provision or peculiar character of the trust.

If the creditor be himself a bankrupt, so that his claim also has passed into the hands of his assignee, it would seem that his assignee alone might present and prove it in case of necessity; but the practice appears to be to require the creditor's own oath, whenever it can be had. And this is founded on obvious reasons. We think they apply equally to the case of every claim assigned, and presented by the assignee. The recovery is for the benefit of the assignee; but at common law he must do everything in the name of the assignor. And in such a case, if the assignor alone presents and proves, it might accrue to the benefit of the assignee, and be sufficient. But the more correct way would be for assignor and assignee to join.

If a bankrupt holds claims, of which the legal title is in him, but the beneficiary interests are in others, as if he be for any purpose a trustee for others, and a balance is due to him in that capacity, or to the fund which he holds representatively, from his general assets, he may present and prove this claim against his own estate.

Debts not yet payable can be proved. If they become due before a dividend, there is no deduction from them. If not, interest is deducted. In general, in order to equalize the claims, interest is cast upon all the claims proved to a certain day; and if a debt not yet due is then paid, in whole or in part, interest must be deducted to put it on an equal claim with others. If interest is cast for many years, compound interest is never allowed as such. But we presume that an account would be cast by commissioners of insolvency with annual rests, if it were one which would be so calculated in a suit against the insolvent.

So, persons holding annuities payable by the bankrupt have been permitted to come in, and have the value of the whole annuity reduced by computation to a single sum, and present and prove that as a debt. In several instances, a wife has been permitted to prove debts against her husband's estate. As where she held a bond or other legal instrument from him, payable at his death. Or if there were a settlement made upon

her before marriage, and a sum due to her from her husband's estate under that settlement; and a settlement made after marriage, in good faith, and before the husband became, or expected to be, insolvent, would have the same effect.

The assignees, who for many purposes represent the bankrupt, or insolvent, may make any defence to a claim which he could make. Hence, a debt for gaming, or one open to objection as usurious, or one without consideration, may be repelled. So, also, the assignees may make some defences which the bankrupt could not make. As if one presented a claim for damages for a tort, or personal injury, this may be rejected by the assignee, although the insolvent might be guilty and have no defence. The reason given seems to be, that the insolvent would not pay them if they were recovered, but that his other creditors would. This, however, is equally true of every other claim or debt, if the whole fund belongs to all the creditors, and cannot pay all in full. The true distinction, on principle, seems to be this: that, so far as the sum recoverable for wrong done is only an unliquidated compensation for personal harm, to be ascertained by a jury, and savors of punishment to the wrong-doer, the claim for it cannot be proved as a debt. But when judgment has been recovered for the tort, this takes the place of the original cause of action; and it is a debt which can be proved like any other. In some of the statutes it is expressly provided, that, if the claim be for goods or chattels wrongfully obtained by the debtor, it may be proved.

If the claim be merely contingent, that is, if it is to be valid and fixed if a certain event occur, and otherwise not, it may still be proved,—and not like an annuity, &c., by reduction to its present value, but at its full value; the payment of the dividend depending upon the happening of the event which is to make the claim valid, and being delayed until that event.

If a party holds a note which the bankrupt has indorsed or made, only to accommodate the holder, as there is no consideration for it, it cannot be proved. And, on the other hand, if the bankrupt holds a note made or indorsed to him without consideration, and for accommodation only, this note would not pass to the assignee as part of the bankrupt's assets. We should apply the same principle to the case of two promissory notes, both accommodation in so far as they were given for each other, that is, exchanged notes. Here, if at the time of the bankruptcy neither party had used his note, we should say that each should be returned, and not that the holder of the bankrupt's note should take his dividend, and pay the whole of the note given by him to the bankrupt. Each note was a good legal consideration for the other; but the principle of accommodation paper should apply to both. If, however, either of the notes had been used and transferred to a third party, this principle would no longer be applicable; and then the creditor would get only his dividend on the note he received, but must pay the whole of the note he gave.

At common law, if one guaranties a debt for another, in any form, as a surety, or as an indorser, he has no legal claim against that other until he pays the debt. Therefore he cannot, before such payment, compel the party for whom he is surety to give him security or indemnity; all he can do is to pay the debt, and then bring his action for damages. It is not so, however, under the bankrupt or insolvency law. Here, the fact

of the debtor's insolvency carries with it the inference that the surety will have to pay the debt he has guaranteed. The surety is, therefore, permitted to come in and prove as his claim the whole amount for which he is surety. But it is in the nature of a contingent claim. And no dividend is paid to him excepting on the sum which he has actually paid under his obligation as surety.

There is, however, a limitation to this right of the surety. He can prove his claim only when the debt already exists, although it may not now be payable. Thus, a surety for rent may prove for the rent due and unpaid, but not for any future rent. For this may never become due; as the tenant may be turned out, or something else occur to defeat the claim for rent. This might seem a little hard. Thus, if A hires of B a store for seven years, at $1,000 a year, and C is his surety for the rent, and after one year A fails, having paid no rent, C could have a dividend on what he pays for the year's rent that is due, but none on the remaining six years, for which he is bound. And the reason is, that, if B chooses not to terminate the lease, but to hold C for the six years, C acquires by paying the rent the right to use the premises himself, or to let them and take the rent.

There seems to be no way in which a surety may compel the party whom he guaranties to prove his claim and take his dividend from the assets of the debtor. This would, of course, diminish the liability of the surety just so far; and the surety ought to have the power of requiring this. In practice, a surety can only pay the debt, whether due or not, and is then subrogated to all the rights of the principal creditor. (By "subrogated to his rights" is meant, that he is put in his place and stead, and acquires his rights.) This prevents, probably, any practical mischief. And if the creditor, relying on his surety, and at the same time wishing to distress his surety, refused the payment tendered to him, and also refused to prove his debt, undoubtedly such conduct would be considered as a negligence or fraud, which would discharge the surety. For to all suretyship there must be attached the general condition, that the creditor shall do all that can reasonably be asked of him to secure the debt from the principal, or permit the surety to do it.

A creditor who holds security as collateral to his debt, may prove the balance due to him after deducting the value of the security. This value may be ascertained by the creditor's selling it, or, under our bankrupt law, by having it appraised, and taking it at its appraised value. In general, if he has any liens on any property whatever for his debt, he must make them reduce his debt as far as possible, or otherwise make them available to the assets, as by surrendering them to the assignees.

THE ASSIGNEE.

The assignee is usually selected or chosen by the creditors, at their first meeting; a majority in value of the creditors choosing, with some restrictions; as that a certain number must concur in the choice, in order to prevent one or two very large creditors from deciding the question. If the creditors fail, or decline, to choose, usually the judge or commissioner presiding may appoint. The assignee, or assignees, thus chosen, must signify their assent within a certain time, which is usually a short one.

It is his duty to act as a faithful trustee for all concerned; and with

impartial justice to all. It would be impossible to enumerate all his duties. The principal among them are, to ascertain the regularity and sufficiency of the proceedings thus far; to take immediate possession of all the assets (which mean property and effects and valuable interests of every kind which are available for the fund) of the insolvent, and demand and take any necessary steps to collect all outstanding assets of every kind. And he must take due care of the property thus collected. In general, he is clothed with the power, and is subject to the responsibilities and disabilities, of a trustee. In one case his responsibility as trustee was so strictly construed, that an assignee who was an accountant was not allowed to charge for his services as accountant. So, if he sells any property of the insolvent, he cannot buy it himself.

He may compound debts due, or otherwise arrange for them, but on his own responsibility, unless under order of the supervising court, which it is always prudent, and perhaps necessary, to obtain, previous to any action of the kind. And the same thing is true of any temporary investment, or any change of investment of the assets. Generally, he should deposit all moneys, as soon as collected, in some bank of perfectly good credit, and to the special account of the fund of the assignment. He may redeem mortgages or pledges; but here, also, he should obtain the sanction of the court. So he may transfer notes payable to the insolvent, by indorsing them in his own name. And where a note was actually transferred before insolvency, by the insolvent, to a *bona fide* holder, and the insolvent intended to indorse the same, but neglected to do so, the assignee may indorse it for the holder.

It is undoubtedly the rule, that, when the assignee acts in the discharge of simple and ordinary duties, he is liable only for want of ordinary skill and care. But, as he may have the order of the court in all extraordinary cases, if he does not obtain this, but acts on his own judgment, he is held to a more stringent responsibility. It is not always easy to draw the line between these two classes of cases. The statutes provide for some of them; practice, or the obvious reason of the thing, for more; and where there is any doubt, it is always in the power of the assignee, and always prudent for him, to have the direction and authority of the court.

The assignee is, in general, subject to the same equities as the insolvent, whose title to anything is not confirmed by passing to the hands of the assignee, even where it would be so by transfer for value to a third party. Thus, if a negotiable note were held by an insolvent, who had bought it with knowledge that the consideration had failed, the promisor would have a good defence if he were sued by the insolvent himself, but not if he were sued by a third party, who bought it for value without notice or knowledge of the defence. But the same defence may be made to the action if it be brought by the assignee, whether the assignee has any such knowledge or not, because he has not *purchased* the note.

We have said that the assignee is bound to take possession of the whole estate of the insolvent. But here also he has, and should exercise, a discretion. If the property be encumbered by liens, or obligations, which would reduce its value to nothing, and for which the assignee makes himself or his fund responsible by taking possession, he may and should decline the possession. Leasehold property, for example, may be held by the insolvent on terms which require him to pay for it more than it is

worth; and if the assignee takes possession of this property under the assignment, he would be liable for the rent. This he should avoid. But here also, we repeat, he would be safest in acting under the direction of the court.

The assignee may sue in his own name, even upon covenants made with the insolvent. And all the assignees of any insolvent should join in bringing any suit.

(To be continued.)

COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES FOR 1864.

GROSS EXPORTS AND IMPORTS FROM 1790 TO 1864—EXPORTS AND IMPORTS OF COIN AND BULLION FROM 1821 TO 1864—EXPORTS OF BREADSTUFFS, COTTON, PROVISIONS, ETC., FROM 1859 TO 1864—ALSO VALUE OF MANUFACTURES EXPORTED FROM 1856 TO 1864.

We are able, through the Treasury Department, to give some important tables showing the commercial and financial movements for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1864.

EXPORTS AND IMPORTS.

The following gives the gross value of the exports and imports to and from the United States, from the formation of the Government up to and including the last fiscal year. It is necessary, however, to remember that the imports are stated at their invoiced specie values, while the exports of domestic produce, manufactures, etc., for the past three years, are the currency values. Hence the apparent excess of exports for those years is not real:

THE GROSS VALUE OF THE EXPORTS AND IMPORTS FROM 1790 TO JUNE 30, 1864.

Year ending—	EXPORTS. Domestic produce.	Foreign merchandise.	Total.	Imports. Total.	Excess of exports.	Excess of imports.
1790.	$19,666,000	$539,156	$20,205,156	$23,000,000	....	$2,794,844
1791.	18,500,000	512,041	19,012,041	29,200,000	.....	10,187,959
1792.	19,000,000	1,753,098	20,753,098	31,500,000	.....	10,546,902
1793.	24,000,000	2,109,572	26,109,572	31,100,000	.....	4,990,428
1794.	26,500,000	6,526,233	33,026,233	34,600,000	.....	1,573,767
1795.	39,500,000	8,489,472	47,989,472	69,756,268	.....	21,766,796
1796.	40,764,097	26,300,000	67,064,097	81,436,164	....	14,372,067
1797.	29,850,206	27,000,000	56,850,206	75,379,406	.....	18,529,200
1798.	28,527,097	33,000,000	61,527,097	68,551,700	.....	7,024,603
1799.	33,142,522	45,523,000	78,665,522	79,060,145	.....	403,626
1800.	31,840,903	39,130,877	70,971,780	91,252,768	.....	20,280,988
1801.	47,473,204	46,642,721	94,115,925	111,363,511	.....	17,247 586
1802.	36,708,189	35,774,971	72,483,160	76,333,333	.....	3,850,173
1803.	42,205,961	13,594,072	55,800,033	64,666,666	.....	8,866,633
1804.	41,467,477	36,231,597	77,699,074	85,000,000	....	7,300,926
1805.	42,387,002	53,179,019	95,566 021	120,600,000	.....	25,033,979
1806.	41,253,727	60,283,236	101,536,963	129,410,000	.....	17,873,037
1807.	48,699,592	59,643,558	108,343,150	138,500,000	.....	30,156,850
1808.	9,433,546	12,997,414	22,430,960	56,990,000	.....	34,559,040
1809.	31,405,702	20,797,581	52,203,283	59,400,000	.....	7,196,767
1810.	42,366,675	24,391,295	66,657,970	85,400,000	.....	18,742,030
1811.	45,294,043	16,022,790	61,316,833	53,400,000	$7,916,833	.....
1812.	30,032,109	8,495,127	38,527,236	77,030,000	.....	38,502,764
1813.	25,008,132	2,847,865	27,855,927	22,005,000	5,850,927	....
1814.	6,782,272	145,169	6,927,441	12,965,000	.... ..	6,041,559
1815.	45,974,403	6,583,350	52,557,753	113,041,274	.....	60,483,521
1816.	64,781,896	17,138,156	81,920,452	147,103,000	.....	65,182,548

1817.	68,313,500	19,358,069	87,671,560	99,250,000	.....	11,578,440
1818.	73,854,437	19,426,696	93,281,133	121,750,000	.....	28,468,867
1819.	50,976,838	19,165,683	70,142,521	87,125,000	.....	16,982,479
1820.	51,683,640	18,008,029	69,691,669	74,450,000	.....	4,758,331
1821.	43,671,894	21,302,488	64,974,382	62,585,724	2,088,658	.....
1822.	49,874,079	22,286,202	72,160,281	83,241,541	.....	11,081,260
1823.	47,155,408	27,543,622	74,699,030	77,579,267	.....	2,880,237
1824.	50,649,500	25,337,157	75,986,657	89,549,007	.....	13,562,350
1825.	66,944,745	32,590,643	99,535,388	96,340,075	3,195,313	.....
1826.	53,055,710	24,530,612	77,595,322	84,974,477	.....	7,379,155
1827.	58,921,691	23,408,136	82,324,727	79,484,063	2,840,659	.....
1828.	50,669,669	21,595,017	72,264,686	88,509,824	.....	16,245,138
1829.	55,700,193	16 658,478	72,358,671	74,492,527	.....	2,158,856
1830.	59,462,029	14,387,479	73,849,508	70,876,920	2,972,583	.....
1831.	61,277,057	20,033,526	81,310,583	103,191,124	.....	21,880,541
1832.	63,137,470	24,039,473	87,176,943	101,029,266	.....	13,852,323
1833.	70,317,698	19,822,735	90,140,443	108,118,311	.....	17,977,868
1834.	81,024,162	23,312,811	104,336,973	126,521,232	.....	22,184,259
1835.	101,189,082	20,504,495	121,693,577	149,895,742	.....	28,202,165
1836.	106,916,680	21,746,360	128,663,040	189,980,035	.....	61,316,995
1837.	95,564,414	21,854,962	117,419,376	140,989,217	.....	28,569,841
1838.	96,033,821	12,452,795	108,486,616	113,717,404	.....	5,230,788
1839.	103,533,891	17,494,525	121,028,416	162,092,132	.....	41,063,716
1840.	113,895,634	18,190,312	132,085,936	107,141,519	24,944,417	.....
1841.	106,382,722	15,469,081	121,851,803	127,946,177	.....	6,094,374
1842	92,969,996	11,721,538	104,691,534	100,162,087	4,529,447	.....
9 mos., to June 30—						
1843.	77,793,783	6,552,697	84,346,480	64,753,799	19,592,681	.....
Year end'g June 30—						
1844.	99,716,179	11,484,867	111,200,046	108,435,035	2,765,011	.....
1845.	99,299,776	15,346,830	114,646,606	117,254,564	.....	2,607,958
1846.	102,841,893	11,346,623	118,488,516	121,691,797	.....	8,203,281
1847.	150,637,464	8,011,158	158,648,622	146,545,638	12,102,984	.....
1848.	132,904,121	21,128,010	154,032,131	154,998,928	.....	966,797
1849.	132,666,955	13,088,865	145,755,820	147,857,439	.....	2,101,619
1850.	136,946,912	14,951,808	151,898,720	178,138,318	.....	26,239,598
1851.	196,689,718	21,698,293	218,388,011	216,224,932	2,163,079	.....
1852.	192,868,984	17,289,882	209,658,866	212,946,442	.....	3,287,076
1853.	213,417,697	17,558,460	230,976,157	267,978,647	.....	37,002,490
1854.	253,390,870	24,850,194	278,241,064	304,562,381	.....	26,321,317
1855.	246,708,553	28,448,293	275,156,846	261,468,520	13,688,326	.....
1856.	310,586,330	16,378,578	326,964,908	314,639,942	12,324,966	.....
1857.	338,985,065	23,975,617	362,960,682	360,890,141	2,070,541	.....
1858.	293,758 279	30,886,142	324,644,421	282,613,150	42,031,271	.....
1859.	335,894,385	20,895,077	356,789,462	338,768,130	18,021,332	.....
1860.	373,189,274	26,933,022	400,122,296	362,162,541	37,959,755	.....
1861.	389,711,391	21,145,427	410,856,818	352,075,535	58,781,283	.....
1862.	213,069,519	16,869,466	229,938,975	205,819,823	24,119,152	.....
1863.	324,092,877	25,959,248	350,052.125	252,187,587	97,864,538	.....
1864.	320,292,171	20,373,409	340,665,580	328,514,559	12,151,521	.....

That our readers may see at a glance the total exports and imports of coin and bullion, we give the following table covering the years from 1821 to 1864, inclusive:

THE EXPORTS AND IMPORTS OF COIN AND BULLION FROM 1821 TO 1864, INCLUSIVE, AND ALSO THE EXCESS OF IMPORTS AND EXPORTS DURING THE SAME YEARS.

Fiscal Year ending Sept. 30—	Imported.	EXPORTED. American.	Foreign.	Total.	Excess of imports.	Excess of exports.
1821.	$8,064,890	.....	$10,478,059	$10,478,059	....	$2,413,169
1822.	3,369,846	.....	10,810,180	10,810,180	.....	7,440,334

1823.	5,097,896	.....	6,372,897	6,372,897	.....	1,275,091
1824.	8,378,970	.....	7,014,552	7,014,552	$1,366,148	.....
1825.	6,150,765	.....	8,797,055	8,797,055	.....	2,646,290
1826.	6,880,966	$605,855	4,098,678	4,704,533	2,176,433	.....
1827.	8,151,130	1,043,574	6,971,306	8,014,880	136,250	.....
1828.	7,489,741	698,037	7,550,439	8,248,476	.....	758,735
1829.	7,403,612	612,886	4,311,134	4,924,020	2,479,592	.....
1830.	8,155,964	937,151	1,241,622	2,178,773	5,977,191	.....
1831.	7,305,945	2,058,474	6,956,457	9,014,931	.....	1,708,986
1832.	5,907,504	1,410,941	4,245,399	5,656,340	251,164	.....
1833.	7,070,868	366,842	2,244,859	2,611,701	4,458,667	.....
1834.	17,911,632	400,500	1,676,258	2,076,758	15,834,874	.....
1835.	13,131,447	729,601	5,748,174	6,477,775	6.633,672	.....
1836.	13,400,881	345,738	3,978,598	4,324,336	9,076,545	.....
1837.	10,516,414	1,283,519	4,692,730	5,976,249	4,540,165	.....
1838.	17,747,116	472,941	3,035,105	3,508,046	14,239,070	.....
1839.	5,595,176	1,908,358	6,868,385	8,776,743	.....	3,181,567
1840.	8,882,813	2,235,073	6,181,941	8,417,014	465,799	.....
1841.	4,988,633	2,746,486	7,287,846	10,034,332	.....	5,045,699
1842.	4,087,016	1,170,754	3,642,785	4,813,539	.....	726,523
9 mos. to June 30—						
1843.	22,390,559	107,429	1,413,862	1,520,791	20,869,768	.....
Year end'g June 30—						
1844.	5,830,429	183,405	5,270,809	5,454,214	376,215	.....
1845.	4,070,242	844,446	7,762,049	8,606,495	.....	4,536,253
1846.	3,777,732	423,851	3,481,417	3,905,268	.....	127,536
1847.	24,121,289	62,620	1,844,404	1,907,024	22,214,265	.....
1848.	6,360,284	2,700,412	13,141,204	15,841,616	.....	9,481,332
1849.	6,651,240	956,874	4,447,774	5,404,648	1,246,592	.....
1850.	4,628,792	2,046,679	5,476,315	7,522,994	.....	2,894,202
1851.	5,453,592	18,069,580	11,403,172	29,472,752	.....	24,019,160
1852.	5,505,044	37,437,837	5,236,298	42,674,135	.....	37,169,091
1853.	4,201,382	23,548,535	3,938,340	27,486,875	.....	23,285,493
1854.	6,939,342	38,062,570	3,218,934	41,281,504	.....	34,342,162
1855.	3,659,812	53,957,418	2,289,925	56,247,343	.....	52,587,531
1856.	4,207,632	44,148,279	1,597,206	45,745,485	.....	41,537,853
1857.	12,461,799	60,078,352	9,055,570	69,136,922	.....	56,675,123
1858.	19,274,496	42,407,246	10,225,901	52,633,147	.....	33,358,651
1859.	7,434,789	57,502,305	6,385,106	63,887,411	.....	56,452,622
1860.	8,550,135	56,946,851	9,599,388	66,546,239	.....	57,996,104
1861.	46,339,611	23,798,870	5,991,310	29,791,180	16,538,431	.....
1862.	16,415,052	31,044,651	5,842,989	36,887,640	.....	20,472,688
1863.	9,584.105	74,201,433	8,168,049	82,364,482	.....	72,780,377
1864.	13,155,706	100,219,065	4,906,685	105,125,750	.....	91,970,044

The exports of American gold for the years 1863 and 1864 have been corrected from the returns heretofore published, and now embrace a large unusual shipment from California to England, on account of New York and other Eastern holders taking that direction for safety of transit. The sums added were $18,207,879 in 1862–63, and $35,735,265 in 1863–64.

EXPORTS OF STAPLE PRODUCTS, MANUFACTURES, ETC.

The first of the following tables gives the quantity and value of the exports of cotton, tobacco, coal, breadstuffs, provisions, oils, animal products, etc., for the last five fiscal years, and the second gives the values of manufactures exported for nine years. It will be remembered that the values of these exports are stated in currency:

EXPORTS OF COTTON, BREADSTUFFS, PROVISIONS, OILS, ANIMAL PRODUCTS, &C., FOR FOUR YEARS ENDING JUNE 30.

Articles.	1860-'61		1861-'62		1862-'63		1863-'64	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
Wheat ..... bushels	31,288,057	$38,813,624	37,289,572	$42,578,295	36,160,414	$46,764,195	23,680,651	$31,430,270
Wheat flour ..... barrels	4,828,756	24,645,849	4,882,088	27,584,677	4,890,055	28,366,069	3,548,248	25,458,989
Indian corn ..... bushels	10,678,244	6,890,865	18,904,909	10,387,383	16,119,476	10,592,704	4,075,889	3,821,526
Corn meal ..... barrels	203,813	692,003	253,570	778,344	257,948	1,013,272	262,347	1,349,688
Rye and other grains	.....	1,124,556	.....	2,864,625	.....	1,833,757	.....	918,501
Rye and other meals ..... barrels	14,143	55,761	14,463	54,488	8,684	33,067	7,199	37,991
Bread or biscuit ..... barrels	129,114	429,708	148,577	490,942	156,667	582,268	154,895	656,408
Rice ..... barrels	108,781	2,382,178	10,554	156,899	4,237	83,404	5,399	83,244
Beef ..... barrels	128,201	1,675,778	136,022	2,017,077	146,298	2,185,921	178,098	3,019,733
Butter ..... pounds	15,531,381	2,355,985	26,691,247	4,164,344	35,172,415	6,733,743	20,795,195	6,121,365
Cheese ..... pounds	32,361,428	3,321,631	34,052,678	2,715,892	42,045,054	4,216,804	47,733,337	5,634,515
Pork ..... barrels	156,487	2,609,818	309,102	3,980,153	327,852	4,334,775	312,825	5,820,648
Hams and bacon ....pounds	50,264,267	4,848,339	141,212,786	10,290,572	218,243 609	18,658,280	110,759,485	12,303,729
Lard ..... pounds	47,908,911	4,729,297	118,573,307	10,004,521	155,836,596	15,755,570	85,385,337	11,033 933
Lard oil ..... gallons	85,676	81,783	239,608	148,056	1,259,063	983,349	439,536	376,683
Tallow ..... pounds	29,718,364	2,942.730	46,773,768	4,026,113	63,792,754	6,738,846	55,015,875	6 191,743
Candles ..... pounds	5,026,667	826,955	6,100,029	901,330	6,838,353	1,187,864	5,576,580	1,046,406
Soaps ..... pounds	7,202,180	455,648	9,956,984	636,049	9,097,664	736,524	8 029,382	770,601
Fish, pickled ..... barrels	49,683	244.028	71,844	330,685	76,668	429,316	78 896	507,719
Fish, dry ..... pounds	24 598,836	634,941	28,091,728	712,584	25.562.208	921,131	21,541,744	967,136
Oils, whale, (and sperm) ..... gallons	2,527,925	2,692,087	3,338,793	2,243,800	3,090,305	3,052 880‡	1,266,291	1,735,575
Oils, coal and petroleum ..... gallons	.....	.....	5,828,929	1,539,027	155 874	27,839	23,192,280	10,771,292
Spirits, distilled ..... gallons	6,542,464	2,311,685	7,220,874	2,622,438	7,396,925	3,405,572	2,488,742	1,426,182
Tobacco, in leaf ..... hogsheads*	168,469	13,784,710	116,723	12,325,356	117,213	19,752,076	114,177	22,811,630
Tobacco, manufactured (and snuff). lbs.	14 864,828	2,760,631	4,110,802	1,076,644	7,070,172	3,398,177	3,660,320	8,571,801
Cotton ..... pounds	307,516,099†	84,051,483†	5,064,564	1,180,113	11,384,986	6,652,405	10,840,534	9,944,840
Coal ..... tons	158,171	577,386	218,046	837,117	186,960	993,309	172,971	1,207,802
Clover seed ..... bushels	200,417	1,063,141	66,064	295,255	389,554	2,185,706	73,081	501,175
Hops ..... pounds	8,835,837	2,006,053	5,851.246	663,308	8,864,081	1,733,265	5,550,755	1,216,965
Hides	.....	673,818	.....	518,687	.....	355,355	.....	303,811
Ice ..... tons	44,753	172,263	48,390	182,667	46,533	169,757	47,470	277,421
Animals, living	...	640 223	....	606,810	...	837,189	.....	251,172

* Cases and bales converted to hogsheads, at 5 to 1. † The recorded quantities and values; but the actual total exports may be assumed at 1,750,000,000 pounds, value $185,000,000. ‡ Petroleum not reported; but the total export was nearly 22,500,000 gallons, value $6,800,000.

VALUE OF LEADING ARTICLES OF MANUFACTURE EXPORTED DURING THE FISCAL YEARS ENDING JUNE 30, FROM 1856 TO 1864.

Articles.	1856.	1857.	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.	1862.	1863.	1864.
Ashes	$429,428	$696,367	$554,744	$643,861	$822,820	$651,547	$457,049	$513,704	$467,192
Beer and ale	45,086	43,732	59,532	78,226	53,573	39,480	54,696	127,076	118,451
Books	202,502	277,647	209,774	319,080	278,268	250,865	214,231	221,700	258,534
Boots and shoes	1,060,967	813,995	663,905	820,175	782,525	779,876	721,241	1,328,735	1,282,314
Bread and biscuit	497,741	563,266	472,372	512,910	478,740	429,708	490,942	582,268	656,408
Cables and cordage	367,182	286,163	212,840	320,495	246,572	255,274	199,669	408,847	540,489
Candles, spermaceti	48,449	35,121	66,012	46,278	51,829	143,907	64,481	76,946	60,323
tallow, adamantine and all other	766,588	677,398	628,599	671,750	708,699	688,048	886 849	1,110,918	786,083
Carriages, wagons and cars	370,259	476,394	777,921	655,600	816,973	472,080	519,175	764.000	743,340
Chocolate	1,476	1,932	2,804	2,444	2,593	2,157	4,288	1,656	5,307
Clothing	278,832	333,442	210,695	470,613	525,175	462,554	472,924	950,332	574,016
Combs and buttons	32,653	39,799	46,349	46,007	23,845	32,792	12,994	40,036	62,716
Copper and brass manufactures: chandeliers and gas fixtures	534,846	607,054	1,985,223	1,048,246	1,664,122	2,875,029	1,098,546	1,026,038	818,664
Cotton manufactures: piece goods, brown	4,616,264	3,715,339	1,782,025	1,518,286	1,785,595	1,377,627	508,004	322,316	244,562
piece goods, printed	1,966,845	1,785,685	2,069,194	2,320,890	3,356,449	2,215,032	587,500	630,558	106,878
twist, yarn and thread	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
all other manufactures	884,200	614,153	1,800,285	4,477,096	5,792,752	4,364,379	1,850,960	1,950,997	894,776
Drugs, medicinal	1,066,294	886,909	681,278	796,008	1,115,455	1,149,433	1,490,336	1,954,446	1,551,632
Earthen and stone-ware	66,696	84,256	56,783	47,261	65,086	40,524	82,108	88,153	65,808
Fire engines and apparatus	29,088	21,524	7,220	8,213	9,948	7,940	36,230	9,706	14,222
Glassware	216,439	179,900	214,608	252,316	277,948	894,731	523,906	1,000,980	796,174
Gold and silver manufactures	6,116	15,477	26,386	35,947	140,187	53,372	63,078	165,844	58,012
Gunpowder	644,974	898,244	365,173	371,603	467,772	347,103	101,803	48,208	40,601
Hats	226,682	254,208	126.525	216,704	211,602	156,956	132,727	279,038	178,002
Hemp manfactures, not cordage	26,035	34,753	89,092	18,878	27,814	39,570	31,940	122,204	89,103
House furniture	982,042	870,448	932,499	1,067,197	1,079,114	888,049	942,454	1,278,977	1,378,755
India-rubber manufactures	1,093,538	643,512	813,879	198,827	240,841	193,691	143,856	247,600	268,806
Iron, pig, bar and nails	286,980	397,313	205,931	257,662	246,154	311,321	259,852	450,571	564,962
castings	288,316	289,967	464,415	128,659	282,848	76,750	54,671	56,853	287,613
all other manufactures of iron and steel	3,585,712	4,197,687	4,059,528	5,117,346	5,174,040	5,536,576	4,212,448	5,955,750	5,861,108
Lead, and manufactures of lead and of pewter	33,140	63,442	75,446	57,357	96,527	36,775	36,166	52,920	144,729

Articles.	1856.	1857.	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.	1862.	1863.	1864.
Leather, common	$252,844	$497,714	$605,589	$499,718	$674,309	$555,202	$389,007	$634,397	$371,170
morocco and other fine	5,765	2,119	18,999	41,465	19,011	7,507	13,409	18,719	21,108
Lime, cement and bricks	64,297	68,002	103,821	160,611	154,045	93,292	83,385	98,978	123,307
Lumber, boards and other	803,684	688,406	1,240,425	1,001,216	705,119	441,979	3,178,735	3,705,853	3,978,100
masts, spars and hewn timber.	234,969	516,735	292,163	367,609	231,668	97,875	138,521	8,036	142,425
Marble and stone manufactures	162,876	111,403	138,590	112,214	176,239	185,267	195,442	138,214	144,217
Musical instruments	133,517	127,748	97,775	155,101	129,653	150,974	147,826	148,782	171,542
Oils, lard	161,232	92,499	60,958	50,793	55,783	81,783	152,026	983,349	376,682
linseed	57,190	54,144	48,225	84,194	26,799	27,982	20,893	29,861	80,997
petroleum and coal	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	150,000	1,539,027	8,750,000	10,771,292
Paints and varnish	217,173	223,320	131,217	185,068	223,809	240,923	264,114	436,833	261,639
Paper and stationery	203,017	224,767	229,991	299,857	285,798	347,915	399,793	593,036	542,610
Printing presses and type	67,519	52,747	106,498	68,868	157,124	106,562	169,147	206,037	157,095
Saddlery	31,249	45,222	55,280	58,870	71,332	61,469	67,759	167,711	119,571
Soap	434,176	530,085	305,704	466,215	494,305	455,648	636,049	736,524	770,601
Spirits, alcoholic, from grain	500,945	1,248,234	476,722	273,576	321,595	867,954	328,414	1,390,588	717,644
all other	1,424,635	1,336,646	1,517,123	949,635	1,149,843	1,443,731	2,293,563	2,015,034	708,538
Spirits of turpentine	839,048	741,346	1,089,282	1,306,035	1,916,289	1,192,787	54,691	143,777	87,863
Staves, shooks and heading	1,864,281	2,055,980	1,975,852	2,410,334	2,365,516	1,959,392	2,590,649	4,489,069	4,169,348
Sugar, brown	404,145	190,012	375,062	169,935	103,244	301,329	90,022	87,592	64,994
refined	360,444	368,206	200,724	377,944	301,674	287,881	147,397	354,919	258,952
Tin ware	13,610	5,623	24,186	39,289	39,064	30,229	62,286	41,558	45,056
Tobacco, manufactured, (cigars and snuff included)	1,829,207	1,458,553	2,410,224	3,402,491	3,383,428	2,760,531	1,076,644	3,398,181	3,648,095
Trunks and valises	32,457	37,748	59,441	42,153	50,184	40,622	50,771	80,780	109,532
Umbrellas and parasols	5,989	6,846	6,339	4,837	4,852	1,271	553	3,123	6,979
Vinegar	26,034	30,788	24,336	35,156	41,368	38,262	29,701	34,376	40,347
Wax	74,005	91,983	85,926	94,850	131,803	94,495	47,383	80,899	170,418
Wood manufactures, not stated	2,501,583	3,158,424	2,234,678	2,339,861	2,703,095	2,344,079	1,755,793	2,547,357	2,672,410
Unenumerated articles	3,751,792	3,484,870	2,804,526	2,465,653	2,534,959	2,691,296	3,090,191	3,078,639	7,396,339
Totals	36,612,053	36,655,296	35,853,698	39,934,873	45,237,884	40,730,883	35,168,315	51,119,924	55,998,396

The tonnage of the United States since 1822 has been each year as follows:

THE TONNAGE OF THE UNITED STATES ANNUALLY FROM 1822 TO 1864, INCLUSIVE.

Year ending—	Registered sail tonnage.	Registered steam tonnage.	Enrolled and licensed sail tonnage.	Enrolled and lic'ns'd steam tonnage.	Total tonnage.
	Tons.	*Tons.*	*Tons.*	*Tons.*	*Tons.*
Dec. 31, 1822	628,150	.....	696,549	.....	1,324,696
1823	639,921	.....	671,766	24,879	1,336,566
1824	669,978	.....	697,580	21,610	1,389,163
1825	700,788	.....	699,263	23,061	1,423,112
1826	737,978	.....	762,154	34,059	1,534,191
1827	747,170	.....	833,240	40,198	1,620,608
1828	812,619	.....	889,355	39,418	1,741,392
1829	650,143	.....	556,618	54,037	1,260,798
1830	575,056	1,419	552,248	63,053	1,191,776
1831	619,575	877	613,827	33,568	1,267,847
1832	686,809	181	661,827	90,633	1,439,450
1833	749,482	545	754,819	101,305	1,606,151
1834	857,098	340	778,995	122,474	1,758,907
Sept. 30, 1835	885,481	340	816,645	122,474	1,824,940
1836	897,321	454	839,226	145,102	1,822,103
1837	809,343	1,104	932,576	153,661	1,896,684
1838	819,801	2,791	982,416	190,632	1,995,640
1839	829,096	5,149	1,062,445	199,789	2,096,479
1840	895,610	4,155	1,082,815	198,184	2,180,764
1841	945,057	746	1,010,599	174,342	2,130,744
1842	970,658	4,701	892,072	224,960	2,092,391
June 30, 1843	1,003,932	5,373	917,804	231,494	2,158,603
1844	1,061,856	6,909	946,060	265,270	2,280,095
1845	1,088,680	6,492	1,002,303	319,527	2,417,002
1846	1,123,999	6,287	1,090,192	341,606	2,562,084
1847	1,235,682	5,631	1,198,523	399,210	2,839,046
1848	1,344,819	16,068	1,381,332	411,823	3,154,042
1849	1,418,072	20,870	1,453,459	441,525	3,334,016
1850	1,540,769	44,429	1,468,738	481,005	3,535,454
1851	1,663,917	62,390	1,524,915	521,217	3,772,439
1852	1,819,774	79,704	1,675,456	563,536	4,138,440
1853	2,013,154	90,520	1,789,238	514,098	4,407,010
1854	2,238,783	95,036	1,887,512	581,571	4,802,902
1855	2,440,091	115,045	2,021,625	655,240	5,212,001
1856	2,401,687	89,715	1,796,888	583,362	4,871,652
1857	2,377,094	86,878	1,857,964	618,911	4,940,842
1858	2,499,742	78,027	2,550,067	651,363	5,049,808
1859	2,414,654	92,748	1,961,631	676,005	5,145,038
1860	2,448,941	97,296	2,036,990	770,641	5,353,868
1861	2,540,020	102,608	2,122,589	774,596	5,539,813
1862	2,177,253	113,998	2,224,449	596,465	5,112,165
1863	1,892,899	133,215	2,660,212	439,755	5,126,081
1864	1,475,376	106,519	2,550,690	853,816	4,986,401

COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW.

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN DRY GOODS—BUSINESS DULL—PRICES AS AFFECTED BY PEACE—INTERNAL REVENUE LAW—NEW TREASURER—COMMERCE AT PORT OF NEW YORK—UNITED STATES DEBT—PRICES U. S. PAPER AND GOLD—SPECIE EXPORTS AND IMPORTS—SHIPMENTS OF SPECIE FROM CALIFORNIA—GOLD AND SILVER IMPORTED AND EXPORTED FROM AND TO FRANCE—PRICES OF EXCHANGE.

But little business has been doing the past month. The future is, as far as prices are concerned, considered to be so uncertain, that every prudent man must act with caution. A good illustration of the want of confidence, now universal, is seen in the imports of foreign dry goods since the first of January, the total being only about one third the total for the same period last year.

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN DRY GOODS AT NEW YORK FOR FOUR WEEKS ENDING FEBRUARY 24.

ENTERED FOR CONSUMPTION.

	1863.	1864.	1865.
Manufactures of Wool	$1,755,134	$3,937,865	$1,039,257
Do. Cotton	509,545	959,224	394,507
Do. Silk	983,832	2,174,326	367,536
Do. Flax	570,784	838,640	521,575
Miscellaneous Dry Goods	251,257	455,402	155,918
Total entered for consumption	$4,070,552	$8,365,457	$2,478,793

WITHDRAWN FROM WAREHOUSE.

	1863.	1864.	1865.
Manufactures of Wool	$352,062	$614,321	$561,965
Do. Cotton	180,107	243,020	307,188
Do. Silk	218,396	348,976	315,338
Do. Flax	148,369	312,522	390,134
Miscellaneous Dry Goods	49,956	63,066	107,686
Total withdrawn from warehouse	$948,890	$1,581,905	$1,682,311
Add entered for consumption	4,070,552	8,365,457	2,478,793
Total thrown on the market	$5,019,442	$9,947,362	$4,161,104

ENTERED FOR WAREHOUSING.

	1863.	1864.	1865.
Manufactures of Wool	$416,899	$439,602	$469,538
Do. Cotton	153,437	105,291	245,968
Do. Silk	266,671	288,511	207,927
Do. Flax	69,289	209,052	275,599
Miscellaneous Dry Goods	51,009	29,541	45,865
Total entered for warehousing	$957,305	$1,071,997	$1,244,897
Add entered for consumption	4,070,552	8,365,457	2,478,793
Total entered at the port	$5,027,857	$9,437,454	$3,723,690

These figures are the specie values representing the foreign cost, without freight or duty. It will be seen that the withdrawals from warehouse exceed

the entries by nearly half a million dollars. The following will show the relative totals since January 1st:—

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN DRY GOODS AT NEW YORK FOR TWO MONTHS FROM JANUARY 1ST.

ENTERED FOR CONSUMPTION.

	1863.	1864.	1865.
Manufactures of Wool.....	$3,317,146	$6,526,350	$1,444,534
Do. Cotton.....	1,182,360	1,940,274	550,412
Do. Silk.....	1,594,027	3,684,254	571,016
Do. Flax.....	1,424,140	1,785,088	951,902
Miscellaneous Dry Goods	510,349	848,618	281,598
Total entered for consumption....	$7,978,022	$14,784,584	$3,799,462

WITHDRAWN FROM WAREHOUSE.

	1863.	1864.	1865.
Manufactures of Wool.....	$596,160	$1,239,066	$1,000,917
Do. Cotton.....	361,637	644,681	604,220
Do. Silk.....	399,309	798,450	462,089
Do. Flax.	303,132	639,139	824,581
Miscellaneous Dry Goods	82,768	111,691	184,038
Total withdrawn from warehouse..	$1,743,006	$3,433,027	$3,075,845
Add entered for consumption.....	7,978,022	14,784,584	3,799,462
Total thrown on the market.....	$9,721,028	$18,217,611	$6,875,307

ENTERED FOR WAREHOUSING.

	1863.	1864.	1865.
Manufactures of Wool.....	$1,036,375	$1,187,007	$857,668
Do. Cotton.....	380,572	399,670	505,719
Do. Silk	564,854	734,523	274,212
Do. Flax.....	246,758	431,993	543,687
Miscellaneous Dry Goods	90,457	83,991	93,577
Total entered for warehousing....	$2,319,016	$2,837,184	$2,274,863
Add entered for consumption.....	7,978,022	14,784,584	3,799,462
Total entered at the port	$10,297,038	$17,621,768	$6,074,325

The continued remarkable successes of the army lead to the belief that an early end to the war is probable. Of course the first effect of peace will be great depreciation of prices. If men's minds were governed by their judgment, rather than their fears, this would not be the case; for prices cannot, of course, permanently fall, except as the currency is called in. Yet there will be a panic; and those whose business it is to make money out of these fluctuations will increase it. Hence it is the part of wisdom, if peace is so near, to keep a small stock of goods on hand, so as to be able to purchase when prices are low. It is this fear of lower prices, and the desire to be in a condition to take advantage of them, that is the chief cause of the present stagnation.

But, besides this, the uncertainty with regard to the action that will be taken by Congress on the revenue law serves to increase the difficulty, and render more feverish all commercial and financial interests. This amendatory bill has been

reported back to the Senate, with sundry amendments, among which are the following:—

To strike out the exemption from duty or tax of Bibles, Testaments, or volumes consisting only of parts of either, prayer books, arithmetics, spelling books, geographies, grammars and school books of the kinds used in common primary schools, and all books printed exclusively for the use of Sunday schools. The House exemption was not to any volume valued at more than two dollars.

The Senate's Finance Committee report the following amendments to the tobacco clause:—On snuff manufactured of tobacco, or any substitute for tobacco, ground, dry or damp, pickled, scented or otherwise, of all descriptions, when prepared for use, forty cents per pound. The committee propose to strike out the tax of forty cents a pound on cavendish, plug, twist, and all other kinds of manufactured tobacco, not herein otherwise provided for. They propose thirty-five instead of forty cents a pound on fine cut chewing tobacco, whether manufactured with stems in or not, however sold, whether loose, in bulk or in packages, rolls, paper wrappers or boxes. On cigarettes made of tobacco enclosed in a paper wrapper and put up in packages containing not more than twenty-five cigarettes, and valued at not more than five dollars per one hundred packages, five cents per package. The committee propose to substitute for the House clause of sixty cents a pound on all cigars, cheroots and cigarettes a tax of five dollars per one thousand on cheroots, short sixes, and all cigars valued at less than fifteen dollars a thousand.

The committee leave the principle of the income tax untouched, viz:—A duty of five per cent on the excess over six hundred dollars, and not exceeding five thousand dollars, and a duty of ten per cent on the excess over five thousand dollars; but propose to strike out the following proviso:—That net profits realized by sales of real estate purchased since January 1, 1864, shall be chargeable as income, and losses on sales of real estate purchased since January 1, 1864, and sold within the year for which income is estimated, shall be deducted from the income of such year.

The committee propose to strike out the section providing that from and after the 1st of April, 1865, there shall be paid, in lieu of the duty now provided by law, on all cotton upon which no duty has been paid, and which is not exempted by law, a duty of six cents per pound until July 1, 1866, and on and after that date a duty of five cents per pound.

The committee also propose to exempt coal from the duty of twenty per centum additional on the rates now proposed to be increased to that extent on nearly all the articles included in the ninety-fourth section of the present law.

They report in favor of striking out the section that every National banking association, State bank or State banking association, shall pay a tax of ten per centum on the amount of notes of any State bank or State banking association paid out by them after the 1st of January next.

They propose to reduce the duty on crude petroleum from six to two cents per gallon.

The committee propose several new sections, namely:—Taxing sales 1-24 of one per centum, providing that the President shall appoint an additional Auditor to be called the Auditor of Internal Revenue, with the requisite number of clerks; authorizing the Secretary of the Treasury to appoint a Commission of three members, at $300 per month, to take into consideration and report on raising by taxation such revenue as may be necessary to supply the wants of the government; repealing or suspending the bounties on the tonnage of vessels engaged in bank or other cod fisheries from and after the 1st of April next, and during the present war and one year thereafter; that the present rates of postage on letters be increased from three to five cents after July 1, 1865.

Senator SHERMAN has given notice of an amendment which he intends to offer, providing that in lieu of the present duty there shall be collected on and after July 1, 1865, one fourth per cent per month, and after January, 1866, one half per cent on the average amount of national bank circulation.

It will be seen from the above that the changes proposed are important, and we have only noticed a small portion of them. Business cannot, however, be active, so long as this uncertainty envelopes the future.

On the question of prices, if the policy Government intends to pursue could be known it would serve to increase confidence. Is the volume of currency to be gradually diminished, or is it to be increased? Probably the answer to this question depends much upon who is to be our Treasurer It is now said that the Hon. HUGH M'CULLOCH is to receive the appointment. He certainly has had more experience than many of the other persons named, and would, we think, fill the place more acceptably. Many of the opinions he has expressed have been sound; and yet we cannot but remember that Mr. CHASE argued against the paper money system while he fostered it, and Mr. M'CULLOCH differs just as widely between his theory and his practice. At the end of December, 1863, he issued a circular to the National Banks, in which he predicted a financial collapse from the policy of the Government. He said that the seeming prosperity of the loyal States was "owing mainly to the large expenditures of the Government and the redundant currency which they seemed to render necessary," and that this currency would work great evils; and yet Mr. M'CULLOCH has been since that time at the head of a branch of the Treasury Department which has increased the volume of the currency not far from a hundred millions, and which, unless the law is amended, promises to increase it two hundred millions more in the future. The contrast between the preaching and the practice of our financiers has been so wide as to reflect discredit upon them and make them utterly unreliable.

What the new Secretary of the Treasury, whoever he may be, may do, will depend, to a great extent, upon contingencies, or, in other words, will depend upon the interests of those by whom he surrounds himself. If he will only have the wisdom to take the advice of sound men, rather than speculators, he will give satisfaction. Paper money is the life of speculation, and the issue of it will always be encouraged, and the retiring of it be deprecated by all who are thus trying to make money very fast.

Professor BOWEN, of Cambridge, in a recent letter, suggests the following method of contracting the currency, a measure he considers of vital importance to the best interests of the country:—

"In order to meet our present current expenses the receipts into the Treasury, from taxes and loans united, must average nearly three millions a day. Let the faith of the Government be pledged, that *one fifth part* of this sum shall be regularly devoted, as soon as received, to redeeming and destroying an equivalent amount of greenbacks. At the end of each week let an official statement be published of the amount thus redeemed, and let this amount be publicly burned. The sum thus canceled would be an average of three and a half millions a week—too little to create any immediate agitation or alarm in the stock market or the ordinary channels of business, but enough to contract the currency uniformly and without jar at such a rate that in seven months over one hundred millions would be permanently withdrawn from circulation, and gold would fall to about $1.30. I suppose, of course, that the Treasury should be deprived by law of any power to issue new greenbacks or *any other form of legal tender* notes to take the place of the sums thus canceled. Now my position is, that the mere formal announcement of this system would at once so buttress the public credit, depress the price of gold, check speculative enterprises, raise the relative value of the 7-30's, as compared with other government bonds, and thereby increase the rapidity with which this loan would be taken up, that within a fortnight the increase of the daily receipts into the United States Treasury would be so great that, even after the deduction of one fifth, the remaining sum available for use would be as large as it is at present. In other words, as soon as this policy could be fairly reduced to practice, the daily receipts would rise from $3,000,000 to at least

$3,800,000; and four-fifths of this latter amount, or as much as we need at present, would be available to meet the current expenses of the government."

In the mean time our foreign commerce shows gratifying changes compared with previous years. The following is a comparative statement, for three years, from July 1st to February 21. The imports are given in gold at their foreign cost, freight and duty unpaid; the exports of produce are given in their currency value at this port:—

COMMERCE OF NEW YORK FROM JULY 1ST TO DATE.

	1862-63.	1863-64.	1864-65
Imports merchandise	$115,163,722	$121,908,243	$93,593,547
Exports produce	124,862,262	100,745,879	162,534,422
Exports specie	33,673,892	36,795,581	26,035,417

The exports, as will be seen, have largely increased, while the imports have, at the same time, diminished.

A statement of the value of the imports and exports at the port of Boston, for the month of January, 1865, show the same tendency. The total value of imports amounts to $1,192,653, and the total value of exports to $1,991,971. This shows an increase of exports over imports of $799,318. The amount of merchandise withdrawn from warehouse for consumption is $1,151,397, and imports entered for consumption $481,026, showing the value of merchandise thrown on the market to be $1,632,423.

The condition of the public debt on January 31, is, by a published statement, not official however, described as follows:—

		Principal.	*Interest.*
Aggregate of debt bearing interest in coin		$1,087,550,438	$63,433,131
Aggregate of debt bearing interest in lawful money		608,570,952	29,698,770
Aggregate of debt on which interest has ceased		350,570	
Aggregate of legal tender debt, bearing no interest		433,160,369	
Aggregate of fractional currency		24,096,913	
Total		$2,153,735,444	$93,131,901
Unpaid requisitions	$126,100,000		
Amount in Treasury	10,262,958—	115,837,042	
Total		$2,269,572,486	

Internal revenue for January 31, 1865	$31,076,902
Internal revenue from January 31 to February 23, 1865	9,325,636
Customs for January, 1865	5,460,576
Customs from January 31 to February 23, 1865	1,587,483

The unpaid requisitions continue to increase, notwithstanding the large receipts from internal revenue and the seven-thirty loan.

The Secretary of the Treasury has authorized the payment of the March coupons on the ten-forty bonds on presentation, and those wishing to avail themselves of the privilege can do so either at the Sub-Treasuries or at Washington. The total interest on the semi-annual coupons will amount to about $4,000,000, the principal being not far from $160,000,000.

The following are the prices of the leading Government stocks. There has

been an increased demand on European account. The continued victories, and especially the news of the taking of Fort Fisher, made United States securities very active in London, at a decided rise, so that, although the price of gold has fallen, these stock reach a higher figure.

PRICES UNITED STATES PAPER.

	6's, 1881. Reg.	6's, 1881. Coup.	5's, 1874.	6 per ct. 5-20's.	5 per ct. 10-40's.	6 per ct. 1 year certit.	Gold. price.
Dec 31,...	111¼	110¼	100	108¼	101⅝	96⅝	229½ a 229¾
Jan. 7,....	111¼	111¼	100	109	102	96⅝	227 a 227½
" 14,....	112¼	112¼	102	110	102⅝	98	217⅝ a 221
" 21,....	111	110	99	108⅝	101¼	97¼	197½ a 206
" 28,...	110¼	109¼	98⅝	108⅞	100⅞	98	113⅝ a 220
Feb. 4,....	109⅝	109¼	99¼	109¼	101¼	97⅞	209 a 214½
" 11,....	110⅝	110⅝	102	109¾	102⅝	98⅝	204⅝ a 209
" 18,....	111¼	111¼	103	111⅝	102⅝	98⅝	204 a 205⅝
" 25,....	111¼	111	102	111½	102½	98⅝	198½ a 199½

The price of the 5-20's abroad was from 50 to 50¼, February 10. The price of gold has gradually declined through the month, as the successes at Fort Fisher, Charleston, Columbia, Wilmington, &c., have been announced. The specie movement through the month is as follows:—

SPECIE AND PRICE OF GOLD.

	1864. Received.	1864. Exported.	1865. Received.	1865. Exported.	1865. Gold in Bank.	Prem. on gold.
Jan. 7,...	$254,230	$590,262	$1,148,850	$594,353	$20,152,892	127 a 127½
" 14,...	.....	1,216,204	383.519	1,046,251	21,357,608	117⅝ a 121
" 21,...	279,801	1,985,057	50,268	329,833	20,211,569	97½ a 106
" 28,...	365,608	1,000,000	511,019	997,136	18,896,085	113⅝ a 120
Feb. 4,...	324,864	668,747	.....	478,777	19,682,308	109 a 114½
" 11,...	.....	662,616	.....	370,753	20,297,346	104⅛ a 109
" 18,...	363,198	1,219,808	264,322	100.882	20,682,319	104 a 105⅛
" 25,...	.....	325,632	.....	148,536	20,092,3 8	198½ a 199½

The shipments of specie from California, since the first of January, have been as follows:—

January 4 ...Per Constitution—To England.....		$922,279 81		
	To New York		511,088 55	
	To Acapulco.....		8,000 00	
	To Panama.....		15,000 00	
				$1,456,359 36
" 10 ...Per Light of the Age, to Hongkong.....				100,386 93
" 10....Per Bavaria, to Hongkong.....				20,870 00
" 13....Per Sacramento—To New York.....		$610,226 47		
	To England.....		338.204 80	
	To Panama.....		65,000 00	
	To Acapulco.....		34,500 00	
				1,077,931 27
" 14....Per Passing Cloud, to Hongkong.....				37,639 77
Total since January 1.....				$2,693,187 33
Corresponding period 1864.....				3,287,316 78
Decrease this year				$594,129 45

The following is the amount of the imports and exports of precious metals from and to France during the whole year of 1864, compared with the two preceding years:

GOLD IMPORTED FROM FRANCE.

	1864. Francs.	1863. Francs.	1862. Francs.
Bullion	110,093,766	83,266,419	119,011,128
Coin	353,902,257	286,467,015	282,815,419
	463,996,023	369,733,434	401,826,547

GOLD EXPORTED FROM FRANCE.

Bullion	32,810,523	86,117,505	41,457,399
Coin	310,926,420	271,638,705	195,331,509
	343,736,943	357,756,210	236,788,908

SILVER IMPORTED FROM FRANCE.

Bullion	63,414,422	27,564,966	27,496,401
Coin	204,314,972	133,435,279	103,939,191
	267,729,394	161,000,245	131,435,592

SILVER EXPORTED FROM FRANCE.

Bullion	134,106,666	126,123,911	116,051,205
Coin	175,739,091	103,216,950	101,564,700
	309,845,757	229,340,861	217,615,905

The countries from which the imports came, and to which the exports went in 1864, were the following:

GOLD.

	Imports.		Exports.	
	Bullion. francs.	Coin. francs.	Bullion. francs.	Coin francs.
England	103,730,838	137,567,460	66,480	17,918,394
Belgium	267,570	8,764,773	67,314	5,544,252
Zollverein	191,790	67,832,400	15,969	3,188,367
Kingdom of Italy	4,023,690	77,782,965	3,160,200	132,033,300
Spain	.....	.....	29,067,990	38,866,563
Switzerland	.....	.....	.....	21,853,278
Roman States	.....	.....	.....	3,420,000
Turkey	.....	.....	.....	961,200
Egypt	.....	.....	.....	59,468,100
United States	342,000	483,300	.....	46,800
Other countries	1,537,878	61,471,359	432,570	27,626,166
	110,093,766	353,902,257	32,810,523	310,926,420

SILVER.

	Imports.		Exports.	
	Bullion. francs.	Coin. francs.	Bullion. francs.	Coin. francs.
England	24,939,234	14,520,356	6,964,702	19,240,828
Belgium	5,320,016	15 378,840	10,221,752	19,254,668
Russia	.....	.....	.....	500,000
Zollverein	432,367	35,789,318	208,827	6,349,100
Spain	.....	85,696,765	940	1,122,015
Kingdom of Italy	26,443,864	39,426,244	1,883,600	8,698,400
Switzerland	.....	.....	.....	552,421
Turkey	.....	.....	.....	72,200
Egypt	.....	.....	.....	4,873,400
British India	.....	.....	64,975,800	67,802,000
China	.....	.....	6,396,400	6,709,000
United States	.....	291,600	.....	.....
Other countries	6,278,941	13,361,849	43,460,145	40,565,059
	63,414,422	204,314,972	134,106,666	175,739,091

Turning the preceding totals for 1864 into American money, we find that:

The imports of gold were	$92,249,200
The exports of gold were	68,747,385
Excess of imports	$23,501,815
The exports of silver were	$61,969,150
The imports of silver were	53,545,875
Excess of exports	$8,423,275

Deducting the excess of silver exports from the excess of gold imports, it appears that during the year 1864, the stock of precious metals increased by $15,078,530. As to the amount sent to the East, it was $11,893,620 in gold, and $974,680 in silver to Egypt; $26,555,560 in silver to British India; and $2,621,080 in silver to China.

The rates of exchange since the first of January have been as follows:

RATES OF EXCHANGE IN GOLD.

	London, 60 days.	Paris, 60 days.	Amsterdam.	Frankfort.	Hamburg.	Berlin.
Jan. 7	108¼ a 109⅛	5.18¾ a 5.15	41⅛ a 41⅜	41⅛ a 41⅛	36⅜ a 36⅞	72 a 72⅛
" 14	108⅛ a 109⅜	5.18⅜ a 5.13⅜	41⅛ a 41⅜	41 a 51⅛	36⅛ a 36⅜	72⅛ a 72⅛
" 21	108⅛ a 109⅜	5.18⅜ a 5.13⅜	41⅛ a 41⅜	41⅛ a 41⅛	36⅜ a 36⅜	73 a 72⅛
" 28	108½ a 109⅜	5.20 a 5 13⅜	41 a 41⅜	41 a 41⅛	36⅜ a 36⅜	72 a 72⅛
Feb. 4	108 a 109⅜	5.21⅛ a 5.15	41 a 41⅜	41 a 41⅜	36 a 36⅜	71⅜ a 72
" 11	108⅛ a 109	5.23⅜ a 5.15	40⅞ a 41⅛	40⅞ a 41⅛	35⅞ a 36⅛	71⅜ a 72⅛
" 18	107 a 108⅜	5.27⅛ a 5.20	40⅛ a 41⅜	40⅛ a 41	35⅜ a 36⅜	71⅛ a 72
" 25	108 a 108⅛	5.27⅛ a 5.18⅜	40⅛ a 40⅛	40⅛ a 41	35⅜ a 36⅜	71⅛ a 72

JOURNAL OF BANKING, CURRENCY, AND FINANCE.

New York City Banks and the National System—Defects of the National Law—Bank Notes a Tender for Bank Debts—This is a defect, and is interfering with the re-organization of the New York City Banks—Are Certified Checks Circulation?—United States Securities Exempt from Taxation; Decision of U. S. Court—How to avoid this decision—Mr. M'Culloch Secretary of the Treasury and Mr. Clark Comptroller of Currency—City Banks Returns—Returns of Bank of England and France.

So far as the New York City Banks are concerned, the movement, looking to a change from the State to the National system, has made no progress during the month. The more the law is examined the more defective it appears, and, therefore, prudence leads these old institutions to hesitate before entering into a common fellowship with the new organizations. Many of these defects grow out of, and are inseparably connected with, our paper money system; but others are simply mistakes in the law itself. We have frequently referred to the peculiar features of this Bank circulation. The one which requires every National Bank, no matter where it is located, or what its condition, to receive for its debts the bills of any other National Bank, is certainly an error, and likely to interfere with the organization of first-class institutions on that basis. How can a bank be safely managed and yet be compelled to receive notes which may be at all shades of discount in payment of its debts? There are now, for instance, eight hundred and forty National Banks authorized, having a capital of $189,449,736, and $93,666,380 of circulation. This circulation is increasing nearly a million

of dollars a day. Suppose it should continue to increase, and legal tenders diminish, until the latter are worth a premium in the open market—a circumstance which is very likely to happen,—it would follow, as a matter of course, that every man owing any debt to a National Bank, would pay it in National Bank notes. When this occurs, in all probability there would be a want of "uniformity" in the value of such notes, for those of the most distant or inaccessible banks will be least desirable and most depreciated. In that case, of course, the notes that were the most depreciated would be selected to pay with, and the bank must take any such note that may be offered. What shall the bank do with them? Sell them? That will only add to the depreciation and increase the trouble. The process of sending for redemption will be troublesome whenever there is such a crisis. Any National Bank therefore, no matter how well it is managed, may be over-loaded, by this operation, with the bills of far distant banks, which it must receive but cannot disburse!

We refer to this defect now, because it is one that is at present preventing the reorganization of some of our soundest and safest State institutions under the National law. In the meantime, Government appears to be attempting to coerce all old banks into the new system. There is now a bill before Congress which has, we believe, passed the House, laying a tax of ten per cent on all circulation of State Banks, after January 1st, 1866. This provision, if it becomes a law, is intended, of course, and will operate so as to force the withdrawal of all bank circulation except the notes of the new National institutions. This will decidedly affect the profits of country banks, but those in this city can afford to be indifferent to the mere question of note circulation. The issues of few city banks have paid expenses, and none have supplied a profit at all equal to the care and trouble of preparing and protecting them. New York being the financial centre of the country, all currency at par here is at once picked up the moment it is set afloat outside, and returned to its source. If the city banks were forbidden to issue any more bank notes, they would not grumble seriously, and could readily make arrangements to do without.

But a more serious matter is the attempt to class certified checks under the head of circulation, and tax them accordingly, even where they are returned through the Clearing-House the next morning. Commissioner LEWIS has decided that the law is to be interpreted in this manner. He claims that the act is so specific he has no option. There is certainly reasonable ground for his decision, and yet we do not believe it is right.

The act reads as follows:

"There shall be levied, collected and paid a duty of one-twelfth of one per centum each month upon the average amount of circulation issued by any bank, association, corporation, company or person, including as circulation all *certified checks* and all notes and other obligations, *calculated or intended to circulate or to be used as money.*"

These certified checks are not "intended to circulate or to be used as money." They are simply a convenience to the banks and their customers, and are exchanged at the Clearing-House the next morning. Checks that are not certified might with equal reason be considered as intended to be used as money, and so taxed under the words "other obligations" "issued by" a "person." Besides,

such a decision should not be made unless the law is so clear as to absolutely compel it, for, if persisted in, it will require an entire change in the methods of business. The first effect, as the *Journal of Commerce* well says, will be to cut off from young men without capital the chance of succeeding in competition with wealthy firms in any business requiring large payments. The actual possession of wealth is not needed for much of the business of the city, where immense sums are handled without any serious risk. All that is required is confidence. This may rest on integrity and capacity, which is a much better foundation than the mere possession of money. That form of business which allows the virtuous and enterprising to build their fortunes on moral worth instead of a moneyed capital, is a great conservator of public morals, and a direct stimulus to the acquisition of an honorable character. A young man who has this invaluable possession, can now enter any avenue of success which is open to human enterprise. He may deal in millions daily, his disbursements preceding his receipts, but both meeting alike in the daily settlement. He must often pay for stocks, bonds and other property before receiving a transfer to himself. As soon as he obtains the transfer he delivers these to his employers and obtains the means of squaring his own account. The certificate of the bank is the bridge over a gulf which would otherwise be impassable to him. He obtains this certificate because of the confidence the bank has in his integrity and capacity. The man of wealth, if the business were confined to him, would not pay the money; he would give a check, without having it certified, which would be accepted by the seller because of his known capital or possessions. Both alike trade on confidence; in the former case it is based on character, in the latter on the mere possession of property. But it may be said that, after years of trial, the character of the poor man might become as widely known as the wealth of the capitalist, and thus both have the same facilities. This might be true to some extent, but the years of waiting give the other all the advantage. Besides, the very effort to acquire a reputation would be almost precluded by the obstacles thus placed at the outset of the poor man's career. The truth is, that much of the financial legislation of the last two years, whether so intended or not, is, according to our opinion, adapted to make a rich man richer, and a poor man poorer; to divide the population into permanent classes after the manner of the old world, and to lessen the chances for the enterprising in the lower relations to struggle upward or to make any improvement in his condition. This may be sustained where the people are governed, but it can hardly be successful where they are left to govern; and there will be a terrible reaction to the other extreme, if it is persisted in until the nature of the struggle is thoroughly understood by those whose interests are thus wantonly disregarded.

The provision of the law, exempting United State securities from State taxation, belongs to the class of legislation tending to make rich men richer. It will be remembered that the New York State Legislature, at its session in 1863 (chap. 240, laws of 1863), passed an act for the purpose of avoiding this exemption, so far as banks were concerned, by taxing their *capital* no matter how it might be invested. The act was in these words:

Section 1.—All banks, banking associations, and other moneyed corporations and

associations, shall be liable to taxation on a valuation equal to the amount of their capital stock paid in, or secured to be paid in, and their surplus earnings (less ten per cent of such surplus,) in the manner now provided by law, deducting the value of the real estate held by any such corporation or association, and taxable as real estate.

Under this law the *capital* of the Banks was taxed as heretofore.

This tax was, however, resisted so far as their capital was invested in United States securities, and an action was brought to test the question, which has now been decided by the United States Court in favor of the Banks, and these monied institutions thus become free from State and city taxation to the amount of several millions of dollars. This decision is an important one, and shows how unwise it is in Congress to exempt the national securities. We believe that it is best both for the State and the holders of the bonds that the only restriction should be upon discriminating taxes. Congress might enact that no higher taxes should be exacted of United States securities than of capital invested in other forms. This would be ample protection for the general government. But to allow all that portion of the capital owned in the State and protected by State laws, to escape any contribution to the State expenses, because it is invested in national securities, seems like injustice to other property holders, and will tend to create a feeling against the securities thus exempted among those who are unable, or do not for other reasons, hold them.

The State authorities now must be very ingenious to adopt any system by which this tax may be imposed. We can think of no way of avoiding this provision except by requiring an annual *license fee* of all bank corporations, which should be proportioned to their capital. This system could be made to furnish the same amount of funds as the other tax.

It is now decided that Mr. McCulloch, the present Bank Comptroller, will succeed Mr. Fessenden in the Office of Secretary of the Treasury. He was born, it is stated, in Kennebunk, Maine. Previous to being called to the Comptrollership of the National Currency Bureau, he was President of the State Bank of Indiana, which is the largest monied institution in the West, having a capital of nearly three and a-half millions of dollars, and nine branches located in different parts of the State.

Mr. Freeman Clarke, who will probably succeed Mr. McCulloch as Comptroller of the Currency, is a practical financier. He represents the Twenty-eighth district of this State in the present Congress, which is now near its close. He is owner and President of the Monroe County Bank at Rochester, which has a capital of $100,000, and a circulation of $85,800. In the war now waging between the old and the new banking system, it will probably be somewhat difficult for Mr. Clarke to make up his mind which side to take, as long as his own Bank continues to operate under the State laws.

The city Bank returns, the past month, of Philadelphia and Boston show the effects of the change that is being made from the State to national system. In New York the returns are made as usual, and very few of the Banks have actual reorganized under the United States law. In Philadelphia all the Banks are included in the weekly statement, but the growth of the national system is seen in the decline of specie and the increase of circulation:

NEW YORK BANKS.

NEW YORK BANKS. (*Capital, Jan.*, 1864, $69,494,577; *Jan.*, 1865, $69,658,737.)

Date.	Loans.	Specie.	Circulation.	Net Deposits.	Clearings.
Dec. 24,..	$203,512,093	$20,600,441	$3,383,346	$153,805,909	$593,336,187
" 31,..	199,444,969	19,662,211	3,283,332	147,442,071	471,039,253
Jan. 7,..	195,044,687	20,152,892	3,183,526	147,821,891	535,055,671
" 14,..	189,686,750	21,357,608	3,074,029	148,931,299	538,780,682
" 21,..	187,060,586	20,211,569	2,979,851	146,068,355	611,194,907
" 28,..	169,502,630	18,174,316	2,906,194	143,842,230	656,828,378
Feb. 4,..	185,689,790	19,682,308	2,868,646	152,703,316	663,814,434
" 11,..	185,515,904	20,297,346	2,821,996	156,711,166	584,179,409
" 18,..	186,365,126	20,682,319	2,855,982	156,150,634	518,305,222
" 25,..	183,534,735	20,092,378	2,739,384	153,948,481	481,028,121

PHILADELPHIA BANKS.

PHILADELPHIA BANKS. (*Capital, Jan.*, 1863, $11,740,080; 1865, $13,315,720.)

Date. 1865.	Loans.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Legal tenders.
Jan. 2,...	$48,059,408	$1,803,583	$2,793,468	$39,845,963	$14,524,175
" 9,...	49,250,629	1,781,108	2,978,035	41,001,803	15,297,223
" 16,...	49,533,799	1,750,669	3,228,785	43,121,208	17,003,905
" 23,...	49,755,716	1,792,891	3,606,051	40,186,513	15,939,598
" 30,...	50,056,584	1,773,266	4,010,192	39,822,860	15,572,893
Feb. 6,...	50,269,473	1,702,776	4,393,173	38,496,337	14,000,852
" 13,...	49,511,683	1,629,957	4,660,697	37,340,531	14,295,547
" 20,...	48,639,386	1,569,223	4,866,771	37,141,900	13,922,954
" 27,...	48,992,272	1,498,644	5,077,436	39,011,100	15,398,502

The following are the returns of the Banks of Boston, except those which have reorganized under the national law. They make no returns. Their circulation is said, however, to be included in these figures:

BOSTON BANKS.

BOSTON BANKS. (*Capital, Jan.*, 1863, $38,231,700; *Jan.*, 1865, $22,350,000.)

Date. 1865.	Loans.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.
January 2.....	$46,312,701	$3,434,323	$7,766,888	$23,086,775
" 9.....	33,707,472	2,903,469	7,803,528	16,772,600
" 16.....	33,444,460	2,862,939	7,529,229	15,926,720
" 23.....	33,160,490	2,797,093	7,126,253	16,058,310
" 30.....	33,025,868	2,659,568	6,792,950	16,343,192
February 6.....	25,609,695	2,245,510	6,581,880	12,641,033
" 13.....	23,609,664	2,087,995	6,345,912	11,031,733
" 20.....	23,533,879	2,039,669	6,094,370	10,621,322
" 27.....	22,872,774	1,932,769	5,912,800	9,789,000

For comparison we give the returns of the Boston Banks for the same period during 1864:

Date. 1864.	Loans.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.
January 4.....	$76,805,343	$7,503,889	$9,625,043	$32,525,679
" 11.....	77,747,734	7,521,195	10,185,615	31,524,185
" 18.....	75,877,427	7,464,511	9,963,389	31,151,240
" 25.....	74,146,000	7,440,000	9,729,000	30,893,000
February 1.....	73,959,175	7,385,413	9,660,168	30,655,782
" 8.....	71,765,122	7,265,104	9,579,020	30,030,293
" 15.....	71,088,849	7,224,924	9,741,471	30,412,647
" 22.....	71,074,000	7,215,500	9,411,000	31,831,000
" 29.....	72,189,003	7,179,310	9,371,440	33,155,868

In January, 1864, the capital of these Banks was eight millions, and in January,

1865, it was only twenty-two millions, and on the 28th of February it was reduced to eleven million six hundred thousand dollars, the difference showing the extent of the change to National Banks that has been made.

Below are the quarterly returns of the Banks of the State of New York:

RETURNS OF THE BANKS OF NEW YORK STATE.

Resources.

	Dec. 26, 1863.	March 12, 1864.	Dec. 31, 1864.
Loans and discounts	$193,781,315	$200,399,286	$196,649,246
Overdrafts	642,708	536,926	866,154
Due from banks	21,713,285	23,753,048	22,916,061
Due from directors	7,053,713	.....	9,226,712
Due from brokers	10,976,763	.....	11,042,835
Real estate	8,627,977	8,521,359	8,142,807
Specie	26,685,669	22,146,592	20,239,286
Cash items	59,645,949	105,350,120	92,514,882
Stocks, promissory and U. S. 7 3-10 notes and indebtedness certificates	102,346,931	117,159,241	120,459,776
Bonds and mortgages	5,473,517	4,915,315	4,073,797
Bills of solvent banks and United States demand notes	25,289,319	33,159,241	20,261,810
Bills of suspended banks	302	245	2,648
Loss and expense account	1,480,437	785,854	2,260,786
Add for cents	903	910	877
Total	$445,638,312	$516,727,137	$488,388,125

Liabilities.

Capital	$109,585,785	$109,370,105	$106,690,761
Circulation	36,934,255	30,974,850	31,180,546
Profits	21,269,188	18,724,700	28,345,347
Due banks	43,124,671	55,613,860	45,205,682
Due individuals and corporations other than banks and depositors	3,307,015	5,604,308	2,107,764
Due Treasurer State of New York	5,388,155	3,813,957	3,144,210
Due depositors on demand	222,645,314	291,662,726	269,042,097
Due oth's not included in above heads	3,433,424	2,962,113	2,671,197
Add for cents	510	518	521
Total	$445,638,312	$516,727,137	$488,388,125

The following is a statement of the leading features of the Banks of the State of New York for a number of quarters, showing the movements of the Banks since the beginning of the war:

	Circulation.	Deposits.	Specie.	Discounts.
September, 1861	$23,015,748	$111,895,016	$38,089,727	$176,055,848
March, 1862	28,330,973	121,988,259	34,301,092	162,017,987
June, 1862	33,727,382	150,438,244	32,882,693	184,501,261
September, 1862	37,557,373	186,390,795	39,288,981	165,584,063
December, 1862	39,182,819	191,537,897	37,803,047	178,922,536
March, 1863	35,506,606	221,544,347	36,802,438	183,864,089
June, 1863	32,261,462	218,717,725	40,250,309	188,617,438
September, 1863	33,428,280	233,611,282	31,071,759	203,462,460
December, 1863	36,934,255	222,645,314	26,685,669	193,781,315
March 12, 1864	30,974,850	291,662,726	22,146,592	200,399,286
December 31, 1864	31,180,546	269,042,097	20,239,286	196,649,246

The last quarterly statement of the Banks of Ohio compare with the previous returns as follows:

	Aug. 1, 1861.	Aug. 1, 1862.	Aug. 1, 1863.	Nov. 1, 1864.	Feb. 1, 1865.
Capital stock .	$5,589,750	$5,602,000	$5,177,500	$4,408,820	$3,808,650
Specie,.....	2,199,825	3,384,932	2,390,933	1,180,802	582,870
Eastern depos.	2,113,219	3,858,592	2,149,806	1,485,831	1,375,522
Loans.....	10,358,951	11,087,323	10,435,932	9,426,994	8,294,312
Circulation....	8,800,081	9,973,832	6,915,475	5,116,471	3,762,918
Deposits	8,920,932	8,598,426	11,283,209	11,115,813	8,754,887

To a large extent the reduction in the figures in the last report is attributable to the transfer of a number of State Banks to the national system.

The current of money which the raising of the rate of interest by the Bank of England and Bank of France caused to set towards those institutions, has continued to fill up the money reservoirs, and been followed by further reduction in the Bank rates. The latest returns of the Bank of France, however, are less favorable, and as the leading cause that underlies the money difficulties of the Paris and London markets is still at work, we must expect soon to see a return to higher rates. The following are the returns of the Bank of England :

THE BANK OF ENGLAND RETURNS.

Date. 1865.	Circulation.	Public Deposits.	Private Deposits.	Securities.	Coin and Bullion.	Rate of Discount.
Dec. 7,...	20,118,116	6,468,544	12,666,764	28,726,674	13,840,691	7 per ct.
" 14,...	19,669,832	7,161,719	12,267,474	28,301,608	14,122,711	6 "
" 21,...	19,669,007	7,694,616	12,927,807	29,326,027	14,307,760	6 "
" 28,...	19,810,455	8,601,125	13,040,643	30,708,083	14,100,974	6 "
Jan. 4,...	21,007,215	8,500,269	13,874,977	32,832,904	13,938,592	6 "
" 11,...	21,012,778	4,445,535	16,174,166	30,957,880	14,097,390	5½ "
" 18,...	21,223,548	4,186,614	14,658,015	29,292,273	14,168,227	5½ "
" 25,...	20,614,794	4,836,799	14,553,933	29,173,458	14,317,215	5 "
Feb. 1,...	20,998,478	5,541,452	14,447,994	30,040,983	14,461,224	5 "
" 8,...	20,743,805	6,252,892	13,814,063	29,908,102	14,511,611	5 "

Below we give a summary of the new companies formed during 1864 in Great Britain :

BANKS, INSURANCE, AND MISCELLANEOUS COMPANIES FORMED IN GREAT BRITAIN DURING 1864.

	No. of co's.	Capital created.	Capital offered for subscription.	Deposits.
Banks.....	19	£25,600,000	£16,300,000	£1,681,000
Finance and discount.....	26	38,150,000	23,550,000	2,213,750
Manufacturing and trading.....	78	38,195,000	29,210,000	3,608,500
Railways.....	10	12,510,000	6,800,000	848,000
Insurance	11	9,200,000	4,925,000	585,000
Shipping.....	21	14,800,000	11,250,000	997,500
Hotel.....	22	1,990,000	1,950,000	397,700
Mining.....	41	4,189,500	3,268,000	775,250
Gas.....	6	1,280,000	880,000	179,000
Miscellaneous.....	48	9,973,000	8,233,000	1,356,000
	282	£155,887,500	£106,523,000	£12,545,800
In addition to the above, new capital has been created in the year 1864, by companies in existence prior to 1864, amounting to.....				£35,315,000
Of which there was called up.....			£7,844,000	
And premiums paid on allotment by the shareholders..			3,839,833	
Total paid up.....			£11,683,833	
Putting these figures together—The capital created is				191,202,500
Offered for subscription.....				145,677,833
Paid up.....				24,229,633

The following are the returns of the Bank of France:

BANK OF FRANCE.

		Loans.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Interest.
December	8	fr.566,921,053	fr.355,640,597	fr.722,291,475	fr.178,968,028	5
"	15	586,521,733	351,562,024	739,383,125	161,270,492	5
"	22	561,603,376	364,008,378	721,487,475	153,193,515	4½
"	29	597,157,830	359,969,767	726,212,275	171,321,867	.
January	5	690,129,259	330,071,913	790,526,625	190,488,181	4½
"	12	677,690,909	314,771,593	806,325,675	153,188,384	4½
"	19	667,121,414	318,170,064	817,443,275	142,120,960	4½
"	26	642,779,237	322,119,477	808,283,925	139,123,008	4½
February	2	651,375,290	318,454,492	812,425,525	143,430,627	4½
"	9	636,303,905	339,240,543	805,966,575	153,039,752	4

CALIFORNIA.—HER PRODUCTIONS, TRADE, ETC., FOR 1864.*

THE past year in California has been somewhat remarkable in its character, a universal drought having prevailed of so long continuance as to transform the State from the position of a large wheat-growing and grain-exporting country, to our exporting, to some extent, wheat and grain from Oregon, Chili, and elsewhere; prices that for a series of years ruled comparatively low, and consequently invited large buyers from England, China, and Australia, having so changed during the last six months as to induce shipments for California. Two entire cargoes of flour, one of wheat and two of barley, were received towards the close of the year from Chili, and six more cargoes were then known to be on the way. During the fall and winter free supplies of flour, wheat, and barley were also received from Oregon, and oats and potatoes from Humbolt, large quantities of corn and barley from the southern coast, San Pedro, etc., and corn meal, wheat flour, etc., from New York.

Prices now, however, do not rule as high, and the heavy rains of November and December have made the prospects for the coming crop very flattering. The ground is well saturated by the abundant rains, and farmers are busy in all directions determined to put into the ground the greatest possible amount of seed.

EXPORTS OF MERCHANDISE.

This department of trade during the past year has greatly exceeded expectations. Early in the season the most gloomy forebodings were indulged in consequence of the severe drought we have referred to. The deficient product of breadstuffs soon elevated prices beyond the range of export limits, and the withdrawal of this leading item, it was believed would render necessary a large increase of treasure shipments to supply the necessary remittances. While, however, it is true that more than the usual amount of treasure has been exported, it is also true that the clearances of merchandise and other products of this coast,

* In the San Francisco *Mercantile Gazette and Prices Current*, of January 12, is a detailed statement and review of the trade and productions of California the past year, to which we are in great indebted for the facts and figures contained in this article.

have been considerably in excess of 1863. The falling off in exports of grain and flour has been $411,000, while the aggregate increase upon all has been $394,353. This fact furnishes the gratifying evidence that the resources of that coast have now become so varied, and in process of growth and development, so rapid, that serious disaster occurring to so prominent an interest even as agriculture, although it may check, cannot stop the visible progress and expansion of the commerce of the State.

The following shows the destination and value of exports during the past three years:

EXPORTS OF MERCHANDISE.

To	1862.	1863.	1864.
New York	$2,245,633	$2,737,435	$3,399,143
Boston	1,192,489	1,505,690	1,532,021
New Bedford	.....	.....	235,000
Great Britain	1,355,217	1,697,822	955,858
Australia	332,336	487,685	579,746
British Columbia	2,190,903	1,746,801	1,510,659
Mexico	1,014,639	1,819,652	2,215,614
Peru	271,251	216,206	247,128
China	722,229	1,246,254	1,874,106
Hawaiian Islands	293,379	357,369	659,485
Japan	21,598	43,901	49,857
Other countries	920,630	920,584	513,678
	$10,565,294	$13,877,399	$13,271,752

The great deficiency in breadstuffs has been made up by the increased clearances chiefly of copper and silver ores, quicksilver, wool, etc.

It will appear from the foregoing that the exports to New York have largely increased. This increase consists in the main of the more valuable articles of domestic products—wool, hides, and copper ore—which are rapidly growing in importance. Mexico shows an increase, taking largely of goods of almost every description, particularly machinery and its requisites for the working of the mines in that country, and provisions for the laborers engaged. With the Hawaiian Islands the exports have very nearly doubled those of last year. The two lines of vessels engaged in that trade meet with quick despatch and full employment. China also shows a marked degree of improvement. The merchandise exports to that country consists principally of flour and quicksilver. The treasure list is $3,600,000, greater this year than last. Australia shows an increase consisting principally of breadstuffs shipped during the early part of the season. With Victoria, V. I., trade has fallen off considerably, owing to the fact that this is a free port, and likewise receives a large quantity of goods from the mother country direct.

The aggregate value of exports of all descriptions from the port of San Francisco for the three past years was as follows:

	1862.	1863.	1864.
Treasure	$42,561,761	$46,071,920	$55,707,201
Merchandise	10,565,294	12,877,890	13,271,752
Total	$53,127,055	$58,949,819	$68,978,953

It will be seen from the foregoing figures that the combined exports of treasure

and merchandise in 1864 exceeded those of 1863 by more than $10,000,000. From this excess, however, is to be deducted $5,000,000, sent away by the Sub-Treasurer in San Francisco for Government purposes, the same being a portion of the amount realized by the collector of this port from duties on imports.

We give below in detail the exports of merchandise the last three years to China and the Sandwich Islands:

EXPORTS FROM CALIFORNIA TO CHINA AND SANDWICH ISLANDS.

Articles.	To China.			To Sandwich Islands.		
	1862.	1863.	1864.	1862.	1863.	1864.
Abalones.....bags	1,422	777	3,196	....	....	....
Barley.....bags	500	100	100	1,097	123	210
Beans.....bags	32	754	1,393	....	140	11
Bran.....bags	....	....	....	361	44	....
Bones.....pkgs.	2,681	....	3,871	....	....	....
Bones.....No.	....	333	....	....	....	....
Bread.....bbls.	320	3,603	....	5	4	22
Bread.....pkgs.	116	....	....	....	....	....
Bread.....cs.	1,204	3,791	888	573	926	823
Brooms.....doz.	....	177	32	....	....	....
Fish.....tcs.	....	....	....	536	45	100
" .....bbls.	....	....	....	...	726	561
" .....cs.	....	....	....	....	6	83
" dried,.....pkgs.	176	....	827	....	....	....
" salmon,.....bbls.	80	116	281	....	....	....
Flour.....bbls.	21,451	50,955	85,946	1,932	4,536	3,591
Hay.....bales	188	779	350	40	30	12
Lime.....bbls.	....	....	....	357	625	1,955
Lumber.....feet	2,659,190	2,709,733	3,292,595	388,301	772,794	1,213,158
Lumber.....pcs.	7,417	....	2,937	138	....	293
Shingles.....M.	....	....	....	2,210	2,028	3,365
Leather.....pkgs.	....	....	....	21	7	11
Oats.....bags	250	5,510	1,239	1,633	1,364	588
Potatoes.....bxs., bags	3,572	9,470	358	767	2,732	2,438
Quicksilver.....flasks	8,735	8,880	18,908	....	....	....
Wheat.....bags	37,191	186,610	62,772	1,025	....	493
Wool.....bales	80	....	....	....	....	....

IMPORTS OF MERCHANDISE.

It is impossible to give the value of the imports. As is well known the bulk of general merchandise consumed on the California coast is sent from eastern home ports. No regular entries of it are made in the Custom House, as in the case of foreign importations, and in very many instances consignees and importers studiously conceal both the nature and value of the goods consigned to them. We give, however, the following table showing the imports of leading articles:

IMPORTS FOR 1864 OF LEADING ARTICLES OF MERCHANDISE AT SAN FRANCISCO FOR THE YEAR ENDING DECEMBER 31, 1864.

Articles.	1864.	Articles.	1864.
Bags, grain.....bales	540	Sash.....bdls	5,585
gunny.....	5,304	Lumber, eastern & for'n.	41,627
gunny.....bdls	1,007	....bdls and pcs	.....
Barley, Chili.....sks	10,469	.....tons	429
Eastern.....kegs	100	.....feet	585,915
Boots and shoes.....pkgs	39,815	domestic....feet	112,447,120
Building material—		Candles.....bxs	90,632
Doors.....No	56,418	Candles.....half boxes	79,786
Blinds.....bdls	1,616	Cement.....bbls	8,806

Articles.	1864.
Cigars.....cs	2,374
Coal—	
Anthracite .....tons	41,678
Cumberland	982
Cumberland.....casks	8,795
English.....tons	18,331
Chili.....	2,324
Sydney.	21,162
Vancouver Island..	12 745
Coast	11,485
Coffee—	
Rio.....lb	4,636,769
Costa Rica.....	1,611 126
Java.....	565.652
Manila.....	2,797,908
Sandwich Island.....	14,721
Cordage ....bales	1,890
.....coils	12,602
.....pks	1,944
Corn..... ...bags	755
Cornmeal, eastern.....pun	155
.....hhds	979
....bbls	2,975
.....pkgs	60
Crockery & glassware..pkgs	25,234
Drugs .....pkgs	61,727
Dry goods and clothing—	
.....bxs & cs	24,897
....bales & pkgs	25,444
Duck .....bales	470
Duck .....bolts	50
Eggs.....boxes	1,145
Eggs.....hf bbls	20
Engines, steam.....No	30
Fire bricks	55,900
.....pkgs	141
Fire crackers.....bxs	11,915
Fish—	
Cod.....drums	1,174
.....bxs	144
.....tons	50
Mackerel, eastern....hf bbls	3,278
.....kits	17,877
Salmon .....bbls	339
Tongues and sounds..kits	403
Flour, eastern .....bbls	175
Chili.....hf sks	18,850
Chili.....qr sks	28,625
Fruits, sauces, etc.—	
Apples, dried.....bbls	7,983
Peaches, dried	21
.....bxs and cs	150
Nuts .....sks and bbls	249
.....bales and bags	7,418
Raisins.....bxs	44,173
Other kinds.....hhds	42
.cks and bbls	1,700
.....kegs	5,527
....bxs and cs	122,549
... ... pkgs	1,242
Furniture.....	33,442

Articles.	1864.
Hardware.....cks and bbls	6,403
.....kegs	7,559
.....bxs & cs	40,439
.... pkgs and pcs	86,740
Hemp .....bales	5,757
Hides .....No	34,249
Hops.....bales	588
.....cs	15
Ice.....tons	4,511
Malt liquors—	
English, bulk .....hhds	1,693
.....bbls	517
.....tcs	29
bottled.....cks	11,058
.....bbls	6,758
..... .tcs	20
.....cs	2,219
Matting.....rolls and bales	7,468
Matches .....cs	2,025
Metals—	
Iron, pig.....tons	10,365
bar.....bars	$15,600
bar.....bdls	85,131
sheet .....pcs	28,587
sheet.....cs	122
plate.....pcs	29,526
pipe.....bdls	6,816
pipe.....pcs	40,104
various .....bdls	22,148
various..... cs	672
Tin plate.....bxs	22,839
Tin, pig.....pigs	904
Lead pipe.....reels	1,354
sheet .....pkgs	256
pig ..... pigs	2,551
bar .....pkgs	420
Steel.....cs	2,303
.....bdls	3,357
.. ....plates and bars	936
Copper .....pkgs and pcs	594
Copper.....bxs	34
Sheathing metal .....cs	485
Zinc .....cks	364
.....pkgs	61
Molasses and syrup....bbls	10,154
5 gal kegs	6,000
Nails .....kegs	94,361
Naval stores—	
Oakum .....bales	1,670
Pitch. .....bbls	945
Rosin.....bbls	10
Tar.....	957
Oil—	
China .....bxs	9,168
Coal.... ....cks and bbls	50
.....cs	74,635
Cocoanut .....cks	172
Lard.....cs	7,446
.....bbls	383
Linseed.....	2,076
....cs	4,200

Articles.	1864.
....drums	100
Neatsfoot.....bbls	30
.....cs	53
Olive.....	12,484
Rapeseed .....tubs	38
Whale.... ....bbls	17,549
Opium, Chinese.....taels	334,900
Ores, copper .....bags	2,548
silver.....	4,634
Paints.....pkgs	11,370
Paper .....cs	1,395
.....bales	5,085
.....bdls	20,741
.....reams	1,200
Plaster.....bbls	4,526
Powder .....kegs	87,943
.....cs	9,229
Provisions-Bacon, eastern..hhds	1,241
.....tcs	624
.....bbls	55
Beef..... ..	92
Butter, eastern .....firkns	56,171
Cheese .....cks and bbls	116
.....tubs	51
... .bxs and cs	1,520
Hams .....tcs	1,731
.....bbls	2,393
.....cs	18
Lard.....tcs	530
.....cs	9,644
Pork, east.....bbls	10,912
Pulu .....bales	6,646
Quicksilver flasks .....No	37,255
Rice, foreign.....pkgs	263,263
Rice, total lbs.....	12,637,824
Railroad iron.....bars	46,09[illegible]
Salt, coarse .....tons	2,793
.....bags	2,368
ground.....cs	50
Sardines.....cs	4,413
Soap.....bxs	23,718
.....hf. bxs	6,566
.....qr bxs	17,166
Spices .....mats and bags	1,866
.....cs and bxs	4,963
Spirits turpentine.....cs	872
Spirits—Absinth.cks & bbls	58
....cs	4,724
Alcohol.....bbls	3,994
.....pipes	31
.....cs	5,115
Brandy.....hhds	627
.....pipes	69
.....hf pipes	243
.....qr pipes	1,098
... .bbls	3,006
.....octaves	2,700
.....kegs	460
....cs	2,838
Cider.....cks and bbls	199
....cs	14,769

Articles.	1864.
Gin.....pun	84
..... pipes and cks	173
..... ½ pipes	179
.....kegs	110
.....cs	3,663
Liquors, (including bitters) ....pipes and cks	33
Liquors.....cs	24,384
Pure spirits.....pun	64
.....pipes	667
.....½ pipes	568
.....bbls	1,683
Rum .....pun	202
.....hhds	28
.....bbls	1,021
.....cs	....
Whisky.....pun	82
.....bbls	21,959
.....cs	2,325
Starch ....bxs	8,727
.....hf. bxs	1,790
.....qr bxs	15,607
Staves.....No	197,577
.....bdls	140,490
Stoves .....No	3,234
Stoveware .. pkgs and pcs	47,584
Sugar, foreign.....pkgs	325,560
.....total lbs	27,420,106
domestic .....hhds	145
.....tcs	27
..... bbls	19,196
.....cs	31
Teas.....pkgs	50,239
.....total lbs	1,477,710
Tobacco.....hhds	32
....bbls	218
.....bales	880
.....cs	7,547
....bxs	2,118
.....hf bxs	206
Wheat, Oregon.....bags	6,651
Chili.....	200
White lead.....cks	441
.....tcs	167
.....kegs	1,683
.....cs	852
Window glass.....bxs	8,423
Wines.....hhds	572
.....pipes	31
.....cks	7,191
.....bbls	595
.....hf cks	1,757
.....qr cks	2,584
....octaves	1,188
.... bskts	48,574
.....cs	65,217
Wood and willow ware.pkgs	15,950
.nests	3,058
..doz	3,286
Yeast powder.....bbls	4,862
.....cs	23

TONNAGE, ARRIVALS, AND DEPARTURES.

The arrivals of tonnage from all quarters, during the past four years, and in each of them, have been as follows:

Years.	Vessels.	Tons.	Years.	Vessels.	Tons.
1861.....	1,980	599,283	1863.....	1,899	634,769
1862.....	1,869	634,769	1864.....	2,096	739,190

The following figures exhibit in gross the quarters whence the above arrivals occurred, with the exception of whalers, which are included elsewhere:

From	1861.	1862.	1863.	1864.
Domestic Atlantic ports.....	121,342	119,936	114,963	120,064
Domestic Pacific ports.....	267,608	261,708	253,017	283,389
Foreign ports.....	205,672	250,211	268,909	325,057

Of the arrivals from foreign ports the larger portion is composed of steam tonnage employed in the regular lines plying up and down the Pacific coast, and is as follows:

	Steamers.	Tons.
From Panama, P. M. S. S. Co.'s.....	36	95,316
From Panama, Opposition Co.'s.....	6	10,864
From San Juan del Sur, Opposition Co.'s.....	5	8,176
From Victoria, Holladay's.....	18	23,343
From Victoria, C. S. N. Co.'s	18	21,267
From Mexico, Holladay's	9	16,536
Total	92	175,502

We now give a detailed statement of the arrivals and departures exclusive of those from domestic Pacific ports and Panama:

EXHIBIT IN DETAIL OF THE COUNTRIES WHENCE ARRIVALS HAVE OCCURRED EXCLUSIVE OF THOSE FROM DOMESTIC PACIFIC PORTS AND PANAMA.

Years.	From Dom. Atlan. ports.	From Great Britain.	From Europe.	From China	From East Indies.	From South America.	From Central America.	From Mexico.	From Australia.	From Vancouver Island.	From Pacific Islands.	From whaling grounds.
	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.
1860....	129,950	8,765	12,625	23,577	6,453	4,383	930	10,174	8,735	42,214	6,696	3,309
1861....	121,342	22,115	8,458	28,286	2,719	11,599	1,488	15,704	12,334	27,043	8,236	4,521
1862....	119,936	18,447	14,333	37,255	4,591	5,632	3,206	18,939	12,567	53,518	9,124	2,920
1863....	114,963	22,827	10,038	32,888	8,068	4,728	8,771	20,845	13,962	46,605	9,589	4,504
1864....	120,064	36,505	12,284	23,110	8,102	11,494	7,023	24,301	18,464	54,746	17,734	10,680

EXHIBIT IN DETAIL OF THE COUNTRIES TO WHICH DEPARTURES HAVE OCCURRED EXCLUSIVE OF THOSE TO DOMESTIC PACIFIC PORTS AND PANAMA.

Years.	To Dom. Atlan. ports.	To Great Britain.	To Cape of Good Hope.	To China.	To East Indies.	To South America.	To Central America.	To Mexico.	To Australia.	To Vancouver Island.	To Pacific Islands.	To whaling grounds.
	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.
1860...	27,467	21,125	1,406	21,536	6,752	68,698	1,844	25,173	19,229	66,490	10,810	2,967
1861...	24,990	48,227	566	28,092	2,968	23,648	1,376	29,092	21,945	48,603	8,960	2,835
1862...	23,151	21,602	....	63,459	12,182	71,015	2,985	17,309	6,466	86,266	9,633	2,718
1863...	16,876	35,095	1,017	36,821	2,614	47,816	9,498	26,218	10,580	78,335	11,763	4,756
1864...	21,967	15,102	....	44,806	10,986	70,128	10,145	31,155	10,095	71,583	21,082	9,578

RECEIPTS AND EXPORTS OF TREASURE.

The extreme dryness of the past year has also affected unfavorably mining operations, and diminished the annual yield of the placers prior to the setting in of the late rains. Now, however, from every point are heard encouraging re-

ports. According to the interior press, more gold is being washed out at present than at any time before for the past eight years. The desolate and deserted condition of some of the mining regions during the summer and fall is therefore changed now to one of great activity. It is somewhat remarkable that the general yield of the mines, notwithstanding this stopping of operations in the placers, has not fallen off. This is owing to the fact that the deficiency of the placers has been made up by the mills. Below we give the usual tables showing the movements of treasure through the year.

The receipts of treasure at San Francisco from the interior have been as follows:

RECEIPTS OF TREASURE AT SAN FRANCISCO FROM THE INTERIOR.

Received from	1863. Uncoined.	Coined.	Total.
Northern mines	$33,936,771	$3,978,624	$37,915,395
Southern mines	5,610,094	1,801,837	7,411,931
Coastwise	4,366,510	603,513	4,970,023
Total	$43,913,375	$6,383,974	$50,297,349
"	41,877,957	5,593,421	47,471,378
" 1861	32,325,863	9,363,214	41,689,077
Three years	$118,117,195	$21,340,609	$139,457,804

Received from	1864. Uncoined.	Coined.	Total.
Northern mines	$34,782,312	$3,819,950	$38,602,262
Southern mines	5,347,778	1,510,375	6,858,153
Coastwise	7,639,894	413,074	8,052,968
Total	$47,769,984	$5,743,399	$53,513,383

	Uncoined.	Coined.	Total.
Total, 1861	$32,325,863	$9,363,214	$41,689,077
" 1862	41,877,957	5,593,421	47,471,378
" 1863	43,913,375	6,383,974	50,297,349
" 1864	47,769,984	5,743,399	53,513,383
Total four years	$165,887,179	$27,084,008	$192,971,187

If to the above we add the imports we have the totals for the year:

TOTAL RECEIPTS AND EXPORTS OF GOLD AND SILVER.

	1861.	1862.	1863.	1864.
Interior receipts	$41,689,077	$47,471,378	$50,297,349	$53,513,383
Imports, foreign	1,702,683	1,904,084	2,156,612	1,715,024
Total	$43,391,760	$49,375,462	$52,453,961	$55,228,407
Exports	40,676,758	42,561,761	46,071,920	55,707,201
Currency movement	$2,715,002 Inc.	$6,813,701 Inc.	$6,382,041 Dec.	$476,794

From the silver districts (included in northern mines) the total receipts for the past year were $15,900,000, against $12,433,915 in 1863. The increase over last year presents a gratifying exhibit of the growing prosperity of Nevada, but falls much short of the expectations of the sanguine. The receipts were from the following localities:

Virginia City	$10,425,350	Carson	$1,994,884
Gold Hill	1,402,396	Silver City	229,000
Aurora	960,000	Dayton	220,000
Humboldt	90,000	Reese River	500,000

The following shows the value and destination of treasure shipments from San Francisco during the past eleven years—1854 to 1864, inclusive:

SHIPMENT OF TREASURE.

Years.	Eastern ports.	England.	China.	Panama.	Other ports.	Total.
1854..	$46,538,166	$3,781,080	$965,887	$204,592	$560,908	$52,045,633
1855..	38,730,564	5,182,156	889,675	231,207	128,129	45,161,731
1856..	39,895,294	8,666,289	1,308,852	253,268	573,732	50,697,434
1857..	35,531,778	9,347,743	2,993,264	410,929	692,978	48,976,692
1858..	35,891,236	9,265,739	1,916,007	299,265	175,779	47,548,026
1859..	40,146,437	3,910,930	3,100,756	279,949	202,390	47,640,462
1860..	35,719,296	2,672,936	3,374,680	300,819	258,185	42,325,916
1861..	32,628,011	4,061,779	3,541,279	349,769	95,920	40,676,758
1862..	26,194,035	12,950,140	2,660,754	434,508	322,324	42,561,761
1863..	10,389,330	25,467,256	4,206,370	2,503,296	503,667	46,071,920
1864..	12,316,122	34,436,423	7,888,973	378,795	686,888	55,707,201
	$353,975,269	$122,742,471	$32,846,497	$5,646,397	$4,202,900	$519,413,534

We give the following detailed statement of the shipments of treasure for three years:

SHIPMENTS OF TREASURE FOR THREE YEARS.

To	1862.	1863.	1864.
New York	$26,194,034 93	$10,389,329 82	$12,316,121 99
England	12,950,139 61	28,467,256 91	34,436,422 85
China	2,660,754 29	4,206,370 79	7,888,973 24
Japan	17,916 00	34,564 19	35,631 00
Manila	35,651 64	66,200 00	150,135 73
Panama	434,507 79	2,503,296 17	378,794 54
Havana	.....	32,302 75	8,000 00
Hawaiian Islands	3,000 00	31,253 35	180,603 35
Society Islands	.....	8,000 00	16,951 63
Mexico	5,000 00	155,518 60	175,245 34
Central America	10,000 00	77,827 46	45,321 59
Australia	121 10	.....	.....
East Indies	62,414 00	.....	.....
Victoria, V. I.	188,221 71	100,000 00	125,000 00
Total	$42,561,761 07	$46,071,920 04	$55,707,201 26

QUICKSILVER.

The yield of the New Almaden mine, during the last quarter of the year 1864, was 11,290 flasks.

The total receipts for each month during the year were as follows:

	Flasks.		Flasks.
January	2,619	July	4,801
February	2,455	August	4,674
March	2,988	September	3,947
April	3,737	October	4,004
May	2,915	November	3,611
June	3,394	December	3,775
Total			42,820

We also give the exports to the different countries for 1864, and also for the five previous years, as follows:

To	1859.	1860.	1861.	1862.	1863.	1864.
New York and Boston ...	250	400	600	2,265	95	1,495
Great Britain	...	....	2 500	1,500	1,062	1,609
Mexico.....	103	3,886	12,061	14,778	11,590	7,488
China.....	1,068	2,715	13,788	8,725	8,889	18,908
Peru.....	571	750	2,804	3,439	3,876	4,800
Chili	930	1,040	2,059	1,746	500	2,674
Central America	...	....	110	40	40	80
Japan.....	...	....	50	25	..	262
Australia.....	325	100	1,850	800	300	100
Panama.....	138	130	57	424	120	45
Victoria, V. I.....	19	327	116	5	42	21
Total .....flasks	3,399	9,448	35,995	33,747	26,014	36,918

And our exports previously have been:

In 1858.....flasks	24,142	In 1855.....flasks	27,165
In 1857.....	27,262	In 1854....	20,963
In 1856.....	23,740	In 1853.....	18,800

It will be seen that the exports this year exceed those of any of the previous years noted; with an increase of 10,904 flasks over that of 1863.

TAXES AND REVENUE OF ENGLAND AND FRANCE.

REVENUE OF GREAT BRITAIN.

We have prepared the following table, showing the revenue of the United Kingdom for the last four years:

	1861.	1862.	1863.	1864.
Customs.....	£23,774,000	£24,036,000	£23,421,000	£22,535,000
Excise.....	18,161,000	17,534,000	17,745,000	19,343,000
Stamps.....	8,488,170	8,913,945	9,252,900	9,468,000
Taxes.....	3,119,000	3,148,000	3,208,000	3,261,000
Property tax..	9,962,000	11,104,000	9,806,000	7,999,000
Post office....	3,500,000	3,600,000	3,800,000	4,060,000
Crown lands..	293,479	298,521	302,500	307,500
Miscellaneous .	1,306,202	2,361,963	2,899,120	3,151,874
Total	£68,603,851	£70,996,429	£70,439,520	£70,125,374

TAXES COLLECTED IN FRANCE.

Returns relative to the collection of direct and indirect taxes in France have been published. In 1864, the total of the former due was 520,583,000f., and the amount paid up was 507,331,000f. In 1863, the total due was 513,230,000f., of which 500,061,000f. were paid in the course of the year. A month's credit being allowed for the payment of taxes, the aforesaid 507,331,000f. exceeded by 30,130,000f. what could have legally been exacted. In 1863, the amount paid in advance was 29,600,000f. In 1864, the legal expenses for enforcing payment were at the rate of 1f. 28c. per 1,000f., and in 1863, they were 1f. 33c.

As to the indirect taxes, the amount received in 1864 was 1,176,692,000f., and it was less by 67,685,000f. than that of 1863, and 13,995,000f. less than that of 1862. On comparing 1864 and 1863 item by item, it will appear that there is a decline of 77,006,000f. in the import duties on foreign and colonial sugar,

and in the duty on the manufacture of beet root sugar. It is owing to the fact that under the last law on sugar, four months' credit are allowed for the payment of duties, and that as drawback is abolished, the amount to be paid is less than formerly. There is also a decline in the registration duties of 2,852,000f.; in the grain duties of 1,506,000f.; in the customs duties of 5,611,000f.; and of about 500,000f. in two other items. These reductions are natural, the registration and customs duties having been reduced, and the imports of grain having been less on account of the excellent harvest. The various diminutions, which amount altogether to 87,268,000f., are compensated to the extent of 19,593,000f. by an increase in the revenue from the stamp, wine, and salt duties, the sale of tobacco and gunpowder, and the post-office, etc. In definitive, therefore, the decline of 67,685,000f., which remains after deducting the increase, is more apparent than real, inasmuch as it is represented by sugar duties which have to be paid. In addition, a sum of 4,372,000f. on other duties is owing for 1864.

The following is a detail of the indirect taxes for the last and the two preceding years:

Designation of taxes.	1864.	1863.	1862.
Registration, mortgage dues, etc....	328,586,000f.	331,438,000f.	318,810,000 f.
Stamp duties	76,340,000	73,072,000	65,296,000
Customs duties on grain.....	308,060	1,614,000	4,120,000
Various sorts of merchandise.....	64,970,000	78,582,000	77,462,000
French colonial sugar.....	22,681,000	45,764,000	31,126,000
Foreign sugar	36,464,000	48,312,000	39,602,000
Exports.....	333,000	799,000	1,067,000
Navigation dues.....	4,203,000	4,163,000	4,283,000
Various customs duties and receipts.	1,454,000	1,490,000	1,414,000
Tax on the consumption of salt levied in the customs districts.....	23,156,000	22,548,000	27,608,000
Duties on wines, beer, etc	216,152,000	211,399,000	204,288,888
Tax on the consumption of salt levied beyond the customs districts	8,797,000	8,415,000	11,891,000
Duty on manufacture of native beet-root sugar.....	15,858,000	57,933,000	47,680,000
Various duties and receipts.....	58,551,000	56,371,000	53,721,000
Sale of tobacco.....	233,212,000	226,478,000	220,446,000
Sale of gunpowder	13,074,000	13,050,000	13,946,000
Post office.....	68,107,000	68,092,000	64,001,000
Duty of 1 per cent on money orders (French).....	1,096,000	1,070,000	1,764,000
Duty of 2 per cent on money orders (foreign)	3,000	.....	.....
Duty on articles of value sent through the post-office.....	756,000	665,000	635,000
Transit duty on foreign mails	2,532,000	2,089,000	1,987,000
Various receipts.....	59,000	33,000	35,000
Total.....	1,176,692,000	1,244,877,000	1,190,687,000

DEPRESSION OF TRADE IN CANADA.

The trade circulars from Canada, reviewing the last year's business, have a desponding tone. The sales of timber and ships, the leading staples, show a heavy decline, and the foreign market is at the present time so overstocked that a revival of the demand cannot be expected very soon. Ship-building has re-

ceived a severe shock. Last year sixty-two vessels of an average of 950 tons each were built and launched at Quebec. Of this number many yet remain unsold in the English market, while the prices offering are less than the actual cost of their construction. The same degree of stagnation exists in the home market, where accumulation of white and red pine are quite large, to be held over for the opening of navigation. The stock of the former is about 28,000,000 feet, and of the latter 55,000,000 feet, which is a large excess compared with the previous year. The number of vessels which proceeded to Montreal, including steamships, in 1864, was 376. of an aggregate of 157,162 tons, against 503 vessels of 200,717 tons in 1863, showing a falling off of 127 vessels and 52,555 tons.

A NEW TEXTILE.

THE Chamber of Commerce of Rouen, France, has caused experiments to be made of the applicability of various substances to supersede or to be used in conjunction with cotton. The results are embodied in a report representing that China grass has proved successful. The commission intrusted with the investigation and experiments say:

On the 16th of August, 1863, M. TERWAGNE, of Lille, sent in two samples of China grass, a kind of Siamese nettle. One of these samples was raw, the other bleached. Struck with the beauty of this textile substance, the chamber had issued a notice, inviting the manufacturers of Rouen to try it. On this occasion, MM. MALLARD and BONNEAU, of Lille, declared themselves to be the discoverers, and announced that the Chamber of Commerce of Lille had also caused experiments to be made.

The Chamber of Rouen then applied to the Minister of Agriculture and Commerce, who, accordingly, sent them a bale of thread and stuffs obtained from China grass, which is called *mah* by the Chinese, *rameh* in Java, and *Urtica nivea* by botanists. Since then experiments have been made on a large scale, especially with a mixture of China grass and cotton, not received from Louisiana. This mixture yields a softer and at the same time stronger stuff than that obtained with cotton alone, a stuff particularly applicable to household purposes, and certainly less apt to tear than cotton. It bleaches like the latter, and becomes glossy under the drying cylinder. In regard to dyeing, the new stuff takes madder quite as well as cotton; so also the Adrianople red, it will take aniline violet, fuchsine and indigo much better than cotton alone.

China grass alone has affinity of colors equal to that of the best cotton. With regard to strength, experiment shows that stuff made of China grass and cotton, when tried on the warp, is weaker than pure cotton in the proportion of 76 to 80, or thereabout, but that on the woof it is stronger in the proportion of 57 to 55.

The plant admits of being acclimatized in the south of France, and generally wherever cotton has been cultivated since the outbreak of the American war. It spreads with great rapidity, even when left to itself, and its cultivation gives little or no trouble.

At Calcutta it yields three crops a year, with stalks of the length of from six to nine feet. The Minister of Agriculture and Commerce has ordered over a quantity of China grass seed from its native country, in order to distribute it to all agriculturists who may apply for it.

The chemical treatment and the various manipulations requisite for obtaining the material fit for spinning cost together 1f. 5c. per kilo. As the cotton of Egypt now costs 5f. 60c., the difference in favor of China grass is 4f. 3c. To this must be added 10 per cent for the cleaning or picking and consequent waste of the said cotton, which raises the difference in favor of the new material at 4f. 59c. This is irrespective of the profit to be derived from the refuse to be sent to the paper mill.

STATISTICS OF TRADE AND COMMERCE.

Commerce of New York—Woollen Imports, &c.—Cotton—Exports from Cronstadt—Tide-Water Receipts—Lake Commerce of Buffalo—Imports and Exports at Baltimore—Chicago Growth and Trade—Imports Wheat, &c., into London.

COMMERCE OF NEW-YORK.

In our last number we gave (vol. 52, page 117) a detailed statement of the commercial movements at the Port of New-York, the past year, so far as the returns were at hand. We are able now, however, to complete the review, the official Custom-House returns being made up to the end of the year.

IMPORTS.

It will be remembered that the imports are all reckoned at their foreign cost in gold, freight and duty unpaid. Taking the imports of dry goods, as given in our last number, the total may be classified as follows:

FOREIGN IMPORTS AT NEW-YORK.

	1861.	1862.	1863.	1864.
Dry goods.....	$43,636,689	$56,121,227	$67,274,547	$71,589,752
Gen'r'l merchandise	133,472,764	117,140,813	118,814,219	144,270,886
Specie	37,088,413	1,390,277	1,525,811	2,265,622
Total imports.	$214,197,866	$174,652,317	$187,614,577	$218,125,760

We thus see that the value of the imports, the past year, have increased over thirty millions of dollars, nearly all of which (or about twenty-six millions of it) is under the head of general merchandise. In the one item of coffee our imports have doubled, being about seven and a-half millions in 1863, and fourteen and a half in 1864. The increase in dry goods is only about four millions. If we compare these figures with those of 1859 and 1860 (the two years previous to the war), we will find the total imports, the past year, to be less, by about twenty to twenty-five millions, than during those years. We give the figures since 1850, classifying them into dutiable, free, and specie. Under the head of dutiable is included both the value entered for consumption and that entered for warehousing. The free goods run very light, nearly all of the imports now being dutiable.

FOREIGN IMPORTS AT NEW YORK.

	Dutiable.	Free goods.	Specie.	Total.
1851	$119,592,264	$9,719,771	$2,049,543	$131,361,578
1852	115,336,052	12,105,342	2,408,225	129,849,619
1853	179,512,412	12,156,387	2,429,088	194,097,652
1854	163,494,984	15,768,916	2,107,572	181,371,472
1855	142,900,661	14,103,946	855,631	157,860,238
1856	193,839,646	17,902,578	1,814,425	213,556,649
1857	196,279,362	21,446,734	12,898,033	230,618,129
1858	128,578,256	22,024,691	2,264,120	152,867,067
1859	213,640,363	28,708,732	2,816,421	245,165,516

1860	201,401,683	28,006,447	8,852,330	238,260,460
1861	95,326,459	30,353,918	37,088,413	162,768,790
1862	149,970,415	23,291,625	1,390,277	174,652,317
1863	174,521,766	11,567,000	1,525,811	187,614,577
1864	204,128,286	11,731,902	2,265,622	218,125,760

We now annex our usual detailed statement, showing the receipts from foreign ports during each month of the year, for the last five years, both of dutiable and free goods, and what portion were entered for warehousing, and the value withdrawn from warehouse:

IMPORTS ENTERED FOR CONSUMPTION.

	1860.	1861.	1862.	1863.	1864.
January....	$16,521,174	$8,178,837	$6,763,396	$8,741,227	$12,422,618
February ..	14,467,040	7,003,399	7,058,174	7,372,539	15,766,601
March.....	16,163,698	6,700,061	10,312,689	11,461,572	15,848,425
April.....	10,407,966	5,393,809	7,141,197	9,493,830	18,951,760
May.....	10,515,411	2,889,588	8,091,120	7,980,281	7,531,360
June	11,870,400	1,825,563	7,278,953	6,328,581	5,513,985
July.....	18,759,905	3,200,663	13,799,505	9,080,210	6,382,928
August.....	19,564,675	3,359,695	10,289,427	10,004,580	6,603,653
September..	11,516,139	3,106,298	11,890,711	11,203,535	4,890,114
October....	10,974,428	3,638,580	8,462,554	11,885,569	3,770,526
November..	8,525,416	4,614,982	6,565,185	10,326,929	2,363,359
December...	5,374,246	4,342,756	6,831,073	10,498,576	4,443,542
Total..	$154,660,498	$54,254,231	$104,483,984	$114,377,429	$104,988,811

IMPORTS ENTERED WAREHOUSE.

January.....	$2,744,411	$8,560,680	$3,141,725	$4,482,794	$5,571,936
February....	1,526,772	3,751,673	3,870,486	3,657,775	4,991,398
March.....	3,592,093	3,084,187	4,841,846	6,016,901	6,641,408
April.....	4,127,857	4,187,678	3,853,218	6,456,208	5,905,540
May.....	4,436,660	5,842,313	4,600,920	5,437,404	14,727,176
June.....	4,487,109	3,245,504	3,874,127	5,877,885	16,906,964
July	4,462,475	1,769,636	4,502,764	6,057,342	14,954,685
August.....	4,182,764	2,660,457	2,939,721	4,409 891	10,487,478
September..	2,835,784	1,390,766	4,351,084	3,431,310	5,258,568
October.....	2,817,461	2,082,381	3,689,806	4,189,457	5,832,928
November ..	3,961,652	2,150,561	2,108,069	4,956,415	4,160,532
December....	7,566,147	2,316,387	4,212,725	5,676,955	4,250,862
Total..	$46,741,185	$41,072,228	$45,486,431	$60,144,337	$99,139,425

IMPORTS OF FREE GOODS.

January.....	$2,262,638	$2,825,665	$2,552,050	$2,413,649	$841,050
February.....	3,172,192	2,312,563	3,381,473	783,561	797,788
March	3,739,241	2,873,697	3,476,004	1,328,806	1,072,849
April.....	2,886,349	3,351,905	2,232,315	1,328,216	1,025,517
May.....	1,845,020	2,730,568	1,446,093	710,021	1,056,576
June.....	2,765,008	2,191,513	1,122,092	781,053	1,258,634
July.....	1,594,918	2,972,054	1,881,931	683,880	917,684
August	2,050,665	1,816,224	982,992	509,781	936,474
September ...	1,652,832	1,577,385	1,784,804	786,864	832,557
October.....	1,911,515	2,163,452	1,004,870	741,888	855,079
November.....	2,487,290	1,964,644	1,526,496	665,207	911,976
December.....	2,138,579	2,574,248	1,950,504	834,074	1,125,718
Total....	$28,006,447	$30,353,918	$28,291,625	$11,567,000	$11,731,902

IMPORTS OF SPECIE.

	1860.	1861.	1862.	1863.	1864.
January	$226,050	$7,262,229	$163,658	$101,906	$141,790
February	190,175	2,274,067	62,007	213,971	88,150
March	85,094	5,546,406	89,327	123 616	101,487
April	49,186	1,953,001	26,152	107,061	285,814
May	96,060	3,486,812	110,388	197,217	660,092
June	38,272	5,387,153	61,023	109.997	146,731
July	64,351	6,996,498	219,001	182,245	128,052
August	140,750	1,049,552	92,703	113,877	245,858
September	255,695	1,231,012	121,818	78,231	58,220
October	1,083,838	639,328	256,676	78,053	129,775
November	446,798	908,825	109,708	103,144	161,727
December	6,174,061	353,530	78,316	116,493	114,976
Total	$8,852,380	$37,088,413	$1,390,277	$1,525,811	$2,266,622

TOTAL IMPORTS.

January	$21,756,273	$26,872,411	$12,620,829	$15,739,576	$18,977,594
Feb	19,856,379	16,341,707	13,872,140	13,027,846	21,648,967
March	23,580,126	18,204,351	18,719,866	18,390,895	23,667,119
April	16,971,358	14,886,393	13,252,882	17,385,315	26,168,031
May	16,893,151	14,949,281	14,248,521	14,524,925	23,975,144
June	19,160,789	12,649,733	12,336,195	12,597,516	23,926,814
July	24,881,649	14,938,851	20,353,202	16,003,677	22,383,299
August	25,938,854	8,885,928	14,304,843	15,038,129	18,223,463
Sept	16,260,450	7,305,461	18,147,917	15,499,940	10,539,459
October	16,787,242	8,523,741	13,413,906	16,894,967	10,088,308
Nov	15,421,156	9,639,012	10,309,398	16,045,695	8,597,595
Dec	21,253,033	9,616,921	13,072,618	17,126,098	9,985,098
Total	$238,262,460	$162,768,790	$174,652,317	$187,614,577	$218,125,760

WITHDRAWN FROM WAREHOUSE.

January	$2,964,024	$2,543,273	$4,356,252	$2,881,531	$4,950,418
February	2,338,649	5,781,728	3,466,641	2,499,127	5,284,650
March	2,200,117	5,817,144	3,039,567	3,456,530	5,215,983
April	2,069.423	1,761,245	4,405,410	4,132,633	14,183,873
May	2,475,067	1,606,864	3,730,232	9,794,773	659,809
June	2,268,377	1,963,842	5,054,106	3,830,337	2,544,914
July	3,593,993	6,622,454	6,102,033	4,227,265	3,386,573
August	3,525,105	2,614,652	2,386,604	6,429,421	7,967,843
September	4,007,272	2,938,464	2,715,630	6,942,561	6,852,329
October	3,018,393	2,518,080	3,109,388	4,858,612	5,504,158
November	1,597,801	1,987,626	1,914,983	4,084,183	5,828,884
December	1,246,203	3,561,887	1,282,908	3,714,294	5,100,974
Total	$31,103,924	$39,717,259	$41,563,754	$50,851,167	$67,480,778

EXPORTS.

The total exports for 1864 show a very large gain over 1863, the increase being about $56,000,000. If we compare these figures with 1859, the increase will be found to be much greater—in fact, about three hundred per cent. The total shipments for 1859, exclusive of specie, were $67,980,321, while the past year they have been $221,822,542. It must be remembered, however, that these values, for 1864, are currency values, except, of course, the shipments of specie. The following will show the comparative shipments, for the last five years, of produce and merchandise by quarters:

EXPORTS FROM NEW-YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS EXCLUSIVE OF SPECIE.

	1860.	1861.	1862.	1863.	1864.
First quarter..	$20,827,086	$33,477,742	$32,075,568	$50,614,908	$41,429,756
Second quarter	22,740,760	33,123,489	29,798,344	41,046,726	48,446,686
Third quarter.	26,079,326	30,075,918	45,313,299	38,825,587	79,519,134
Fourth quarter.	33,845,108	41,917,752	49,747,611	40,223,747	52,426,966
Total....	$103,492,280	$138,594,901	$156,934,822	$170,718,768	$221,822,542

We now annex our usual detailed statement, showing the exports of domestic produce, foreign dutiable and free goods, and specie and bullion during each month of the last five years:

EXPORTS OF DOMESTIC PRODUCE.

	1860.	1861.	1862.	1863.	1864.
Jan.....	$5,299,142	$10,277,925	$12,053,477	$14,329,398	$11,448,953
Feb.....	5,699,387	10,263,820	10,078,101	17,780,586	13,662,218
March....	6,998,687	10,580,907	8,985,176	16,137,689	14,410,051
April....	6,638,682	9,255,648	8,002,094	11,581,933	13,263,713
May.....	5,812,190	10,855,709	9,837,693	13,183,510	14,610,493
June	8,307,774	10,270,430	10,048,832	14,780,072	17,996,495
July.....	7,525,718	9,552,789	14,050,437	15,298,073	26,251,673
August ..	8,012,814	9,652,301	13,046,389	10,666,959	26,617,850
Septemb'r	9,232,931	9,877,909	14,734,993	11,717,761	15,595,548
October...	10,067,330	12,904,550	19,476,947	14,513,454	16,740,404
November	11,262,701	14,109,763	14,060,340	11,413,591	12,015,064
December.	10,610,945	13,661,444	14,805,112	12,846,151	19,248,528
Total..	$95,468,296	$131,235,995	$149,179,591	$164,249,177	$201,855,989

EXPORTS OF FOREIGN FREE.

January.....	$324,003	$399,940	$27,193	$73,111	$42,232
February.....	344,994	137,950	49,099	43,889	77,698
March.....	285,351	109,270	65,388	213,685	72,667
April.....	254,742	209,573	56,350	74,949	48,461
May.....	309,921	180,114	76,971	103,337	40,898
June.....	200,464	648,482	43,368	49,380	75,709
July	140,949	203,325	1,117,193	77,232	249,404
August.....	76,083	57,965	417,100	90,815	126,587
September....	46,620	30,013	667,987	55,400	848,742
October	94,175	60,868	179,205	149,325	69,965
November	84,167	41,973	45,538	56,584	64,914
December	97,241	75,474	108,489	55,555	425,231
Total	$2,258,710	$2,154,947	$2,853,848	$1,087,212	$2,142,458

EXPORTS OF FOREIGN DUTIABLE.

January	$399,317	$465,978	$149,493	$668,275	$664,485
February....	631,489	429,537	208,757	610,009	456,493
March.....	844,716	839,415	458,917	758,266	599,959
April.....	482,489	231,784	607,678	875,224	558,812
May	248,270	567,872	752,797	602,254	569,888
June.....	486,228	903,877	372,561	298,067	1,282,218
July.....	232,552	260,866	449,948	448,601	5,137,460
August.....	191,270	176,581	256,680	231,774	2,231,782
September..	620,394	264,168	572,572	238,972	2,460,138
October.....	394,753	192,196	434,265	350,614	1,104,299
November ..	400,218	377,170	284,873	383,948	1,126,059
December...	833,578	494,514	352,902	458,575	1,632,502
Total..	$5,765,274	$5,203,959	$4,901,383	$5,425,579	$17,824,095

EXPORTS OF SPECIE AND BULLION.

January.....	$853,562	$58,894	$2,658,274	$4,624,574	$5,459,079
February.....	977,009	1,102,926	3,776,919	3,965,664	3,015,267
March.....	2,381,663	801,802	2,471,233	6,585,442	1,800,559
April.....	2,995,502	1,412,674	4,037,675	1,972,834	5,883,077
May.....	5,529,936	128,900	5,164,636	2,115,675	6,460,930
June	3,842,080	244,242	9,867,614	1,367,774	6,583,109
July.....	6,563,985	11,020	8,069,337	5,268,881	1,947,329
August.....	7,454,813	3,600	3,713,582	3,465,261	1,001,813
September....	3,758,784	15,756	3,085,919	3,480,385	2,835,398
October.....	2,106,395	15,038	6,707,519	6,210,156	2,517,121
November....	525,091	48,385	6,213,251	5,438,363	7,267,662
December....	202,401	893,013	3,673,112	5,259,053	6,104,177
Total....	$42,191,171	$4,236,250	$59,437,021	$49,754,066	$50,825,621

TOTAL EXPORTS.

January..	$6,876,024	$11,202,737	$14,888,437	$19,695,358	$17,609,749
February.	7,652,879	11,907,233	14,112,843	22,400,148	17,211,776
March ...	10,510,417	11,831,394	11,980,714	28,695,082	16,383,256
April....	10,390,415	11,709,679	12,703,797	14,004,940	19,754,062
May.....	11,900,317	11,732,595	15,832,097	16,002,780	21,682,200
June.....	17,836,546	12,067,031	20,332,375	16,495,293	25,887,531
July.....	14,463,199	10,028,000	23,684,915	21,092,787	33,585,868
August ..	15,734,980	9,890,448	17,433,701	14,454,809	20,977,982
Septemb'r	13,658,679	10,178,846	19,061,471	15,492,518	21,739,826
October..	12,662,653	13,172 452	26,797,936	21,219,549	20,431,789
November	12,272,177	14,577,291	20,603,942	17,292,436	20,473,699
December.	11,745,165	15,124,445	18,939,615	18,619,334	27,410,438
Total.	$145,688,451	$142,931,151	$216,371,843	$220,465,034	$272,648,163

WOOL IMPORTS, ETC.

NEW YORK, BOSTON, AND CALIFORNIA.

THE trade in both foreign and domestic wools during the year just closed was large and prosperous, the imports, as will be seen from the figures below, showing an increase over even those of last year. The number of bales imported at New York, and the entered value, since 1860 has been as follows:

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN WOOL AT NEW YORK.

Year.	Bales.	Enter'd value.	Year.	Bales.	Entered value.
1860.....	80,985	$2,250,928	1863	109,141	$8,121,082
1861	81,016	2,006,136	1864	115,799	9,418,291
1862	88,883	6,134,292			

The enormous increase in the consumption of wool by the army is well illustrated by these figures. At Boston the imports of foreign wool have been as follows:

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN WOOL AT BOSTON.

Year.	Bales.	Quintals.	Year.	Bales.	Quintals.
1864	35,841	5,746	1858	19,882	10,322
1863	22,644	....	1857	37,680	13,847
1862	39,799	600	1856	14,478	17,755
1861	31,578	5,097	1855	14,999	9,751
1860	30,160	16,471	1854	24,925	9,821
1859	36,708	33,774	1853	27,374	16,451

Below is a statement of the imports of wool at New York for the past two years, giving the countries from whence it was imported, the number of bales, weight, and sworn Custom-House value:

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN WOOL AT NEW YORK DURING THE YEAR 1863 AND 1864.

From whence.	Year, 1863. No. of bales.	Weight, lbs.,	Entered value.	Year, 1864. No. of bales.	Weight, lbs.	Entered value.
England	27,112	11,426,648	$2,013,770	15,463	6,551,586	$1,312,317
Buenos Ayres	14,819	12,203,407	1,819,690	14,121	11,582,990	1,780,496
France	24,964	7,075,227	1,223,543	21,477	5,837,840	1,080,041
Belgium	2,135	1,403,108	255,279	1,745	1,005,840	264,840
Africa	10,613	4,964,345	822,002	24,651	10,973,155	2,007,742
Brazil	2,009	1,135,073	168,777	2,115	1,306,529	219,311
Sardinia	82	24,020	2,963	....	.....	.....
Venezuela	7	550	58	....	.....	.....
Tuscany	571	243,318	30,874	257	150,331	15,680
British N. A. colonies	20	3,206	955	....	.....	.....
Bremen	501	183,032	60,658	283	96,396	24,799
New Granada	295	56,449	9,086	4,921	6,362,122	547,562
Scotland	31	7,300	2,679	....	.....	.....
Wrecked	98	19,317	2,935	....	.....	.....
Spain	598	191,625	30,463	499	137,324	22,710
Canary Islands	174	1,724	1,734	....	.....	.....
Italy	...	....	....	79	26,299	5,124
Hamburg	430	169,055	49,331	1,051	281,041	38,847
Gibraltar	221	48,639	7,945	421	83,699	14,316
Cuba	16	5,869	894	...	.....	.....
Portugal	893	180,354	30,227	878	175,889	29,281
British West Indies	24	907	139	840	316,059	42,529
Porto Rico	...	....	....	410	128,438	17,616
Turkey	2,567	1,117,552	185,004	1,269	537,884	113,803
Dutch West Indies	92	34,739	4,241	48	15,932	1,953
Mexico	3,786	1,814,209	176,024	1,108	460,599	60,562
Cisplatine Republic	1,270	1,058,392	172,221	3,923	3,409,672	618,844
Russia	3,705	1,387,479	217,743	9,445	3,505,189	600,343
British East Indies	2,188	703,084	146,598	3,586	1,247,396	233,730
British pos. in Africa	6,456	2,915,994	526,012	1,174	518,954	93 892
Chili	3,160	757,445	143,643	3,527	1,539,795	194,849
Cadiz	151	30,649	5,354	....	.....	.....
Malta	6	2,772	666	....	.....	.....
China	147	79,213	9,514	36	4,800	439
Austria	....	.....	....	66	27,045	7,527
Morocco	....	.....	....	1,096	356,138	47,296
Danish West Indies	....	.....	....	135	4,436	512
Greece	....	.....	....	575	230,755	26,330
	109,141	48,744,901	$8,121,032	115,799	56,874,128	$9,418,291

The receipts of wool at California and vicinity have been as follows, from January 1st to December 31st, 1864:

California, estimated ..... lbs.	8,000,000
Oregon, estimated	216,800
Vancouver Island, estimated	68,200
Sandwich Islands, estimated	39,200
Total receipts ..... lbs.	8,324,200
Shipments and consumption	8,203,192
Balance on hand and in the country ..... lbs.	121,008

Shipments of wool from January 1 to December 31, 1864:

New York, per steamers..... lbs.	3,560,260	
New York, per sailing vessels... ...	1,931,554	5,491,814
Boston, per sailing vessels		842,850
Punta Arenas, per sailing vessels		1,012
Tahiti, per sailing vessels.....		341
La Paz, per steamer...		175
Total ..... lbs.		6,336,192
Home consumption		1,867,000
Grand total.....lbs.		8,203,192

The total product of California for a series of years has been as follows:

PRODUCT OF WOOL FOR EACH YEAR FROM 1855 TO 1864, INCLUSIVE.

1855.....lbs.	360,000	1860.....lbs.	3,260,000
1856.....	600,000	1861.....	4,600,000
1857.....	1,100,000	1862.....	6,400,000
1858.....	1,428,000	1863..... ..	7,600,000
1859.....	2,378,000	1864.	8,000,000

The entire clip of the United States for 1864 was about 100,000,000 pounds.

COTTON.

THE cotton trade the past year has continued in a very unsatisfactory condition the world over. The fluctuations in prices have been almost incessant, and if we take the Liverpool market, we find that not a week has passed without some change transpiring in the value of one or more of the various descriptions. There are, however, four grand movements which stand out prominently from the rest—first, a gradual decline from January to April; second, a steady advance to the close of July; third, a rapid fall to the middle of October: and, finally, a considerable rebound to the end of December. These extreme variations are set forth in the following table, which gives also the fluctuations in yarn and cloth:

PRICES OF COTTON YARN AND CLOTH AT LIVERPOOL DURING 1864.

	Prices current.				
Cotton.	Jan. 1.	April 1.	July 31.	Oct. 22.	Dec. 31.
Orleans, middling .....per lb.	27⅝d	26⅛d	31⅛d	22d	27d
Pernam, fair.....	28⅛d	26⅛d	32d	22⅛d	26⅝d
Egyptian, fair roller.....	28⅛d	26d	30d	20⅛d	27⅛d
Smyrna, fair.....	22⅝d	22⅛d	23⅛d	12⅛d	18⅛d
Dhollera, fair	23d	21⅛d	24d	13⅛d	20d
Bengal, fair.....	18d	15d	17⅛d	8⅛d	13d
China, fair.....	20d	17⅛d	19⅛d	11d	16d
Yarn.					
Water—20's good 2nds.....	31d	28d	32d	20d	28⅛d
Mule—40's good 2nds.....	36d	34d	36d	22d	30d

	Jan. 1.	April 1.	July 31.	Oct. 22.	Dec. 31.
Cloth—Gray.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
26in printers 66rd 4½ lb...per piece	11 9	11 6	13 1½	9 0	12 0
36in shirting 64rd 7½ lb.....	18 6	18 3	20 6	14 0	18 6
36in shirting 66rd 7½ lb.....	19 9	19 6	22 6	15 0	20 6
24in domestics 60yd 9½ lb per yard.	0 4⅛	0 4½	0 4⅝	0 3	0 3½

The total supply and consumption in Europe the past year may be seen from the following table :

IMPORT, STOCK, AND CONSUMPTION IN EUROPE, EXPRESSED IN BALES.

Import, stock, etc.	1862. United States.	1862. Total.	1863. United States.	1863. Total.	1864. United States.	1864. Total.
Stock, Jan. 1, M. bags.	434,000	883,000	88,000	507,000	52,000	364,000
Import to 31st December:						
Great Britain.....	72,000	1,445,000	132,000	1,932,000	198,000	2,587,000
France	24,000	225,000	8,000	315,000	15,000	429,000
Holland	11,000	74,000	10,000	136,006	9,000	119,000
Belgium.....	1,000	17,000	.....	37,000	1,000	22,000
Germany	5,000	98,000	11,000	158,000	6,000	181,000
Trieste	....	32,000	.....	26,000	....	28,000
Genoa	1,000	10,000	1,000	23,000	....	18,000
Spain	18,000	73,000	6,000	106,000	12,000	92,000
M. bags.....	132,000	1,974,000	168,000	2,733,000	241,000	3,476,000
Deduct inter. shipments	38,000	388,000	19,000	514,000	21,000	468,000
M. bags.....	94,000	1,586,000	149,000	2,219,000	220,000	3,008,000
Add stock from above.	434,000	883,000	88,000	507,000	42,000	364,000
Total supply, M. bags.	528,000	2,469,000	237,000	2,726,000	262,000	3,372,000
Deduct stock 31st Dec.	88,000	507,000	42,000	364,000	24,000	618,000
Total deliveries, M. bags	440,000	1,962,000	195,000	2,362,000	238,000	2,724,000

GENERAL CONSUMPTION OF COTTON IN POUNDS WEIGHT.

	1864.	1863.	1862.	1861.
United States	104,000,000	85,000,000	193,000,000	1,197,000,000
Brazil	41,000,000	32,000,000	24,000,000	16,000,000
West Indies	18,000,000	6,000,000	8,000,000	8,000,000
East Indies and China.....	575,000,000	562,000,000	427,000,000	300,000,000
Mediterranean.....	242,000,000	200,000,000	106,000,000	88,000,000
Total pounds.....	980,000,000	885,000,000	758,000,000	1,609,000,000

The following table shows to what extent the supply from certain countries has increased since the war began :

	From Bombay.	From Madras.	From Egypt.	From Brazil.
1860 .....bales	508,000	55,000	109,000	103,000
1861.....	906,000	80,000	97,000	100,000
1862.....	915,000	124,000	182,000	134,000
1863.....	899,000	177,000	204,000	148,000
1864.....	1,043,000	173,000	257,000	212,000

There has also been a steady increase from China and Japan, but the bags are small (240 lbs.,) and the aggregate quality not very large. The apparent aggregate increase of supply, however, since the commencement of the cotton famine is greater than the real one, inasmuch as the average weight of the bales has been steadily decreasing.

The total receipts and weekly consumption in Great Britain during same time have been as follows :

	Receipts.			Weekly consumption.		
	Bales.	Aver. weight. Lbs.	Aggregate in pounds.	Bales.	Lbs.	Pounds.
1860	3,366,000	425	1,430,550,000	48,500	425	20,612,500
1861	3,036,000	415	1,259,940,000	45,500	415	18,882,500
1862	1,445,000	370	534,650,000	22,800	370	8,436,000
1863	1,932,000	364	703,248,000	26,500	364	9,646,000
1864	2,587,000	347	897,689,000	30,900	347	10,722,300

RUSSIA.—EXPORTS FROM CRONSTADT IN 1864.

The following are exports from Cronstadt, in 1864, to New York and Boston:

TO NEW YORK.

Sheet iron.....poods	24,404	Feathers .....poods	525
Hemp.....	15,799	Horse hair.	1,378
Flax.....	1,301	Crash .....arsheens	547,000
Cordage	3,041	Sail cloth .....pcs.	6,303
Junk.....	69,658	Ravens duck.....	3,520
Rags.....	33,650	Flems	100
Oakum	630	Mats	5,130
Felt	130	Oak wood.....poods	363
Bristles	626		

TO BOSTON.

Sheet iron.....poods	25,845	Diaper .....arsheens	17,959
Flax	653	Sail cloth .....pcs.	3,004
Flax tow.....	11,324	Ravens duck.....	1,550
Cordage	1,888	Flems	50
Junk	38,387	Mats	3,700
Rags	16,518	Flaxseed .....poods	141
Oakum	900	Lima wood.....	2,830
Tar.....	4,500	Tortoise shell.....	27
Bristles	654	Linseed.....chetwerts	60
Horse hair	672	Cotton robes.....pcs.	100
Red leather	310	Cotton robes.....arsheens	1,000
Crash .....arsheens	217,000	Sundries.....pkgs.	8

CANALS OF NEW YORK.

TIDE-WATER RECEIPTS OF PRODUCE.

The quantity of flour, wheat, corn, and barley, left at tide-water, from the commencement of navigation to the 8th of December, close thereof, during the years 1863 and 1864, was as follows:

	Flour, bbls.	Wheat, bush.	Corn, bush.	Barley, bush.
1863.....	1,560,000	22,206,900	20,603,600	3,190,500
1864.....	1,184,300	15,465,600	10,352,400	3,045,900
Decrease.....	376,500	6,741,300	10,251,200	144,600

By reducing the wheat to flour, the quantity of the latter left at tide water this year, compared with the corresponding period last year, shows a deficiency equal to 1,724,760 barrels flour.

The following comparative table shows the quantity of some of the principal articles of produce at tide-water from the commencement of navigation to the close thereof, in the years indicated:

Canal opened—	1862, May 1.	1863, May 1.	1864, April 30.
Flour.....bbls.	1,828,500	1,560,800	1,184,300
Wheat.....bush.	32,669,900	22,207,900	15,465,600
Corn.....	23,709,800	20,613,600	10,352,200
Barley.....	2,562,700	3,190,500	8,404,900
Oats.....	5,940,000	12,437,500	12,177,509
Rye.....	7,000,100	470,500	620,300
Beef.....bbls.	171,900	87,200	75,700
Pork.....	169,800	232,200	58,300
Bacon.....lb.	6,732,000	3,711,500	579,600
Butter.....	6,028,000	5,171,500	1,327,800
Lard.....	10,200,000	20,776,100	2,644,800
Cheese.....	13,700,000	9,614,000	4,298,900
Wool.....	1,760,000	429,200	1,226,100

LAKE COMMERCE OF BUFFALO, 1864.

THE following statement shows the arrivals and clearances at and from Buffalo of American and foreign vessels to and from Canadian ports; also the arrivals and clearances of American vessels to and from American ports, the tonnage of the same; and the number of men composing the crews arriving and departing; also comparative statement of the same for a series of years:

SUMMARY FOR THE YEAR 1864.

	No.	Tonnage.	Crews.
American vessels entered.....	1,663	1,641,258	17,103
Foreign vessels entered.....	926	72,424	4,229
Coasting vessels entered.....	4,369	1,708,085	52,443
Total entered for the year.....	6,958	3,421,787	73,773
American vessels cleared.....	1,810	1,669,883	17,424
Foreign vessels cleared.....	814	64,407	4,066
Coasting vessels cleared.....	4,523	1,735,291	52,898
Total cleared for the year.....	7,147	3,469,581	74,388
Grand total 1864.....	14,105	6,891,348	148,161
" 1863.....	15,376	6,757,903	157,415
" 1862.....	16,390	6,689,191	166,133
" 1861.....	13,866	5,963,896	144,173
" 1860.....	11,527	4,710,175	120,497
" 1859.....	10,521	5,592,626	118,109
" 1858.....	8,318	3,329,246	86,887
" 1857.....	7,581	3,226,806	132,183
" 1856.....	8,128	3,018,589	112,051
" 1855.....	9,211	3,360,233	111,575
" 1854.....	8,912	3,990,284	120,838
" 1853.....	8,298	3,252,978	128,112
" 1852.....	9,441	3,092,247	127,491

TRADE AND GROWTH OF CHICAGO.

THE annual tables of the trade and commerce of Chicago, furnished by the *Tribune* of that city, for the year 1864, exhibit some surprising evidences of rapid growth and continued prosperity. The *Tribune* says that there has never before been such activity and success in all branches of trade, manufactures, and com-

merce. The war has stimulated rather than diminished the demand for the products of the great West and Northwest. We glean the following summary of the statements for 1864 and 1863:

	1864.	1863.
Flour and grain.....bush.	45,952,741	56,079,903
Beeves packed.....No.	65,000	70,000
Pork packed.....	904,658	970,264
High wines manufactured.....bbls.	138,145	159,312
Lumber received.....feet	480,156,000	392,800,000
Hides received.....No.	19,524,409	18,561,985
Wholesale grocery trade.....	$40,000,000	.....
Wholesale dry goods trade.....	$35,000,000	.....
Hats, caps, and furs	$5,000,000	.....
Wholesale boot and shoe trade.....	$14,000,000	.....
Wholesale clothing trade.....	$12,000,000	.....
Lake fish trade.....pkgs.	85,770	56,729

BALTIMORE IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

The Baltimore commerce returns, as given by the Baltimore *Sun*, shows that the chief articles of import compare as follows:

	1864.	1863.
Sugar .....lb.	34,919,266	40,808,242
Coffee.....	15,721,657	14,060,034
Salt.....bush.	28,844,570	341,500
Molasses .....galls.	1,044,903	842,103
Guano..... ...tons	1,916	940

The value of iron in 1863 was $41,169 against $402,697 last year, and of hides, in 1863, $107,561 against $146,093 last year.

The chief articles of export compare as follows:

	1864.	1863.
Corn .....bush.	105,544	271,542
Wheat.....	60,022	95,194
Flour.....bbls.	331,423	316,596
Coal..... ...tons	7,303	8,705
Oils (petroleum and coal).....galls.	821,808	318,870
Tobacco..... .....value	$5,250,044	$4,576,221
Tobacco, mid .....lb.	63,727	102,301
Tallow.....	458,459	1,241,735
Lumber .....value	$224,692	$179,929
Lard ....lb.	2,564,400	3,661,113
Pork.....bbls.	5,803	7,998

IMPORTS OF WHEAT, FLOUR, BARLEY, AND OATS INTO LONDON, 1863-64.

The leading countries from which the imports of wheat, flour, barley, and oats, into London, last year, and in 1863, were derived, are exhibited in the following statement:

	Wheat.		Flour.	
	1863. Qrs.	1864. Qrs.	1863. Pkgs.	1864. Pkgs.
America—British Possessions.....	54,389	27,464	56,586	29,406
United States.....	306,261	119,970	576,521	316,993
Egypt.....	35,301	1,220	400	.....

France	5,613	7,435	13,250	26,991
Hanseatic Towns	21,647	29,572	11,145	4,389
Mecklenburg	28,588	50,514	....	....
Prussia	279,356	264,487	334	1,464
Russia—Baltic Sea	111,153	241,078	2,217	18
Azoff Sea	28,757	10,202	....	....
Black Sea	15,337	34,345	....	....
Total, including minor countries.	908,829	813,096	672,132	381,201

	Barley.		Oats.	
	1863. Qrs.	1864. Qrs.	1863. Qrs.	1864. Qrs.
Denmark	70,071	64,586	251,596	210,548
Egypt	80,349	7,355	.....	.....
France	61,674	12,699	15,880	9,890
Hanover	1,309	210	63,853	16,061
Hanseatic Towns	41,435	8,552	21,638	10,532
Holland	4,197	203	60,425	49,241
Prussia	71,536	28,129	123,364	35,614
Russia—Baltic Sea	280	6,190	243,567	674,547
White Sea	...	575	80,541	126,839
Black Sea	105,767	74,878	388	.....
Azoff Sea	8,500	.....	....	2,700
Sweden	6,249	15,608	630,978	651,081
Turkish dominions	80,201	57,231	.....	.....
Total, including minor countries.	543,559	288,481	1,551,795	1,827,304

MINING STATISTICS.

GOLD MINING IN CONNECTICUT.

THE Stamford *Advocate*, in alluding to recent discoveries of gold at Greenwich, Conn., says:

"We saw specimens of the ore from this mine some two weeks since.

"By an interview with Dr. KEITH, a resident of this place, we learned the following facts. The assays from ore taken from the Stamford lode yielded from

"No. 1—$57.44 in gold per ton.

"No. 2—$51.70 in gold per ton.

"No. 3—$71.50 in gold, and $4.75 in silver per ton.

"Only one assay has been made from the Greenwich lode, and that gave $30.90 in gold per ton. The Doctor informs us the present appearance of the lodes is as good as in the generality of the mines in Colorado. Should these mines prove to be no richer than the yield by the above assays, their value must be very great. After a mine is well opened, it is calculated that ore can be mined and worked at a cost of from $15 to $20 per ton in currency—this would leave a profit of over $50 in gold per ton, if we take the average of the above assays. If there is gold on the surface of these mines, there must be a richer harvest below, and we hope that the work on them will be prosecuted with vigor, as we doubt not that it will be advantageous to the owners, and we are quite certain that it will have a tendency to add much to the wealth and prosperity of Stamford."

PRODUCT OF PORTAGE LAKE MINES FOR 1864.

	Tons.	Pounds.
Quincy mine	1,485	1,362
Pewabic mine	932	791
Franklin mine	781	880
Isle Royale mine	363	1,676
Grand Portage mine	316	196
Huron mine	310	1,622
Hancock mine	50	182
Mesnard mine	28	190
Shelden-Columbian mine	11	023
Arcadian mine	5	680
Albany and Boston mine	3	040
Douglass mine	2	1,459
St. Mary's mine	2	590
Total	4,292	1,691
Product of 1863	4,106	1,317
Increase in 1864	186	374

The following table will show the productions of the various mines in the district for the past three years:

	1864.		1863.		1862.	
	Tons.	Lbs.	Tons.	Lbs.	Tons.	Lbs.
Quincy	1,485	1,362	1,472	1,531	1,252	1,403
Pewabic	932	791	1,083	752	1,025	1,789
Franklin	781	880	780	189	945	1,194
Isle Royale	363	1,676	372	920	520	1,030
Grand Portage	316	196	247	883	...	....
Huron	310	1,622	69	283	98	874
Hancock	50	182	72	320	66	846
Mesnard	28	190	3	1,185	33	....
Shelden-Columbian	11	023	3	1,254	....	....
Arcadian	5	680	....	....	....	....
Albany and Boston	3	040	....	....	....	....
Douglass	2	1,459	....	....	....	....
St. Mary's	2	590	2	....	....	....
Total	4,292	1,691	4,106	1,317	3,942	1,226
Increase of 1863 over 1862					164	91
Increase of 1864 over 1863					186	374
Increase of 1864 over 1862					350	465

Considering the increased number of mines in 1864 over 1862, the gain has not apparently, been in proportion, and a little explanation may be necessary. In 1862 the amount of ingot copper produced was 3,075 tons, while in 1864 it was 3,400 tons, which excess when reduced to 80 per cent mineral, gives 380 tons instead of 350 tons gain as shown in the preceding table. This has been occasioned by improvements in washing machinery, whereby a greater purity of metal is obtained, but the number of tons is decreased. Another item is the scarcity of labor for the past two years; and every new mine that has been started has drawn away laborers from producing mines while the new mines have produced nothing.

The prospects for another year, if labor grows no scarcer are much more flattering than those for the three years past, and we may expect a decided increase over the product of 1864—say 800 tons.—*Portage Lake Mining Gazette.*

THE CANADIAN GOLD FIELDS.

A correspondent of the Toronto *Leader* in speaking of the Canadian gold fields, says:

The anticipations of those gloomy prophets who foretold that the gold mines would cease to produce enough of the auriferous metal to make their working profitable—or perhaps, rather I should say, would decline in value from year to year—have not been realized so far. On the contrary, the reports grow more favorable from year to year. At the present time there are in operation in this province some eight or nine well known mines, which have stood the test of years, besides a number of other of lesser note, and unproclaimed districts, numbering in all about 90. These employ very nearly 800 men. The quantity of quartz raised during the three months of October, November, and December, was respectively 2,265, 2,330, and 1,520 tons. The average yield of gold is about seven-eighths of an ounce per ton. The total yield of the past year, as gathered from the official returns, was 20,022 oz. 13 qrts. 13 grs, being an excess over the year 1863 of 6,000 ounces. The following table shows the yield during each quarter of the year:

Quarter ending March 31, 1864.....	4,010	18	3
" June 30, 1864.....	5,159	8	8
" Sept. 30, 1864.....	5,395	2	21
" Dec. 31, 1864.....	5,457	9	5
Year ending Dec. 31, 1864.....	20,022	13	13

This does not embrace all taken from the mines, because it is impossible to obtain complete returns, but valued at $20 per ounce, we find that the product of our gold mines last year was worth $400,458. This is a very satisfactory result, and the indications, I am happy to say, are, that the product this year will be even larger than in 1864.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

DECISIONS OF THE TREASURY DEPARTMENT UNDER THE TARIFF ACTS.

THE following decisions have been made by the Secretary of the Treasury, of questions arising upon appeals by importers from the decisions of collectors, relating to the proper classification, under the tariff acts, of certain articles of foreign manufacture and production, entered at the ports of New York, Boston, &c.:—

SAIL CLOTH—DECISION UNDER 24TH SECTION ACT JUNE 30, 1864.

Treasury Department, October 18, 1864.

SIR:

Messrs. AARON D. WELD & SON have appealed from your decision, that on an importation of sail cloth from St. Petersburg, transhipped at London, the freight, &c., from St. Petersburg to London, is made a dutiable charge under the 24th section of the act approved June 30, 1864, which is as follows:

"*And be it further enacted*, That in determining the valuation of goods imported into the United States from foreign countries, except as hereinbefore provided, upon which duties imposed by any existing laws are to be assessed, the actual value of such goods on shipboard at the last place of shipment to the United States shall be deemed the dutiable value. And such value shall be as-

certained by the adding to the value of such goods at the place of growth, production, or manufacture, the cost of transportation, shipment, and transhipment, with all the expenses included, from the place of growth, production, or manufacture, whether by land or water, to the vessel in which shipment is made to the United States, the value of the sack, box, or covering of any kind in which such goods are contained, commission at the usual rate, in no case less than two and one-half per centum, brokerage, and all export duties, together with all costs and charges paid or incurred for placing said goods on shipboard, and all other proper charges specified by law."

The comprehensive language of the section clearly includes the item of freight and commission for reshipment. It does not express a value at the place of original shipment for this country; but following the merchandise by land and sea, adds the accruing charges of transportation, shipment, transhipment, &c., until the goods are laden on that vessel which bears them to our shores.

Your decision is hereby affirmed.

I am, very respectfully,

GEO. HARRINGTON,
Acting Secretary of the Treasury.

To J. Z. GOODRICH, Esq.,
Collector, Boston, Mass.

DRESS ORNAMENTS.

Treasury Department, October 18, 1864.

SIR:

Messrs. GAVETTY & GERR, of New York, have appealed (No. 2,385) from your decision assessing duty, at the rate of fifty per cent ad valorem, on certain dress ornaments, being wooden moulds or cores covered with silk; and your decision assessing duty at the rate of thirty-five per cent ad valorem, as manufactures of wood, the wooden moulds or cores uncovered.

The appellants claim that the articles are "buttons and button moulds," and are liable as such to duty at the rates of 40 per cent and 30 per cent respectively.

The articles styled "buttons" by the appellants are dress ornaments, (in accordance with decisions of the Department of February 16, 1861, and November 19, 1863,) and composed of silk and wood, silk being the chief value, are subject to duty at 50 per cent ad valorem, as "manufactures of which silk is the component material of chief value, not otherwise provided for," in section 8 act of June 30, 1864.

The articles styled "button moulds" are moulds or cores of wood for *dress ornaments*, and being evidently not for *buttons*, cannot be regarded as button moulds within the meaning of the law, (section 22, act March, 1861.) are therefore subject to duty as "manufactures of wood," at 35 per cent ad valorem, by section 22 act of March, 1861. and section 13 act of July, 1862.

Your decisions are hereby affirmed.

I am, very respectfully,

GEO. HARRINGTON,
Acting Secretary of the Treasury.

To J. Z. GOODRICH, Esq.,
Collector, Boston, Mass.

SILK CRAPES.

Treasury Department, October 20, 1864.

SIR:

Messrs. BECAR, NAPIER & Co. have appealed (No. 2,351) from your decision assessing duty, at the rate of 60 per cent, on certain "silk crapes" imported by them from Liverpool per steamer "Louisiana," and claim that the proper duty should be 50 per cent, for the reason that "silk crapes are not known in trade as

'piece silks' or 'silks in the piece,' and are not so in reality, as the process of manufacture makes them an entirely different article; an article as distinct in itself as silk laces. As it is not enumerated among the articles which are distinct in their manufacture from dress and piece silks, we claim that they should be returned by the appraisers as 'manufactures of silk not otherwise provided for,' and pay a duty of 50 per cent."

Section 8 of the tariff act of June 30, 1864, imposes a duty of 60 per cent ad valorem "on all dress and piece silks," &c., &c. In the same section it is provided that a duty of 50 per cent ad valorem shall be imposed "on all manufactures of silk, or of which silk is the component material of chief value, not otherwise provided for, fifty per cent ad valorem." Under this latter provision, Messrs. BECAR, NAPIER & Co. claim to enter the "silk crapes" in question.

Silk crape is undoubtedly a manufacture of silk, and this is true of all silks in the piece; but a distinction is made in the tariff between *silk in the piece and a manufacture of silk*, so that all silks *in the piece*, by whatever name or description designated, must be so classed, and are liable to 60 per cent ad valorem duty.

Your decision is hereby affirmed.

I am, very respectfully,

W. P. FESSENDEN,
Secretary of the Treasury.

To SIMEON DRAPER, Esq.,
Collector, New York.

BRANDY—DECISION UNDER 20TH SECTION ACT APPROVED JUNE 30, 1864.

Treasury Department, October 20, 1864.

SIR:

Your letter of the 24th ult., in relation to your withdrawal entry of brandy imported by you per ships "Penelope," "Auguste," and "Victoria," is received.

It appears that your withdrawal entry was nearly completed on the 30th of April, when the officers of the customs at New York received notice of the passage of the joint resolution of April 29, imposing 50 per cent additional duty, which duty you declined to pay, and have not since paid, the brandy still remaining in bond.

You ask to be permitted to pay the rate of duty which the brandy was subject to prior to the 30th April, "as Congress subsequently amended the 50 per cent act, postponing its operation until the 1st day of May."

As there is no evidence of your having tendered the amount of the duty imposed by acts passed prior to the joint resolution to the collector on the 30th of April, I am of the opinion that the subsequent act of Congress, to wit: section 20 of the act of June 30, 1864, affords you no relief. Had you paid the additional 50 per cent on the 30th of April, and duly protested and appealed to this Department, you would have been entitled to a refund under the 20th section.

I am of the opinion that the brandy in question, if now withdrawn for consumption, would be liable to the duty imposed by the act approved June 30, 1864.

I am, very respectfully,

W. P. FESSENDEN,
Secretary of the Treasury.

To S. L. DURYEE, Esq.,
341 Broadway, New York.

FELT LEATHER SHOES.

Treasury Department, October 21, 1864.

SIR:

Messrs. SCHACK & HOTOP have appealed, (No. 2,393,) under date of October 15, 1864, from your decision assessing duty of 24 cents per pound and 40 per cent ad valorem on certain so-styled "felt leather shoes," and claim that under

existing laws said goods are only liable to a duty of 35 per cent; that no provision having been made in the last tariff of June 30, 1864, for shoes, they should be classified under the tariffs of March. 1861, section 22, and July, 1862, section 13, the former imposing 30 and the latter 5 per cent.

The appellants further claim that the greater part of the article in question, being loose hair, and the material of chief value being leather, it is unfair to classify the article as a "manufacture of wool."

The experts of the customs have decided that the shoes in question are manufactured of hair, leather, and *wool*.

Shoes are not provided for by *name* in the existing tariff laws. The 2d subdivision of section 5, act of June 30, 1864, provides for a duty of 24 cents per pound, and 40 per cent ad valorem, "on clothing ready made, and *wearing apparel of every description* composed wholly or *in part of wool*, made up or manufactured wholly or in part by the tailor, seamstress, or manufacturer, except hosiery."

The article being "wearing apparel" composed "*in part of wool*," made up wholly by the manufacturer, and not of the class of wearing apparel known as hosiery, is clearly provided for in the provision just quoted.

Your decision is hereby affirmed.

I am, very respectfully,

W. P. FESSENDEN, Secretary of the Treasury.

To SIMEON DRAPER, Esq., Collector, New York.

SATINS—APPLICATION TO RE-OPEN A RE-APPRAISEMENT.

Treasury Department, October 22, 1864.

GENTLEMEN:

Your letter of the 8th inst. is received, asking permission to have a re-appraisement of certain satins imported by you re-opened.

The satins in question were imported in the steamers "Kedar" and "Marathon," were invoiced at 3.50 francs per aune, and were appraised by the local appraisers at 4 francs per aune, from which you appealed.

In the absence of the general appraiser from the port of New York, two experienced merchants, familiar with the character and value of the goods in question, were appointed to appraise the same, who, after an examination, reported the market value to be 3.90 francs, which exceeded by 10 per cent or more the value declared on the entry, thereby subjecting the satins to an additional duty of 20 per cent ad valorem, under the 23d section of the act approved June 30, 1864.

The law declares "the appraisement thus determined shall be *final*, and deemed and taken to be the true value of said goods, and the duties shall be levied thereon accordingly, any act of Congress to the contrary notwithstanding," and these appraisements should be considered final and conclusive, unless there are peculiar circumstances making them exceptional cases.

From the statement of the appraisers submitted by you, it does not appear that they regard the re-opening of the case necessary or proper; they merely express a desire that the penalty may be remitted.

I have no authority under the circumstances to order a re-opening of the re-appraisement, or to direct the remission of the additional duty.

It is a popular misapprehension to suppose that the imposition of the additional duty of 20 per cent under the 23d section above referred to, is evidence of fraudulent intent upon the part of the importer. This is far from being true. The real intent of the section is to protect parties innocent of any attempt to defraud the revenue, but who have not been sufficiently mindful of the laws, and whose neglect might otherwise entail the seizure and confiscation of their goods.

I am, very respectfully,

W. P. FESSENDEN, Secretary of the Treasury.

To A. PERSON & HARRIMAN, New York.

CLOTH GLOVES.

Treasury Department, October 25, 1864.

SIR:

Messrs. WINZER & TAILER have appealed, (No. 2,368¼,) under date of September 17, 1864, from your assessment of duty, at the rate of 40 per cent and 24 cents per pound, on certain "cloth gloves" imported by them per steamers "Bavaria" and "America."

It is understood that the gloves in question were originally reported by the appraisers as "woolen cloth gloves," and duties were assessed accordingly. The entries were finally liquidated on the 11th and 19th August, and the excess of the deposits made refunded to the importers, without any notice of dissatisfaction on their part.

It is true, as alleged by the appellants, that subsequently the appraisers adopted a different classification (viz.: "woolen hosiery") for similar goods, under which they became liable to 30 per cent and 20 cents per pound; but the appellants having omitted to protest and appeal, conformably to section 14 of the act approved June 30, 1864, from the decision of the collector on their importations per steamers "Bavaria" and "America," are not entitled to relief under said act.

Your decision is hereby affirmed.

I am, very respectfully,

W. P. FESSENDEN,
Secretary of the Treasury.

To SIMEON DRAPER, Esq.,
Collector, New York.

CARPETINGS--PENAL DUTY.

Treasury Department, October 29, 1864.

SIR:

Your appeal, (No. 1,936,) dated June 6. 1864, from the decision of the collector at New York, imposing the penal duty of 20 per cent and 50 per cent thereon, under joint resolution, on your importation of certain carpeting per "City of Cork," is received.

You state as follows: "On the 20th day of May I entered at the port of New York, through my attorneys, one bale of *samples* of Brussels and velvet carpets, which the appraisers advanced 58 per cent, claiming that they should have been invoiced at the same price as piece goods, less 10 per cent discount. Being in want of my samples, I could not wait the delay of re-appraisement; the collector delivered me the goods on payment of duties and penalty, which I have paid under protest, claiming that the duty, being specific—only a portion of the invoice paying more duty than at the prices entered—only this portion should be subject to penalty. Also, the resolution of Congress, passed April 29, assessing 50 per cent additional duty, does not apply to penalties, and that the penalty should be 20 per cent, and not 20 per cent with 50 per cent added, as I have been compelled to pay."

The question growing out of your appeal, to wit: Does the penal duty attach where goods are undervalued 10 per cent or more, but where such undervaluation does not affect the rate or amount of duty, has been most carefully examined.

The Solicitor of the Treasury, to whom it was referred, reports that, in his judgment, the question "must be answered in the affirmative in all cases where the article is one the duty on which is regulated by the value of the square yard or other parcel or quantity. Carpeting is such an article, inasmuch as it is subject to one rate of duty if worth less than a certain price per square yard, and to a different rate of duty if worth more than that price."

The collector at New York reports as follows: "The language of the law being 'that in *all cases* where the actual value to be appraised * * of any goods * * or *wherever the duty is regulated by* * * * *

the value of the square yard * * shall exceed by 10 per centum,' &c. The measure appears to be 10 per cent, not such a percentage as would change the classification."

I concur in the opinions above expressed, and hereby affirm the decision of the collector.

With regard to the imposition of the 50 per cent on the penal duty of 20 per cent, the collector at New York was instructed, under date of June 22, not to exact it, and you are consequently entitled to a refund of the amount so paid.

I am, very respectfully,

W. P. FESSENDEN,
Secretary of the Treasury.

To W. I. P. INGRAHAM, Esq.,
Philadelphia, Penn.

THE BOOK TRADE.

The Hand-Book of Dining; or, Corpulency and Leanness Scientifically Considered. By BRILLAT SAVARIN, author of the "Physiologie du Gout." D. APPLETON & Co., 448 and 445 Broadway, N. Y.

IT would, of course, be impossible to form any estimate of the numberless ills, aches, and ails the flesh is heir to, which arise solely and simply from an unwillingness to give a proper attention to the subject of diet. The stomach is a little laboratory, where all the various ingredients, compounded oftener with reference to the titillation of the palate than to the requirements of the body, meet together and commence a process of disintegration and reintegration, distilling, fermenting, and continually manufacturing those compounds, which permeate through every member, carrying health and life or disease and death, as the case may be. To find out how in this internal laboratory proper substances may be formed, and the formations of improper ones avoided, is the object of this little book, and certainly no inquiry can be more practically interesting to every one.

CONTENTS OF MARCH NUMBER.

[This number and engraving entered according to Act of Congress in the year 1865, by William B. Dana, in the Clerk's Office of the District Court of the United States, for the Southern District of New York.]

1. Hon. William Sturgis, of Boston. Engraving and Biography 169
2. Peace, Prices, and Prospects. By Hon. AMASA WALKER 181
3. Deep and Shallow Oil. By E. W. EVANS, of Marietta College 185
4. The Chinese in Cuba. HENRY B. AUCHINCLOSS, Esq 186
5. Commercial Law.—No. 19. Bankruptcy and Insolvency 193
6. Commerce of the United States for 1864 198
7. Commercial Chronicle and Review 205
8. Journal of Banking, Currency, and Finance 212
9. California.—Her Productions, Trade, etc., for 1864 219
10. Taxes and Revenue of England and France 227
11. Depression of Trade in Canada 228
12. A New Textile 229
13. Statistics of Trade and Commerce 230
14. Mining Statistics 241
15. Commercial Regulations 243
16. The Book Trade 248

THE

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE

AND

COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

APRIL, 1865.

THE HOUSE OF HAPSBURG IN AMERICA.

By Professor Andrew Ten Brook.

A castle built in the beginning of the eleventh century on an eminence overlooking the river Aar, in the Canton of Aargau in Switzerland, called the Castle of Hapsburg, was the residence of the Counts of that name. The member of the family who built this castle was Bishop of Strasburg, and he doubtless enjoyed many a day in the vicinity in pursuits and pastimes which the bishops of the present age do not deem quite consistent with their sacred functions, and which, to say the least, could contribute but slightly to the welfare of the flock. Some attempt to trace this family back to the Old Romans, and while no one doubts that it had an ancestry somewhere, even anterior to their day, yet the accuracy of the genealogy given may be questioned. The line is, however, traced with probability to the seventh and with certainty to the eleventh century; but the particular person of this house whose fame reached such a pitch of eminence as to make it known throughout the civilized world, was born in the year 1218 of our era, and is known in history as Rudolph of Hapsburg.

Our eccentric statesman, John Randolph, of Roanoke, is said to have replied to some members of the House of Representatives, who talked much of the advantage to posterity of their schemes of legislation, with the sarcastic question: "What has posterity ever done for us, that we should do so much for it?" This solecistic sarcasm contains much truth when applied to the subject of this sketch, for, great as is the deserved fame of Rudolph of Hapsburg, derived from his personal deeds and those of his ancestry, yet its lustre is augmented a hundred fold by the wonderful history of his posterity.

Rudolph's father followed the standard of the Emperor Frederic II., to whom he was distantly related. He finally caught the contagion of his time and determined to sail for the Orient. He called together his sons and said to them: "Be mindful that the Counts of Hapsburg did

not attain their height of reputation and glory by fraud, insolence and selfishness, but by courage and devotion to the public weal. As long as you follow their footsteps, you will not only retain, but augment, the possessions and dignities of your illustrious ancestors." He embarked at Marseilles with thirty barons in his train for Ptolemais, found on his arrival that a truce had been concluded with the Saracens, and, dying at Askalon, in 1240, his mortal remains found their resting place in the Holy Land.

RUDOLPH, by his own judicious management, extended his paternal inheritance on the Upper Rhine, and in the Swiss Cantons. His uprightness, his courage, and his infallible tactics as a military leader, created a demand for his services as protector of free cantons or cities, or as umpire in cases of dispute. His generosity, frankness, and contempt of etiquette when some higher purpose rose to view, made him a general favorite. As Count of Kyburg, a castle near Zurich, he had neglected to pay homage to the Abbot of ST. GALL, who claimed its lordship. The prelate marched with a force to exact this duty. RUDOLPH was ready with knights and infantry to repel the attack, when a message from his friends in Alsace informed him that the citizens of Basle, headed by their bishop, had, at the close of a tournament, massacred several of his relatives. He called his confidential followers and addressed them to the following effect: "I am drawn by my interests in one direction, and by the entreaties of my friends in another. I have refused homage to the Abbot for these fiefs, because they are my inheritance from my uncle. But if a man has two powerful enemies, he should be reconciled to one of them. If you agree with me that it is nobler to avenge injuries done to friends, than to pursue one's private advantage, let us make peace with the Abbot." They favored the measure, and proposed an arbitration. He replied: "There is no need of arbitration. The business must be settled at once, and I will be my own mediator." He rode with six attendants to the Abbot's camp, where he found the latter and his associates at dinner. His frank, gallant and noble bearing captivated them all, the quarrel was at once settled, and he was invited to dine with his enemy. He related at the table the sad issue of the tournament at Basle, and declared that he was compelled to neglect other considerations in order to avenge himself on these people and their Italian bishop. Such was the effect of his address, that the force which in a few hours would have met him in deadly conflict, became his allies. They compelled the citizens of Basle to deliver hostages in pledge of satisfaction, and concluded a truce of twenty-four days, and there, encamped under the walls of the city, they were waiting the expiration of the time. One night at midnight, RUDOLPH's nephew, FREDERIC of Hohenzollern, came to his tent with intelligence that the Electoral College of the Empire had made him King of the Romans. At first he deemed this a joke and an insult, but finally, satisfied of its truth, he gladly accepted the proffered dignity. The tidings spread. The people of Basle opened their gates, saying that they had "made war against the Count of Hapsburg, and not against the Roman king;" and the bishop made the not very reverent exclamation: "Sit firm, Lord God, or RUDOLPH will seize thy throne." *

* Sede fortiter, Domine Deus, vel locum RUDOLFUS occupabit tuum.

Various circumstances had determined the election of an insignificant Count over mighty kings. WERNER, Archbishop elect of Mentz, had made a journey to Rome, in order to receive confirmation and his pallium at the hands of the Pope. RUDOLPH had protected him by an escort through the Alps, then infested with robbers, and on his return magnificently entertained him. The prelate, deeply impressed with this behavior, resolved to reward it. Being one of the imperial electors, he had now the opportunity. RUDOLPH had marked personal qualities to recommend him. He was perhaps the greatest strategist of his age. He is supposed to have re-introduced pontoon bridges, which had been unknown from ancient times. His just, generous and noble traits fitted him to deal with that state of anarchy which had resulted from a virtual interregnum of more than twenty years—a state of things which contemporaries have aptly described in the words of Scripture: "In those days there was no king in Israel, and every one did that which was right in his own eyes." The other two spiritual electors were privately brought over to the views of the Cardinal Archbishop of Mentz. Other motives might control the temporal electors, and others were offered. RUDOLPH had six unmarried daughters. Such a possession has sometimes proved a fortune, and sometimes a source of torment. In this instance it was the former. Two of the electors were in a condition to form matrimonial alliances with the new candidate for the imperial dignity. RUDOLPH's friend and relative, FREDERIC of Hohenzollern, took it upon him to urge these views to the electors, who were also influenced by the fear that in the other candidates they were in danger of finding masters rather than correctors of existing abuses. They declared for RUDOLPH, and the electors of Brandenburg and Bavaria immediately married daughters of the Emperor.

OTTOCAR, King of Bohemia, at the time the most powerful monarch in the Empire, was of course displeased. During the long period of anarchy, he had by usurpation added to his kingdom of Bohemia and Moravia, the duchy of Austria, with Styria, Carinthia and Carniola. These lands had been declared by FREDERIC II. vacant fiefs of the Empire, hereditary in the Emperors. They embraced a tract extending from the spurs of the Carpathians on the north, through the Alps, to the Adriatic on the south. He was called upon to restore these lands and do homage for his own hereditary kingdom. This would have been humiliating on any supposition, much more so, if it is true, as maintained by some, that RUDOLPH had once been in OTTOCAR's service as master of his horse. The king refused compliance, and insulted the new emperor. He declared that the election of a man who had once been excommunicated by the Pope—for such was RUDOLPH's case—was unlawful. But, beaten in battle, the haughty sovereign yielded his claim to the other states, and consented to do homage for Bohemia, but besought that it might be in secret in the imperial tent. His request was granted, and he repaired thither all glittering in gold, and found the emperor in plain clothes—and the clothes revealed the men. In the midst of the ceremony, the sides of the tent were raised, so as to exhibit the proud OTTOCAR on his knees before his late despised rival. The wound was too deep to heal. The King of Bohemia soon broke the peace and fell in battle.

Thus the founder of that house which at the present day still reigns over the Austrian Empire, a scion of which has just been transplanted to

our own Continent, was established upon the throne of those lands which formed the nucleus of that Empire. His right was no more called in question. The whole empire felt his healing touch. His son ALBERT succeeded him in Austria, but not immediately on the imperial throne; for, unlike his father, he was of harsh and imperious temper and manners. He was, however, still raised to the throne of the Empire on the death of his father's immediate successor, ADOLPHUS of Nassau. It was in the reign of this ALBERT that the three forest Cantons of Switzerland—Uri, Schweitz, and Unterwalden—struck for independence, and gave rise to that marvelous history, which, as embodied in SCHILLER'S tragedy of WILLIAM TELL, has thrilled so many hearts, but which would, to this day, be very unpalatable to the Hapsburgs. RUDOLPH himself had held the patronage of these Cantons, but he humored their love of independence, and did not interfere in the details of their government, which ALBERT attempting to do gave rise to the Swiss Confederation, now five centuries old, and a perpetual protest against European despotisms. He was assassinated in the year 1308, by a conspiracy headed by his nephew, just as he was entering Switzerland to enforce his demand; and, seven years later, his son LEOPOLD was signally defeated by these Cantons in the battle of Morgarten.

Previous to the year 1457 the imperial dignity had been distributed among the reigning houses of the Empire; from that time it remained in the house of Hapsburg until 1804, when Austria itself assumed the rank of a hereditary empire. The house culminated in CHARLES V., who united in his own person Austria with its dependencies, the Netherlands and Franche Comté, Spain with her vast American possessions, and considerable territory in Italy, to all which was added the imperial throne, at the age of nineteen years. His grandfather, MAXIMILIAN, was his predecessor, and governed the Empire at that interesting period when LUTHER'S first movement broke its long though turbulent monotony. CHARLES succeeded him in 1519. A prince more powerful and politic never sat upon a throne. He kept faith only when counseled by policy. He knew his contemporaries. FRANCIS I. had been his rival for the Empire, and was still his competitor for European power. HENRY VIII. of England was the only sovereign able to turn the balance in his favor. He trampled upon etiquette in order to visit HENRY on his way to his own coronation. Wary and observing beyond his years, he perceived that WOOLSEY governed the English monarch and that ambition governed WOOLSEY; he accordingly promised the prelate that he should have the papal chair when it became vacant. The vacancy seemed distant, for LEO X. was still young, but he died soon. The promise, however, had served its end, and needed not therefore to be fulfilled, especially as the dignity could, as he thought, be more safely bestowed. LEO was succeeded, therefore, by ADRIAN BOYENS, Professor at Louvain, CHARLES' old tutor. He would have put down the Reformation at once, but he desired to hold it as a scourge over the Pope, and as a bait for the goodwill of the princes of the empire who favored the Reformers. His army in Italy seized the Pope's person, acting doubtless on his authority, but when he found the measure unpopular, he disavowed it, went in mourning, and ordered prayers for His Holiness' release. The Holy Father was soon at liberty, but the case was not decisive as to the efficacy of prayer. When he became ready to

put down the Reformation—that is, when it agreed with his plan to do so—he remorselessly seized the immediate successor of the very prince to whom he doubly owed his elevation—for the imperial dignity had first been offered to FREDERIC the Wise of SAXONY, who declined it, and caused it to be given to the youthful CHARLES. He subjected the Elector to a mock trial at the gates of Wittennberg, before the infamous Duke of ALVA, and made his life depend upon the opening of the gates by the Elector's family, who were within. He saved his life indeed, but gave his dominions to the Protestant Prince MAURICE, who promised to be his supple tool. He seized the Landgrave of Hesse, the only prince on the Protestant side who did not yield, and held him a perpetual hostage. He governed the States of Germany as if they had been his hereditary dominions. MAURICE proved, indeed, too shrewd for him, and was the first to beat him at his own game of dissimulation. He knew that CHARLES could not be trusted. He saw the imperial plans through their disguise, and having won his confidence, he obtained the command of the army, which was to have been used in enforcing the Interim,* that is in putting down the Reformation. MAURICE had, however, a private understanding with the Protestant Princes, and a secret treaty with HENRY II. of France, that the latter should enter Lorraine at the same instant that he should march against the Emperor. He managed so adroitly that CHARLES never entertained the slightest suspicion until he was within two hours march of Innsbruck, where His Imperial Majesty was quietly waiting and watching the progress of the Council of Trent, then in session on the other side of the mountains. Suffering from gout, and unable to ride, he escaped upon a litter, under cover of a dark and stormy night. He was thus borne through by-ways to the alpine village of Villach in Carinthia. Having narrowly escaped capture by his own army, he was, of course, ready to give the Protestants the free exercise of their religion by signing the treaty of Passau, which was brought to him in his mountain retreat. CHARLES never recovered from this shock. The Pope and the Catholic powers could not trust him; the Protestants of course could not; he made some ineffectual attempts to recover himself; but finally chagrin and the gout wrought together to bring him to the magnanimous resolution to resign his vast dominions and cares. On his accession to the Empire, he had given up Austria to his brother FERDINAND, and the Electors had appointed the latter to succeed him on the imperial throne. He tried several times to persuade his brother to relinquish this succession to his son PHILIP—the aggrandisement of his immediate family being his great motive, when the hope of his own was past—but when he found this impossible, and his imperious counsellors, gout and chagrin, pressed him sorely, he abandoned his honors and retired to the walls of a convent, where, like the dying wolf, he doubtless sought to find a balance against his many acts of arbitrary rapacity, in the many supposable ones which he had not committed. The review of the reign of this Hapsburg, and that of PHILIP II., has led the thoughtful student of history often to contem-

* CHARLES, assuming to control alike spiritual and temporal matters, got up a system of religious doctrine and church order, somewhere between those of the two parties, which was to be made obligatory until the final determinations of the Council of Trent could be known. This was called the "Interim."

plate with gratitude Europe's narrow escape from the scenes enacted on the narrower stage of the Netherlands, so finely portrayed by SCHILLER, and recently by our own MOTLEY. Even the reputation which his supposed austerity in the monastery of Yuste had won for him, has all been dissipated by the discovery of his correspondence, showing that even in that retreat, his time and faculties were divided between political scheming and gormandizing.

FERDINAND, by marriage with ANNE of Hungary, inherited that kingdom in 1526, together with Bohemia, Moravia, Silesia and Lusatia, and in this augmented dignity originated the title of Archduke, which still remains in the family. This extensive domain, with numerous additions, after various cessions and retrocession, continues in the family to this day. There is not in the whole civilized world another instance of so great diversity of character, language and religion crowded together within the same space. It is as if the period of the northern migrations had been a vast inundation, during which this whole range of country, permeated by the Danube, embracing the mountains and valleys of the eastern Alps, the Carpathians, the Giant and Pine mountains and Bohemian forests, had formed a series of innumerable eddies, in which this human drift of all kinds had been collected and whirled round until the waters subsided and left it all there, where it still lies not yet assimilated, nor likely to become so. The population of France, though as large as that of Austria, has become all French, with but slight mixture on the side of Germany and Italy. The two latter, though always under numerous independent governments, have each been one people in language and feeling, with a slight exception in eastern Prussia. In Germany and Italy independent sovereigns have striven to keep their subjects from becoming one, lest they should lose their thrones; but in Austria the one sovereign has made the most violent efforts, that too all in vain, to unite and harmonize his subjects.

Austria lay on the frontier of Europe, next to the Ottoman Empire. Its name, Oesterreich, the Eastern Empire, is significant. The germ of those dominions over which the Hapsburgs now reign, was formed in the time of CHARLEMAGNE, in the year 800, by a militia force which guarded the eastern frontier of his empire from the incursions of Asiatic tribes. Several centuries later it was increased by the territory above the river Enns, and became a duchy, around which continued, from time to time, to cluster the various lands which have finally made up the Austrian Empire, the whole taking the name which the little Margraviate had received as being the eastern limit of CHARLEMAGNE'S dominions.

Aggrandizement has been the motive of this family, just as of all other governments, both monarchies and republics, unless it be such as the Republic of San Marino, or the Duchy of Lichtenstein, which lie below the level where ambition figures. This idea is nowhere more active than in our own Republic, and none boast so loudly when traveling abroad of the extent, wealth and intelligence of their country as our own citizens. Each feels that he has a personal share in the toil and glory of this aggrandizement, while in Austria it belongs to the Hapsburgs, and the private person seldom feels his heart swell and expand with this thought.

The distinction, then, between the House of Hapsburg and any other sovereign power, is not to be sought in this desire for national aggrandizement, but in the principles and policy by which it is pursued. The

sovereigns of this family have been much governed by a policy of oppression and narrow-minded restrictiveness. Apparently changing with the changes in events, it has remained nearly unchanged. FERDINAND II. seemed more liberal than his brother CHARLES. We can scarcely doubt that he was so. But as a party to the treaty of Passau, he was moved by a feeling of jealousy of his brother's power, and by the necessity of the Elector MAURICE'S aid against the Turks in Hungary. As the bone in the wolf's throat was mercy to the lamb, so FERDINAND'S fears and necessities were liberality to the reformed party in the Empire. He received the Jesuits into his dominions, but did not adopt their counsels for the extermination of Protestantism. Similar causes dictated a similar policy until the opening of the thirty years war changed the aspect of things. The Protestant armies held the capital of Bohemia and threatened Vienna. Two hundred years had not killed out the seed sown by JOHN HUSS and his compeers. Indeed, the Protestants were the strongest party in Bohemia and the neighboring lands of Silesia, Lusatia, and Moravia, and were strong in the duchy of Austria itself, as also in Styria, Transylvania and Hungary, and were in open rebellion, already well-nigh triumphant. But by the battle of White Mountain, in 1620, Prague and all Bohemia fell into the hands of FERDINAND II., who but the year before had succeeded to his hereditory dominions and the imperial throne. This prince had been educated in the Jesuit College at Ingolstadt. His education but nourished the superstition of his nature, He gave the Jesuits the problem of bringing his Bohemian subjects back to the bosom of the church. They required the people to observe the church ritual. It was a short process of reduction to a common denominator, and the rule was quite distinct. Each family must appear in the church in an order to be regulated by their house numbers. To the charge of non-attendance they could plead that their number or their day was not that contained in the indictment, or something else equally decisive of their true religious state. Moreover, a military force accompanied the reformatory agents, and where submission could not be obtained, the scaffold settled the question. Confiscations and martyrdoms flung terror in all directions, and voluntary exiles deprived the kingdom of 30,000 of its best families, with all their servants and retainers, while their forfeited estates rewarded the agents of this desolation. As a still further reward, the Emperor endowed sixteen colleges for the Jesuits within his Austrian dominions. What body of men would not work well for such pay? The monarch rather than the missionary should be charged with the result. The Inquisition never acted with more rigor, nor was a policy more ruinous to a country's best interests ever pursued. Three-fourths of the people of Bohemia had been heretics, and their heresy was extinguished. Death was the lightest punishment inflicted. Far worse was the indiscriminate abandonment to the license of a soldiery who might gratify every lust and then turn their victims penniless upon the world to wander in hourly apprehension of further vengeance, forbidden to use their native language, to exercise their trades or professions, their marriages declared unlawful, and their children illegitimate. If any escaped the vigilance of these itinerant reformers in their first round—and this would doubtless occur from sheer weariness and satiety of the lusts of the agents—they had slight cause to congratulate themselves; for their tormentors might be expected to return with

appetites whetted to greater keenness. Bohemia had been perhaps, in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, more than any other land, the light of Europe, and its great light had been the University of Prague. FERDINAND gave this to the Jesuits, and its light was extinguished; and from being the first of Universities it has nearly lost its character as a seat of learning. This country had had a glorious history for more than two centuries before these events. Its written memorials were still to be found in many a house in the kingdom. All traces of this history were, so far as possible, obliterated, that the people might forget whose children they were, or rather what their fathers had done. Any monument of their former glory might become the rallying point of new aspirations, and none must therefore be left. Hence it has happened that the history of JOHN HUSS, JEROME of Prague, and JOHN ZISKA, had been, until within a few years, so imperfectly written. The flames which had consumed the bodies of the children, had destroyed also the memorials of their fathers' deeds. Few besides those which had already reached other countries, and were there preserved, escaped the fire. As printing was not yet known in the days of the Hussite war, these books were not greatly multiplied, and it is but recently that enough of these have been recovered to write this history with tolerable fullness. From the days of FERDINAND II., Bohemia has been scarcely known in the history of the world.

FERDINAND pursued the same general policy, though less vigorously in the rest of his dominions. He attempted to introduce it throughout the German Empire. He authorized the Catholic sovereigns of Germany to enforce their subjects' return to their own faith, as he had done. He published the so-called edict of restitution, requiring the restoration of all the ecclesiastical property which had been secularized since the peace of Passau. But he went too far. He awakened enemies who would otherwise have been his friends, or remained neutral. He aroused the apprehension of even Catholic sovereigns. The Catholic league headed by MAXIMILIAN of Bavaria, refused to sustain him, although he had rewarded this prince with the Palatinate which he had taken from the weak and unfortunate FREDERIC, son-in-law of JAMES I. of England. His grand plan was to exterminate protestantism, which he regarded as identical with rebellion. He looked upon any means necessary to the accomplishment of so beneficient a work as justified by the great end to be achieved. In attempting to negotiate with the electors of Saxony and Brandenburg, he represented the contest as not a religious one. In treating with Catholic France, he allowed the approaching war to be regarded as one demanded by the interests of the Church and depicted the common danger to France from the Hugenots, and the German empire from the Protestants. But his plans, if not fully penetrated, were still viewed with apprehension and even alarm. The German Catholic powers moved first. This emboldened the Protestants. They called upon FERDINAND in 1629 to convene a diet at Ratisbon. Here they insisted upon certain concessions, which, though humiliating, he granted, in the hope that his son would be immediately elected to succeed him on the imperial throne, CARDINAL RICHELIEU, jealous of the growth of the House of Hapsburg, sent thither an ambassador and outwitted His Imperial Majesty. The latter made the concessions, and *still* the diet was dissolved without his son's election.

At the very time that RICHELIEU was treating with FERDINAND, he was also closing a treaty with GUSTAVUS ADOLPHUS, King of Sweden, against the house of Austria, and in June, 1630, that wonderful man landed in Pomerania on the South shore of the Baltic. The Emperor despised, but soon learned to dread this new enemy; for before the close of 1631, all Bohemia was again in the hands of FERDINAND's enemies, the exiled nobles were returning and reclaiming their forfeited estates, the forced converts were resuming the forms of worship which they had been compelled to renounce, and this truest type of the Hapsburg family found himself involved in a war of which he was destined never to see the end. It had raged ten years, when instead of closing, its earnest realities were just about to commence. How little this man knew what trains he had set in motion! By reasonable moderation in 1620 he might have left his house in the enjoyment of a power and a splendor, nay, even a control in matters of religious faith, which his more liberal son would have loved in vain to establish in the peace of Westphalia, after 28 years more of the most desolating war that ever ravaged the extent of the German Empire. This war was the great theatre of the genius of GUSTAVUS ADOLPHUS, and his wise Chancellor OXENSTIERN—of Count TILLY, whose name is the best synonym for cruelty to the population of cities taken by siege—of WALLENSTEIN, not one of the greatest generals, but one of the most enigmatical characters, which has ever appeared as general. It was too a theatre for the display of the artful diplomacy of Cardinals RICHELIEU and MAZARIN. For this whole devastating and embittering struggle, FERDINAND II. was mainly responsible, and although MAXIMILIAN of Bavaria was head of the Catholic league, which generally co-operated with the Emperor, the latter was the soul of the war which began with his accession and continued 11 years after his death. The German Protestants have given the name of GUSTAVUS ADOLPHUS unions to their missionary societies formed to sustain feeble Protestant churches in Catholic lands. This is at least in bad taste; for GUSTAVUS was not the peaceful messenger of the glad tidings, but the martial defender of his party's rights. Neither party is at the present day disposed to put this question to the test of arms, but if they were so disposed, they could not rally under more appropriate names than those of GUSTAVUS ADOLPHUS for the one, and FERDINAND II. for the other.

These two men, were each in his way, equally devout. When the tide of a hard contested battle turned in his favor, the King of Sweden would drop upon his knees amid the unsettled dust and smoke and the bodies of the slain and return his fervent thanks to God for the victory. So FERDINAND, when in 1619 the Protestant forces, masters of Bohemia and Moravia and most of the duchy of Austria, were at the Gates of Vienna, with scarcely less than a certainty of its capture, BARTHOLOMEW VALERIUS, the Emperor's confessor, entered his private cabinet at the moment when he had finished his devotions, and FERDINAND said to him: "I have reflected on the dangers which threaten me and my family, both at home and abroad. With an enemy in the suburbs, sensible that the Protestants are plotting my ruin, I implored that help from God which I cannot expect from man. I had recourse to my Saviour, and said "Lord Jesus Christ, thou Redeemer of mankind, thou to whom all hearts are opened, thou knowest that I seek thy honor and not my own. If it be thy will that I,

in this extremity, should be overcome by my enemies, and be made the sport and contempt of the world, I will drink of the bitter cup. Thy will be done!" I had scarcely spoken these words before I was inspired with new hope, and felt a full conviction that God would frustrate the designs of my enemies."

His life was consistent with this prayer. He bore adversity with the fortitude of a saint. His arrogance in prosperity was but a different manifestation of the same feeling. An affected or real humility fostered by his educators, led him to admit the poor and even beggars to his presence, and that too though they might be infected with the plague. He got up entertainments for the poor and served them himself. He purchased Christian slaves from their African masters. He hired advocates at his own expense for the needy before courts of justice. And yet his was the age marked in the history of Germany above all others for cruelty in religious persecution, and he the man personally responsible for it. That a man of so mild and clement a natural disposition could cherish at the same time the cruel feelings which wasted the fairest lands of his Empire, is a mystery which can only be solved by studying the times, the strong antipathies and bitterness which arose from LUTHER and the Reformation, and the strong and thoroughly organized counter-movement directed by the Society of Jesus. In this, FERDINAND II. stands revealed. The reign of this monarch has been fully sketched, because he is a kind of type of his house since the Reformation, including even its present representative, FRANCIS JOSEPH I. The others have only been less marked and extravagant instances of that superstitious, narrow-minded and bigoted policy, which had its highest manifestation and received its great rebuke and final check in the German Empire in FERDINAND II. Since his days this policy has reigned only at home within the Austrian dominions, and even there has been more modest.

The reader is to understand that we picture persons, or at most dynasties and not Catholics or Catholic sovereigns in general. How have the liberal Catholics of Italy and of the whole continent of Europe regarded the policy of the House of Hapsburg, both at home and in the Italian peninsula? In 1848 the Grand Duke LEOPOLD of Tuscany promised his people a constitution and a liberal government and began the execution, when the house of Hapsburg forbade and stopped the movement. In the spring of 1861 we heard Dr. DOELLINGER, of Munich, who has very few equals among Catholic divines, lecture on the temporal power of the Pope. He is marked with the ultramontane school, and yet he remarked that of all the *possibilities* in regard to the future of Italy, the restoration of Austria's ascendency was most undesirable.

(To be continued.)

THE LEGAL TENDER ACT.

By Albert Stickney, Esq.

The Legal Tender Act of February 25, 1862, has been by several of the State courts pronounced constitutional. Very possibly the Supreme Court of the United States will also pronounce it constitutional. Yet even then, if men generally feel certain that the measure was an unwise one, and doubtful whether or not it was a constitutional one, any resort in the future to such means for providing Government funds might be prevented. The subject is not therefore, even though it is well nigh put at rest for the present by decision, devoid of interest for discussion.

The act provides that the Treasury notes therein authorized to be issued, commonly called Greenbacks, "shall be lawful money and a legal tender in payment of all debts, public and private, within the United States, except duties on imports and interest as aforesaid," *i. e.*, interest on the public debt.

Is this act constitutional?

The 10th amendment to the Constitution reads thus: "The powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States respectively, or to the people." This then is clear; the power, to be vested in the Congress of the United States, must be "delegated" to Congress by the Constitution.

Not as was the case with the Congress under the old confederation, there were given to Congress under the new Constitution all the powers which naturally belong to the legislative body of a genuine government. There are the powers "to raise armies," "to provide a navy," and lastly the power "to make all laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into execution" the other expressly granted powers. For the execution of these powers of a national government, raising armies, maintaining a navy, constituting courts, and others, money must be had. This power to pass a Legal Tender Act, if brought or attempted to be brought, under the power "to raise armies," must come under some of the powers to *raise money for the purpose* of raising armies. If brought, or attempted to be brought, under the power to "maintain a navy," it must come under some of the powers to *raise money for the purpose* of maintaining a navy. And these powers of *raising money* are specially defined and given. Under some of these *money powers*, then, must we find the power to pass this Legal Tender Act, or not at all. And if we do not find it at all under them, it does not exist.

These money powers given by the Constitution to Congress are these: "To lay and collect taxes, duties, imposts, and excises;" "to borrow money on the credit of the United States;" and "to coin money, regulate the value thereof, and of foreign coin." These are the only powers given to Congress, under the Constitution, for the purpose of raising money for carrying on the general Government. They will be considered, not in the order in which they are enumerated in the Constitution, but in the order which suits the course of argument here pursued.

The first one is the coinage power, reading in the Constitution "to coin money and regulate the value thereof." And this clause alone will be first considered.

At common law, before the Constitution was formed or dreamed of, coined metals had always been recognized as money; *i. e.*, metals weighed and stamped by the authorities having the power so to weigh and stamp them. Other articles, too, may have been at times legally or illegally considered to be money. That is immaterial to us at present. Coined metals were so considered. Courts of equity, when they decreed damages, in cases where courts of law would not decree them, always decreed damages in money. But it was necessary to have the standard of money uniform. The Constitution then did not touch the point of what should *be* money; coined metals already were so; nor did it give Congress power to touch the point of what should *be* money; but the Constitution gave Congress the power to coin what already was money; *i. e.*, to weigh and stamp the metals which, without any congressional action at all, were money already, and to regulate the value of them after they were so weighed and stamped. It is not then by virtue of the Constitution, or of Congressional legislation, that gold and silver coin *are* money, but *being* money, Congress has by the Constitution power to coin them and regulate their value after they are coined.

Nor is it by virtue of Congressional legislation that gold and silver are legal tender. Gold and silver, being at common law money, were at common law legal tender for contracts to pay money, and the payment of money was always decreed as damages by courts of law. The Constitution recognized this, and under the Constitution they still remained legal tender for contracts to pay money, and still remained the article in which courts were to decree damages. But of course the power must be some where to coin this money, and regulate the value at which it shall be legal tender, and at what rate courts of law shall decree its payment as damages, and this is the power given to Congress. Congress never in its legislation, whatever it may be said to have done, made gold and silver coin legal tender. Witness the titles of the acts it has passed. "An act *establishing a mint* and *regulating the coins* of the United States." The title of the act shows the intention of the legislation, and the act accomplished what the title showed the intention to be; and what the act accomplished Congress had the power to accomplish, and no more.

It seems clear then, if the preceding statement be correct, that under this clause of the Constitution no claim can be made as to the power of Congress to *make* paper money, or to do anything but "coin" money. But there is good authority for this statement. In the case of HAGUE *v.* POWERS, 39 Barb. 446, Judge SMITH in an opinion sustaining the constitutionality of the Legal Tender Act, says: "These two provisions construed together, most conclusively show, I think, that it was the purpose of the framers of the Constitution to give to the national Government exclusive control of the currency of the country, and to secure thereby one currency for the whole country, one national uniform currency. But that currency most evidently was to be a *metallic one.* * * * The national Government is to *coin* money, [the italics are in the original opinion,] *i. e.*, to fix the *national stamp* upon metals which are to be used as *money.* * * * The *money of the Constitution* was to be *hard money, metallic money.* It was to be *coined.*"

Still although we may succeed in establishing as a point of constitutional construction, and it is nothing more, that the power to make

Treasury notes legal tender can not come under this power "to coin money," yet another position is often taken which deserves notice. It is often claimed that the power to create money, or as it is called, "the control of the currency," is an inherent attribute of sovereignty. This may be true. But the question then occurs, is Congress "sovereign?" By the term "sovereign," as in this argument used, must be understood a government not merely supreme in the exercise of those powers which it possesses, but unlimited in the number of those powers. But it is not of such a government that Congress is the legislative assembly. The United States Government is supreme in the exercise of its powers, but the number of those powers is not unlimited. They exist only when conferred by the Constitution, and because conferred by the Constitution. The question then is not whether the power to create currency is a power belonging to a sovereign government, but whether it is a power belonging to this constitutionally created Congress. Whether the founders of the Constitution ought to have given Congress the power to create a currency is very different from the question whether they have given it, and this last is one of interpretation merely. The power to provide punishments for crimes is certainly a sovereign power, if there be such an one. Yet no one claims that Congress has this power, except in a very few constitutionally defined cases. Our inquiry must be, not what are sovereign powers, but what are congressional powers; and not what are unconstitutional acts of Congress, but what are constitutional powers of Congress. Chief Justice REDFIELD in a note in the *American Law Register*, for January, 1865, in favor of sustaining the act, says, "It seems to us, *upon any ground* of *a priori* reasoning *fairly conducted*, it was very obvious no such power as to create a legal currency and legal tender out of their own bills of credit was given." But on what other ground of reasoning is the Constitution to be interpreted than "a *priori* reasoning fairly conducted?"*

Nor will any one claim that this act is an exercise of the power to "lay and collect taxes, duties, imposts, and excises." In so far as it made United States taxes payable in these Treasury notes, it might be an exercise of this power; for Congress when laying a tax can undoubtedly say in what these taxes shall be paid. But the point now under consideration is not the making these notes legal tender for dues to the Government, but legal tender for dues from one individual to another.

We come then to the power "to borrow money on the credit of the United States." And if the act in question, that is, the part of it making Treasury notes legal tender for private debts to private individuals, can be brought under this power, it will stand. If it cannot be so brought, it would seem that it must fall. And here some points will at once be admitted as now beyond question, and which will clear our ground before us.

Congress has undoubtedly power to issue United States securities. The power "to borrow" surely gives, as a "necessary means," the power to give

* Immediately following this quotation Judge R. gives an argument in favor of the validity of the act, on another ground, which is not at present alluded to. This quotation is made for the one purpose which it here serves, not for the purpose of attacking Judge R.'s argument.

to the lender a certificate of indebtedness. The word "borrow" must include obtaining money from a lender, and parting with a liability to repay it. No one would pretend that Congress could not issue or authorize to be issued a certificate of this liability and a promise to pay interest, at any rate they think best.

Congress has, too, the power to say that these securities shall be received in payment of debts due to the Government. They can make a tax or duty payable in anything they choose; in gold, silver, copper, or paper. HAGUE *v.* POWERS, 39 Barb. 450.

Congress might, too, as far as any constitutional law is concerned, say it would use these securities with which to pay all the Government's own debts to private or public parties; for, under the Constitution, the only way to obtain money is by "appropriations made by law." Congress need not appropriate money unless it please. They have the sole power, in their discretion, to order the payment of United States monies; and, as a mere point of law, independently of the justice of the matter, they need pay United States debts only at their pleasure, and in any thing that may to them seem good.

But all these are plain and legitimate performances of congressional powers. If Congress deem it necessary to obtain money by borrowing, no one doubts that they may by an act authorize an officer of Government to negotiate a loan, to engrave securities therefor, to issue them, to promise to pay interest on these securities, to determine their denominations, and generally to provide all means proper for effecting a loan. But when the "borrowing" has been provided for, the power of Congress ceases. They can go no farther. After the money is borrowed, and the security issued, and after Government has parted with all its property in the security to the individual who has loaned the money, is not the borrowing finished? Can Congress then, by legislation, constitutionally say at what price this private individual shall sell that security? The security is his. Government has no longer any right in it. Judge DENIO in an opinion, not yet printed in the Reports, in the case of MEYER *v.* ROOSEVELT in the Court of Appeals of New York, says, "Was it ever before supposed to be incident to the contract of loan, that the rights of other persons, strangers to the transaction, were to be controlled or affected?" Can such a piece of legislation be justly called a necessary means to the act of borrowing?

But suppose it granted that Congress can fix the price at which these securities shall be bought and sold. Can they do more than that? The authority to "borrow" means an authority to receive money from a voluntary lender, and to give him security therefor. Does it include the authority to affect the rights of third parties? When the money is obtained and the security parted with, is not the act complete? Is it even the same thing as regards those securities, to regulate their price in money, and to make them money? Is it a necessary means to this act of borrowing, to compel a private individual, not the lender, to lose part of the debts due him, by allowing contracts to be performed contrary to their terms? Judge DENIO, in the opinion before cited, says of this power of borrowing, and of the making Treasury notes legal tender, "But it is a step far beyond this to require that all persons shall receive them in payment of all manner of obligations. This has no natural relation to the

contract of borrowing." "Either the borrower or the lender may insist on any stipulation to which the other will consent, and when the former is a sovereign State, it may agree to any concessions on its own part not inconsistent with its constitutional limitations, and insist upon imposing any terms upon the lender which it may be thought expedient to require, and to which he will consent. The arrangement of these mutual stipulations embraces all which is material, or which can be appropriately attached to the contract of loan. A provision which is to *control other parties not connected with the transaction*, to their loss, though to the advantage of the lender, cannot be appropriate, for it is foreign to the nature of the transaction, and has never before been employed in connection with such arrangements. * * * * As to being *needful*, *requisite*, or *essential*, it is not so in any sense which would enable the Government to impose on the citizens who should have business relations with the holders of the securities, conditions which would only conciliate such holders."

But does this provision, making the notes legal tender, hinder depreciation, regulate the price at which the securities shall be bought and sold, or have any tendency so to do? All legislation tending to restrain and control the ordinary course of trade, to more than a very slight extent, is generally evaded. But suppose that any legislation Congress might adopt for that object could be strictly enforced, and suppose such legislation to be constitutional. We might then allow that Congress could pass an act providing punishment for any one selling United States securities below their par value. Or we might allow that Congress could pass an act imposing a tax on all sales made below their par value of United States securities; a tax equal in amount to the difference between the price and the par value of the bonds. These would be acts of legislation, whether wise or constitutional, it matters not at present, at least looking directly towards the point to be gained. Of such acts there would be no doubt of the object.

But what is the result, which, from the nature of the case, necessarily would be gained, and which, as facts have shown, actually has been gained by making Treasury notes legal tender? Of course, if these notes depreciated, they would be tendered in payment of all debts and obligations incurred before the passage of the act. This would be certain. What other result possibly could happen? Would the depreciation of the notes be prevented? Men buy corporation stock and pay for it its market price, and no more. Men buy a private individual's note, and pay for it its market price, and no more. And men buy a nation's note, and pay for it its market price, and no more. After they have bought it, they will pay a debt with it, provided they can gain anything by it. But that will not make them pay any more for it than its market value. If Government issue so many bonds, or manage its finances in any point whatever, in such a manner that the commercial world thinks the chances are about one in two that the bonds will be paid, men will give about fifty cents on a dollar for them. This it is that determines their market value, and not the fact that they can be used to discharge debts. Men will not give par for the note of an individual when they think the chances are doubtful whether it will be paid. Nor will they give par for a nation's note, when they think, for any reason, there is the same doubt. After they have bought

these Government notes, they will undoubtedly pay their debts with them, if they can; but they will not, for that reason, pay a dollar for an article that they can buy for fifty cents.

Moreover, what had been the fate of every other scheme of the kind! It had been tried in France and failed. It had been tried in the American Revolution and failed. And where had it ever succeeded?

It was certain, from the nature of the case, that Government bonds could not be hindered from depreciating simply by making Treasury notes legal tender. No other result could have been forseen than the one which actually happened. Any intelligent merchant would have told Congress that this must be so. Any man, who had ever read a work on Political Economy, would have told Congress it must be so. Almost any school boy would have told them that it had been so. The paper would not, by being made legal tender. be hindered from depreciating, but creditors would thereby be deprived of their just dues. This last result was sure to follow, and it was sure that no other result would follow.

In the case of HAGUE *v.* POWERS, 39 Barb. 451, the court say, "If the argument is sound that Congress has power to authorize the issue of treasury notes, and to pay them out to public creditors, who will voluntarily receive them as a substitute for money, and that they are valid public securities, I cannot see why it does not follow, as a matter of course, that it has power, if the occasion will justify so extraordinary a measure, to declare their commercial value." It is as a measure to hinder depreciation, and, consequently, as a measure to the exercise of the power of borrowing money, that the legal tender act is often supported, and in this light alone we are now discussing it. If Congress intend to pass an act which shall be an exercise of the power to raise armies, it must provide some means necessary for the purpose of raising armies: it must provide for furnishing arms, or ammunition, or commissary stores, or quarter master's supplies, or for raising men. If Congress intend to pass an act in the exercise of the power to maintain a navy, it must provide for building dock-yards, making ship's guns, or iron plates, or something necessary for the purpose of maintaining a navy. It must be really fitted to accomplish the object which Congress has the power to accomplish. And if they pass a measure which depends for its validity on its hindering depreciation in United States securities, they must not pass a measure which very many men could have told them never would have that effect, which very many men could have told them never had had that effect when it had been tried, and which surely would have the effect of taking a certain amount of money from one individual and giving it to another, and no other. This act does not hinder depreciation. It could not hinder depreciation. It may be a certain convenience for Government to provide a paper currency for the country, and Government undoubtedly does raise a certain amount of money by the use of this legal tender. But it raises this money not by borrowing it, but by creating it; and this power of *creating* money never was given by the Constitution to Congress; and the framers of the Constitution, wisely judging that the exercise of this power by any branch of a government, was disastrous, not only did not give the power to Congress, but expressly prohibited it to the States.

A point of history may throw some light on our question. Consider what was the state of affairs under the articles of confederation, and what

money powers consequently then were necessary, and what was the state of affairs under the present Constitution, and what money powers consequently then became necessary. Under the old confederacy there was no executive; there was no judiciary. The confederacy might engage in war, and it was the very purpose of its creation that it should engage in war. Consequently it would need money. Could it lay taxes? No. "Charges of war, and all other expenses which shall be incurred for the common defence or general welfare, and allowed by the United States in Congress assembled, shall be defrayed out of a com mon treasury, *which shall be supplied by the several States.* * * * * The taxes for paying that proportion shall be laid and levied by the authority and direction of the legislatures of the several States, within the time agreed upon by the United States in Congress assmbled." Then the articles continue: Congress shall have power "to ascertain the necessary sums of money to be raised for the service of the United States, and to appropriate and apply the same, to borrow money, or emit bills on the credit of the United States." The United States Congress then could ascertain the sums of money necessary to be raised, and the States were to raise the money, after Congress had determined the amount, if they so pleased. What could such a Government do? Or rather, what could such a deliberative council do, for Government there was none. They could not raise money by force. The only powert hey had, as far as raising money was concerned, was the power to *borrow.* Consequently it was a measure of absolute necessity to give them the power of *making* money; and this power was given to them. Without it they would have been penniless. With it they became bankrupt. And in consequence of the ruinous effects, which resulted from having no Government, with the power of *making paper money*, the founders of the Constitution determined to alter the policy, and have a real government, with the power of *raising money by taxes.* WASHINGTON, in his Farewell Address, said: "towards the payment of debts there must be revenue; to have revenue, there must be taxes." "Cherish puhlic credit. One method of preserving it is to use it as sparingly as possible." And Mr. LANGDON said in the debates on the adoption of the Constitution, that he would rather reject the whole plan than retain the words "and emit bills of credit." What change then did they make?

In the first place they made a Government, instead of a persuading council; they created an executive and judiciary, as well as a legislature.

They gave to the legislature of this Government the power of "coining money"; not of making money, but of coining what already was money. They gave them, too, the powers to "raise armies," to "maintain a navy," to "provide for calling out the militia," and the ordinary powers of a strong general government. For the execution of these powers, of course a great amount of money would be necessary. And the Constitution states distinctly how this is to be obtained.

The first way indicated is "to lay and collect taxes, duties, imposts and excises" to any extent that Congress may deem necessary and wise; to the extent of all the property in the United States. Congress have under this clause the power to take every dollar of money, and every piece of property in the country, if they think it wise.

If Congress cannot raise enough money by this means, or do not deem

it wise to raise all the money they need in this manner, then there is the second way, viz: to "borrow" money.

Are not these two powers as great as can possibly be given to any Government, even in conceivable terms? Can greater power be given to a Government than the power to take every dollar of property in the country, and then in addition, to borrow all that any one in the world will lend them?

Here then are the two means given to Congress of providing funds for Government use: the one to *raise* money, and the other to *borrow* money. But where is the power to *create* money?

When in the preamble of the Constitution, the object of the formation of the Constitution is declared to be, "to provide for the common defence, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity," it is not thereby intended, that for the furtherance of this object, every power is by the Constitution given, which, in the opinion of any of the officers or departments of the Government thereby created, may be adapted to the attainment of that object. Else what would be the use of adding anything to the preamble? Why should the Constitution go on and define any special powers at all? Or what would be the meaning of the clause stating that "the powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution * * * * are reserved to the States respectively, or to the people?" But the preamble merely, in general terms, states the objects to be obtained, and the following parts of the same Constitution specifically provide the means for the attainment of those objects. The delegation of specific powers for the attainment of an object is always a strong presumption that no other powers are given.

It being then, without question, that money is needed and can be raised, for the purpose of carrying on the Government, it is also a fair supposition that, particular ways of raising money being given, they are the only ways given.

The framers of the Constitution expressly said, that all the powers of the general Government were to be found in that instrument; that no power not found there had any existence. Suppose, then, that the power to raise armies had never been given. No one would claim its existence. Suppose the power to maintain a navy had never been given. No one would claim its existence. Mere incidental subsidiary powers would not be specifically mentioned. Powers, which are merely necessary means for the exercise of more broad and general powers, would not be specifically delegated. No one expects it. But the great important powers of a Government would surely not be omitted, if they were meant to be conferred. These powers never are omitted. A man would as soon think of making a promissory note, and omitting the number of dollars which he was to pay.

Now consider a point of fact, that the issuing of a paper currency, so far from being an ingenious device of wise statesmanship, now first known to the world, or a useful and necessary means for borrowing money, always has been, and before the Constitution was formed, had been, at all times since there has been such a thing as financial history, the ordinary resort of a Government in financial troubles. Consider that the French revolutionists tried it, that our own confederacy tried it, that it was felt by all men to have been the greatest evil of the Revolutionary war, that, moreover, so far from considering the act of making legal tender the same thing as coining

money, or borrowing money, they had a special phrase for it, viz: "emit bills of credit," which they had always used to designate this ruinous measure, consider that this phrase had been used in the old articles of confederation, that it is used in the present Constitution, and then will any man deny that on principles of sound construction we must hold, that such a power if meant to be conferred, would have been enumerated specifically in the regular term of the time, as "emitting bills of credit," and that the power, would in those words have been inserted among the powers of Congress? Whereas, do we find it? And do we not know that so far from its being put into the Constitution, it was stricken out, after it had been put into the first draft of it?

But even if it be clearly made out that this Act of Congress does not hinder depreciation, it will still be claimed that the making Treasury notes legal tender inevitably causes a certain amount of them to be absorbed, and thus puts it in the power of Government to obtain a certain amount of money, by issuing them and giving them this quality. Undoubtedly, Government does raise money in this way. But in so doing, they do not raise the money by "taxing." They do not raise it by "borrowing." No one invests money in these legal tender notes which bear no interest. No one makes loans on them. Enough of them are taken up to use as currency. They are made money. The price of United States bonds remains what it would be were there no legal tender notes. Men give for them what they think them worth. The only effect produced is that we use Treasury notes instead of gold and silver for money. Government may get money by this means. So it might by seizing it without any legal process. The point is met by what has already been said, that the Constitution has provided ways of raising money, ample and sufficient. This way was one well known, universally designated by a particular phrase, had been used in the articles of confederation, in common speech, and actually is used in the Constitution itself, and yet this way of raising money is not mentioned among those authorized, but was proposed to be mentioned, and was left out. This can come in, as a necessary incident to the power of borrowing money, only in case it can be shown to be something directly auxiliary to the obtaining a loan. It cannot be shown to be anything of the kind. Undoubtedly this proceeding puts a few hundred millions into the hands of Government. But does it do it in a constitutional way? The old confederacy, being merely a league, having no power to act on individuals, being merely a persuader of State governments, needed such a power as the power to emit bills of credit. They could not get along without this ruinous make-shift. But under the Constitution, the state of things was entirely changed. Here was a powerful Government, with the power of taxing individuals, and the power of borrowing what it could not raise by taxing. What more could be asked? This put at the command of Government every cent in the country, and as much more as any one out of the country would lend them. Is there anything more that a Government could conceivably get? And this the Government has.

One effect this Legal Tender Act certainly has. It makes contracts and obligations performable in a manner utterly at variance with their letter, and the intent of their makers, and a portion of the property of creditors is by this Act arbitrarily transferred to their debtors. This effect it has, and this only. Are not the debts due a man as much his property as his real

estate, both in law and in common sense? And unless authority for this Act is given by the Constitution, is not its passage simply a "depriving of property without due process of law?" The Constitution says private property shall not be taken for public use, except with just compensation; but this is taking private property for private, use without any compensation. In some remarks in the *American Law Register* for February, 1865, some examples are given, of cases where great inconvenience results, from holding legal tender notes to be the equivalent of gold and silver. These examples are given by a writer who supports the constitutionality of the Act of Congress. He says: "It is easy to put cases not unlikely to arise, where the doctrine that coin and Treasury notes are for all purposes legally identical, and that judgement can only be for so many dollars, payable in whatever the law has made legal tender at the option of the debtor, would work positive injustice, where there exists great difference in their market value." But can any one put a case of a contract or obligation, made before the Act, where it does not work positive injustice? The writer says: "Suppose I leave $1,000 in gold coin on special deposit, and my bailee converts it." Or suppose I left $1,000 in convertible bank notes before anything but gold and silver were legal tender. Again, "suppose I loaned $1,000 in gold, and the borrower agrees to return it in kind." Or, suppose I loan him $1,000 in convertible bank bills, and he agreed before the Act to repay me, which was a promise to pay gold. Does the passage of the Act ever work anything but injustice, as far as it has any effect at all? The only effect it has, is on contracts made before the passage of the Act, and on all these, is not the effect one of injustice, and nothing else?

Arguments against the Legal Tender Act are, now-a-days, generally viewed by many men with distrust. They are supposed, generally, to be written with partisan motives, with a design to embarrass the Administration, and by that means to embarrass the Government. This paper is written under a firm conviction, that much injustice to private individuals would have been avoided, and that the financial position of the Government would have been much stronger to-day, had the Legal Tender Act not been passed, and that the passage of the Act was unconstitutional. Though it is too late now to undo what has already been done, and though a return to another policy must, to be safe, be very gradual, yet the temperate expression of honest thoughts on this subject may have some influence in case the nation should, at any future time, be placed in need of large amounts of money to meet its wants.

HON. THURLOW WEED.

By Matthew Hale Smith.

Mr. Weed is one of the influential men in the Union, a Warwick in politics, though far advanced in life, like the Law Giver of Israel on Nebo, his eye is not dim nor his natural force abated. His political home for years, has been at the Astor House, in the City of New York. He has occupied one room for a quarter of a century. It is on the lower floor near the ladies parlor. Around it clusters more influence than any room in the nation, except the President's room at the White House. Mr.

WEED seems never at rest. He flits in and flits out. He comes in and goes out as if driven by business which could not be stayed or resisted.

He passes away in the evening train and comes back with the early morning light. He walks into the dining-room; but before his presence is really noticed, he has concluded his meal and gone. His tone is subdued and low, speaking but seldom. A degree of quietness and even secrecy seems to mark all his movements. He walks about the corridors with a cat-like step, rarely speaking to any one, rarely being spoken to. Moving with so quiet and subdued a mien, that his presence at once attracts attention and causes visitors to ask: "Who is that gentleman?" He seldom speaks loud. He recognizes any civility, but rarely says anything. His resemblance to clergymen is so marked, that his opponents sometimes put "Rev." to his name. His figure is tall, he stoops slightly, his head inclines to one side after the manner of Mr. BUCHANAN. His rooms are the headquarters of the conservative elements of the land without regard to party. Few men of fame or position visit New York, without visiting him. He is keen, far-sighted and practical. Not what he wants to do, but what he can do, is the principle that guides him. When his party follow his lead it is successful; when it gets tired of following, weary of what it calls dictation, and disposed to be free, throws off—like REHOBOAM of old—the counsel of the wise, disaster follows. Without office emoluments or gifts to bestow, he has more influence in the great events of the day than any other man. A telegraph comes to him in cypher, he takes the night train for Washington; before his arrival is fairly announced, he is back to his old quarters. In like manner he is summoned to Albany, and is closeted with the powers that be. Plans for reorganizing the rebel States—the conservative movement for conducting the next Presidential campaign—influences that agitate Congress, and knock into pie the well known schemes of politicians—who shall be senator or foreign minister—who shall go into the Cabinet, and who shall stay out, are agitated and perfected in the little chamber which forms the New York room of THURLOW WEED. More than once a distinguished Cabinet officer has reached New York at an early hour in the morning, before the people were astir, remained quietly all day in consultation with the astute Statesman, and left at night with the great metropolis profoundly ignorant of the visit.

He began his public career as an editor in Rochester. He bought the half of an interest in a small paper and worked it up to a paying success. The Anti-Masonic excitement was abroad. Mr. WEED admitted into the columns of his weekly some articles denouncing the arrest and death of MORGAN. This, with an article which he wrote himself, stirred society to its depth and brought ruin to his craft. As he had sunk the little craft, with that justice that has ever marked his career, Mr. WEED bought out his partner's interest and resolved to start an independent paper in Albany. He became early and intimately attached to WILLIAM H. SEWARD. The two formed a mighty power. The one earned laurels on the field, the other wore them; and for thirty years the pair have guided the legislation of the nation and disposed of its patronage at will. Mr. SEWARD, when Governor of the State, was riding with a stage driver, that he might enjoy his segar. Curious to know who his quiet puffing companion was, JOHNNY said, "Captain, what are you?" "Guess," was the reply. "A farmer?"

"No." "A merchant?" "No." "A minister?" "No." "Well what then?" "Governor." "Governor of what?" "Of this State." "I guess not." "Inquire at the next tavern." Driving up Mr. SEWARD asked the proprietor, "Do you know me?" "Yes!" "What is my name?" "SEWARD." "Am I Governor of New York?" "No, by thunder, THURLOW WEED is."

Mr. WEED's power is in his heart no less than in his brain. He never forgets, deserts, nor neglects a friend, however humble or unfortunate. He is as polite and considerate to an illiterate breakman or to a domestic as he is to a member of Congress. There is not a boy or man on the Hudson River or New York Central Roads, that does not love him. One of the conductors said that Mr. WEED could send a glass vase to Galena by the railroad boys without having it broken. "They would carry it in their hands for the old man and quarrel for their turns." He pays liberally for all favors and has a strange way of attaching men to him. His private munificence to the lowly and indigent is unbounded, and thousands of eyes moisten at the mention of his name. No amount of exposure or inconvenience will keep him from befriending one whom he wishes to serve. He has been know to wait hours at night in the Central depot to meet some friend from the interior who had asked to see him there.

A single incident will illustrate Mr. WEED's kindness of heart. While busily engaged on a pressing matter in his rooms, a Senator sent in his card. "Tell him I am very much engaged, but will see him," naming the hour. The card of a Governor was sent in, to which he gave a similar reply. Soon a knock was heard at the door. "Open the door, George," he said to his companion. The door was opened; a negro man stood outside, trembling. Mr. WEED knew him well. He knew that nothing but stern necessity drew him to his door. In his tenderest tones he bade him come in, pushed aside his paper, heard his story, gave him twenty minutes of his precious time, gave him a little money, granted his request, which was better than all, and sent him on his way rejoicing. He had no time for a Senator or a Governor; had time and money for an indigent negro, who at the same time was a fugitive slave. He is one of the best conversationalists in the country. His eye kindles, his face glows, and though at times slow to talk, acts with power. His life touches the highest and the lowest. None can fail to be impressed with its wonderful volume, so noble in its faculties, so infinite in its resources. In the nation he will always remain a power. So wise, practical, with such unbounded political knowledge, few are willing to oppose him or offend him. The "Old Man wants it," is enough to carry almost any measure. Few men have been as loved in their own home. Few men are as valued in the realms of private friendship. The poor find in him a constant friend and adviser, one who does deeds as well as give words. His coolness, his bravery, his kindness of heart, his liberality, his disinterestedness, are household words with his friends. A power in the State, his highest honor is in the warm love of those who know him best.

NATIONAL FINANCE WITH LEGAL TENDER.

PROFESSOR GOLDWIN SMITH,
LONDON, ENGLAND.

SIR,—I have read in the newspapers of New York a letter of yours on the Finances of the United States, copied from the London *Daily News*, that I trust will attract the attention of our people and Government, coming, as it does, from one so conspicuous in science and so friendly to our nation as yourself. Without doubt you are correct in your conviction that the financial administration is the weak point in this country. It was the weak point prior to the rebellion, and has been ever since the birth of the nation. Some of us have long been aware of this, and have taken every convenient opportunity to impress the truth upon government and people; but truth in political economy is of unaccountably slow growth every where; and here, especially, it is thoroughly opposed and kept down by an unreasoning and unconquerable prejudice in favor of what is absurdly called "paper money," as if the promise to pay a thing could be the thing itself.

You think the root of the mischief here is the Legal Tender Act. Pardon me for differing with you on this point. It seems to me the Legal Tender Act is neither root nor trunk, but a mere off-shoot of a false principle, having its root or source on your side of the water, in the pet bank of your country, the Bank of England. I mean no disrespect to you or your opinions in this statement, but I wish to place the responsibility for the false system, under which not only the finances of this country but of the commercial world are suffering, where I think it belongs. The establishment of that Bank was the opening of an era of debt in the world that is needless, endless, and boundless, and our nation is but fulfilling the financial destiny assigned to it by that institution.

It was, as you are aware, the beginning of the public debt of Great Britain; a debt that was paid, paradoxical as it may appear, in the capital of the nation when the same was contracted. No other capital but that of Great Britain paid the cost of the war in which it was consumed, and the delivery of the capital was its payment. But the sophistical scheme of false banking re-established the debt for the benefit of mere currency makers, men who loaned no capital to the Government at all, but added so much *price* to the *value* which the Government received and agreed to pay for their currency obligations. It is a scheme that transmutes from money into debt all the exchanges it touches, and piles upon commercial communities a huge mass of needless individual indebtedness, over and above the sum of the false currency it manufactures. Value pays for value, and service for service, but a debt currency pays for nothing, it merely postpones the payment needlessly that with a currency of money would be made at once.

No one is paid for his goods or his services in a bank note or check; one simply gives credit to the promise of a bank instead of the promise of some other debtor, and gets his pay by parting with the promise for value received. It is a false principle that discards capital, which is the object of exchange in money, its element of payment and of wealth, to

substitute therefor mere debt as the medium of exchange, which, in the dual nature of money, is precisely that element which of itself makes no payment and is no wealth. A medium of exchange may be made of promises, or of paper, or iron, or copper tokens, but so far as it lacks intrinsic value it is not the object of exchange, and so far it is poverty in the place of wealth.

The false principle is the formation of a "deposit" in pretended banking by discounting a debt out of itself; creating so much additional debt and making it currency. The credit given by a bank to its customer, which is not the transfer of a prior credit, but which increases the loan and the "deposits" in one and the same transaction, is no deposit, and no banking; there is no value received; it is currency making out of debt, and, to the extent of its convertibility into coin, it depreciates the value of money, and expels an equal sum of capital from the community that originates it in pure loss.

None but a wealthy or thriving community ever did, or ever can maintain this costly and wasteful system of currency making. Strangely enough, the industry, wealth, and general prosperity which support the system are supposed to be its results; but it has never been introduced in any of our new States or frontier settlements, where capital was scarce, without crippling the energy and industry of the people, and bringing about in the end almost universal bankruptcy. True, the credits it has created have enabled individuals to purchase goods at inflated prices on credit from the Atlantic cities, which they could not pay for, and this, by a sort of involuntary robbery, has transferred some capital from the older cities to the interior States and outlying settlements; but this has been but a wretched pittance of compensation for the suspension of business, check of production, confusion and violation of contracts, broken fortunes and broken hearts, that have followed its operations with the certainty of death. It would be instructive to trace its history in the experience of nearly all our Western States, but especially of Illinois and Arkansas.

Banking is a very proper, honest, and useful business; it is dealing in money and exchange, and in loanable capital. There cannot be too much of it because it will regulate itself. It is borrowing of those who have capital to lend, and lending to those who have capital to borrow. But currency making is another thing; it is not a proper, necessary, or useful business; it is unnecessary, and as unprofitable to any community as counterfeiting, because it creates *price* without *value*, and the false price must be paid in precreated value for imports, while it checks the exports of merchandise, forcing money abroad instead, until the excess of the supplies of merchandise at length compels the holders to yield to the price and demand of foreign markets. Beyond our own borders it does not raise the price of our exportable commodities a dime, while its irresistable effect is to raise the price of imports, stimulate increased supplies, and, as I have said, drive our money abroad in dead loss, because of its degraded value.

Now, the immediate cause of the suspension of money payments, and of the present ridiculous condition of our currency, with the expansion of debt under false prices, was, and is, the operation of this false principle following the negotiation of the so-called $7\frac{3}{10}$ loan with the corporate banks in the autumn of 1861.

The approach of the rebellion, evident in 1860, with the repudiation of Southern debts, which broke the merchants of the North, and the open rupture in the attack on Fort Sumter, in April, 1861, had so destroyed general confidence in credits and in trade, and reduced the available assets of the banks and their liabilities, that the currency of the loyal States fell below the natural money measure. This appreciated the value of money and depreciated the relative value of merchandise, until money became more valuable than merchandise. The foreign exchanges were turned thereby largely in favor of this country, so that we gained probably $80,000,000 of gold and silver in the year 1861. The banks were thus placed in a condition, not merely of ease as to their liabilities, but of anxiety to lend their credit and maintain their dividends. They had what they call money to lend, although those of the loyal States, to whom alone my argument applies, owed, payable on demand in gold and silver, the sum of $420,000,000, with probably $80,000,000 on hand to pay it with.

No official statement of the condition of the banks having been made at Washington, since January, 1861, it is not easy to determine what portion of the large excess of specie imported and mined here in that year went into their coffers, as applicable to the payment of their liabilities; but the general distrust caused private hoarding among those who were unfamiliar with banks, and, among the friends and customers of those institutions, the transfer of large sums from general to special deposits, which amount to the same thing, so it is not probable that the specie reserves available for their demand liabilities of $420,000,000 exceeded $80,000,000, to which should be added, say $80,000,000 of coin outside of the banks and free of hoards, making the whole circulating medium to consist of a debt currency of $340,000,000, and money $160,000,000 ($500,000,000,) this sum of five hundred millions being less than belonged to our capital in real money, as is evident from the state of the exchanges, with the rapid influx of specie and the rapid efflux of merchandise in exchange. I need not inform you that money goes where it has the most exchange value, with no more reference to the so-called "balance of trade" than iron, or wheat, or any other exchangeable commodity.

Because of this reduction of currency and excess of unemployed capital the rent of capital was low, and loanable capital and bank debt were begging customers at 3 to 4 per cent per annum. In this condition of financial affairs the Government came into the market for a loan of $150,000,000 offering $7\frac{3}{10}$ per cent interest per annum. Can you doubt that the banks could have borrowed this sum for the Government at a much lower rate than this? But to have done so would have produced less profit to them immediately; they were for grasping the whole $7\frac{3}{10}$ per cent at once, and the want of scientific knowledge, with the indolence of those having charge of the negotiation on the part of the Government, threw the whole matter into the hands of the managers of the chartered banks upon their own terms. Accordingly, without borrowing a dime of capital, they undertook to lend the Government one hundred and fifty millions of dollars when they had not one hundred and fifty cents to do it with.

As I have said, they already owed a demand debt of $420,000,000, with only $80,000,000 of money on hand to pay it. They were the custodians of this money, not its owners. It belonged to their prior creditors,

whose forbearance was due to the favorable condition of the foreign exchanges, and consequent absence of any export demand for money. Creditors for nearly five times its amount were authorized to check upon it at sight when the banks authorized the Government Treasurer to check upon it nearly twice over again, besides; and they maintained that they were not increasing the currency because they paid the Treasurer's checks in gold. You will see the fallacy of this statement in the fact that their demand liabilities, which constitute the bank currency, were raised from $420,000,000 to $570,000,000, against the same sum of money in reserve as before.

The Government bonds thus granted to the banks formed the fund out of which they were themselves discounted; debt was increased by debt, not by capital transferred, and the "deposits" thus created, say in round numbers $150,000,000, to the credit of the Government Treasurer, was so much currency over and above all the pre-existing currency, money, capital, and wealth of the country; in a word, it was so much fiction. It matters not in what form or by what instrument a bank deposit circulates, whether in note or check or money itself, it forms part of the fund offered like money in exchange against the whole circulating capital of the country, which determines the relative value of money and of other capital.

Doubtless some portion of the loan was retaken by capitalists who checked upon their own pre-existing deposits without increasing the currency, but more of it was taken by persons who obtained bank discounts for the purpose; besides, the Government had issued directly from the Treasury $20,000,000 of its own notes—greenbacks—so I am quite sure that the sum of $150,000,000 was added to the currency of the country without capital by the financial operations of the banks and the Government in the summer and autumn of 1861. No one can be so dull as to suppose there was any more capital in the country because of this currency making.

The money demanded as the equivalent for circulating the capital of the country is never a fixed amount; it must vary with the aggregate of capital offered in exchange against it; an approximate estimate is all that we can obtain from the best statistics; but when sterling exchange remains for any considerable period at $4.86–66 to the pound, *i. e.*, 9½ per cent premium on the Spanish dollar valuation of $4.44–44, which nominal premium is the true par, if we can then know the amount of the bank liabilities we can determine the natural volume of the currency with considerable accuracy.

I suppose the natural volume of the currency of the loyal States to have been something more than $500,000,000 in the fall of 1861, but if we assume $500,000,000 to have been the true amount, the $150,000,000 then added depreciated the value of money here 23 per cent, equal to a premium on the gold dollar of 30 per cent. To have maintained the equation of international values it would have been necessary for us to export $150,000,000 of gold and silver. As soon, therefore, as that fictitious credit to the Government began to circulate and act upon prices, our exports of merchandise were checked and our imports stimulated; of course a foreign demand for specie took place, which it was obvious the banks could ont meet, and they broke, as every intelligent bullionist knew they would when they undertook the Govern-

ment loan upon this false principle, for they were being called upon to pay $150,000,000 of *value* that nobody ever possessed.

Now this principle is the system of the Bank of England, and whenever that bank aids or influences the creation of credits, used as money, in excess of the true money measure, it either breaks to save the debtors of the kingdom, or the debtors break to save it, and you have in England the "commercial crisis."

One may read ADAM SMITH'S account of that bank, FRANCIS' history, and nearly every other history, without discovering this principle in its formation; in other words, without discovering that it was formed by making a spurious currency, and without capital, except perhaps £72,000 which may or may not have been expended when the bank went into operation. A simple balance sheet presented in LAWSON'S history of banking will show the truth of this statement to any tyro in accounts beyond a peradventure.

Two years after its establishment the bank failed, the real cause of the failure being plausibly concealed by the recoinage of the silver of the kingdom to which it was attributed, no one caring to notice that the bank notes had expelled an equal amount of coin, which was sent to Flanders, leaving so much additional debt to pay and so much less money to pay it with—so much embarrassment in the place of so much wealth, a double power of bankruptcy to which the advocates of this system are persistently blind. One who has nothing is poor, but one who has nothing and is in debt besides is doubly poor, which latter condition is the currency principle of the Bank of England. Such a currency cannot exist without plundering individuals of so much capital in the payment of the fictitious price it creates for imports, and leaving them in debt an equal amount besides.

Here is the balance sheet that I find in LAWSON'S history. It was presented at the bar of the House of Commons, December, 1696, by order of the House, the bank being then under suspension of payment, as I have just said, two years after its establishment:

DEBTOR.

	£.	s.	d.
To sundry persons for sealed bills standing out	893,800	0	0
To sundry persons on notes for running cash	764,196	10	6
To moneys borrowed in Holland	300,000	0	0
To interest due on bank bills standing out	17,876	0	0
To balance	125,315	2	11
	2,101,187	13	5

CREDITOR.

By tallies in several Parliamentary funds	1,784,576	16	5
By one-half year's deficit of fund £100,000 per annum	50,000	0	0
By mortgages, pawns, and securities	230,946	15	2
By cash	35,664	1	10
	2,101,187	13	5

The youngest clerk who ever balanced a set of books will see at a glance that the bank owed the whole sum of its assets except the balance of £125,315 2s. 11d. This covered its whole capital and contingent fund. For two years it had done an extremely profitable business, paying eight

per cent pér annum dividends. It is very possible that the whole £72,000 paid in was expended in procuring the charter, the granting of which was strongly opposed in Parliament, where bribery, it is said, was not unknown, so that it began without a penny of capital, and after paying dividends had accumulated the balance above mentioned. Yet the bank boasted of having loaned to the Government and paid into the exchequer, before the time stipulated in the charter, a capital of £1,200,000. He must possess a necromantic skill in accounts who can discover any such capital in these figures. Why this balance sheet is not produced by FRANCIS in his apparently exhaustive history of the Bank of England, and why he should say that *twenty-five per cent* of the subscription was paid down, leaving it to be understood that the payment was on account of the £1,200,000 of capital, it is difficult to conceive. The subscribers, however, were to advance to the Government £1,500,000, of which £300,000 was to be returned, having nothing to do with the capital of the institution, and this without doubt is the "moneys borrowed in Holland" according to the balance sheet. FRANCIS may have mistaken it for a payment on account of the capital.

MICHAEL GODFREY, the first Deputy-Governor, sets this matter of capital at rest. Writing in 1695, he says: "Some find fault with the bank because they have not taken in the whole £1,200,000 which was subscribed, for they have called in but £72,000, which is more than they now have occasion for. But, however, they have paid into the exchequer the whole £1,200,000 before the time appointed by act of Parliament, and the less money they have taken in to do it with so much the more they have served the public, for the rest is left to circulate in trade, to be lent on land, or otherwise to be disposed of for the nations service."

This is a precious piece of sophistry which sets at naught the teaching of the nursery, that one cannot eat his cake and have it too. Its acceptance as truth then and now is a remarkable evidence of the depth of credulity among intelligent men. The truth is the bank had no capital, unless the £72,000 was unexpended after procuring the charter. The Government loaned the bank as much as the bank loaned the Government, which was nothing at all. The bank handed into the exchequer its own notes in exchange for tallies—mere memorandums of unfulfilled contracts—paper and notched faggots exchanged against each other. The scheme was a manufacture of currency virtually out of nothing, that is, without value received. The effect upon prices was exactly the same as if so much gold had been produced and thrown upon the market, but here was no gold or other value produced, and the price it created was therefore paid out of pre-existing gold and silver, the precreated money capital of the nation.

The bank borrowed no capital and loaned no capital; it simply loaned memorandums of indebtedness on which the people subsequently loaned their capital to the Government, and paid interest, or £100,000 annuity, on their own capital thus loaned for the benefit of the Bank of England. The people, not the bank, loaned the capital to the Government, but the bank held all the securities and took all the profits.

ADAM SMITH supposed that an excess of convertible paper currency could not be circulated, because the excess would at once return upon its issuers for redemption. This is one of his errors, and the more surpris-

ing because of the experience of France with LAW's banking sixty years before the "Wealth of Nations" was written. For four years the inflation continued there, until general prices advanced four-fold, indicating a four-fold expansion of the currency, and yet the currency did not return upon the bank for redemption to any inconvenient extent until a few weeks before its doors were closed in hopeless insolvency, although money was rushing out of the country all the time. It is a question of confidence on the part of the people; if they prefer the paper to money, and do not call upon the bank for payment, there is no difference in effect between an inconvertible and a so-called convertible currency, and, as we see in the example of France, it is easily possible to press upon a credulous community as much convertible as an intelligent people will bear of an inconvertible currency. We have not yet, at any time, with our inconvertible currency reached the degree of inflation that existed in France with their convertible currency in 1719–20, after three to four years operation of LAW's, and the Royal Bank, which failed in 1720.

The philosophic action of this spurious currency is to degrade the value of the whole volume of money or currency to the extent of its increase. The whole convertible sum of this increase and degradation then runs away, and brings returns in *price* not in *value*. In other words, the excess of currency thus thrown off is wholly absorbed in the false price of imports, because the exports will command only the price determined by the demand measured by the currency of foreign countries. ADAM SMITH overlooked this inevitable result of local inflation, and supposed that the specie expelled by what he calls "paper money" was sent abroad at its normal value, and necessarily commanded an equivalent value in the imports, but it is never so. The reason of the shipment of money is because it is cheaper than merchandise to the exporter, and when it is cheapened naturally by an excess of production, the excess is a clear addition to the wealth of the country in the capital it commands in the imports, precisely like an excess of wheat, or beef, or copper, or any other form of capital that can only be exported when it is cheapened by supply to an exportable value. But when money is cheapened to an exportable value without any excess of production, in other words, by making "paper money," the gold and silver sent abroad is taken from precreated capital, and might as well be plunged into the sea so far as any benefit accrues to the nation that exports the money, simply because it is sold and exported at the degraded, and not the natural value. You will observe it is the whole volume of the currency that is degraded in value, and only the amount of the degradation that is expelled, so that the whole amount of specie thus exported is lost in the abnormal price of imports.

Now the people of the United States are thorough dupes of the Bank of England; they believe in "paper money" more than they believe in democracy, and so favor privileged legislation in the matter of currency. It makes no difference to them who or what issues the note; if it is handsomely engraved and "convertible," they circulate it in preference to gold, having no conception that they are lending their capital upon it for nothing, and, in the case of bank notes and bank credits, paying interest on their own capital thus loaned for the benefit of bank stockholders into the bargain. Virtually every bank note, or bank debt on account, payable on demand, is a legal tender; the man who should refuse to accept it

would be ostracised—sent to Coventry; he could do no business unless the note were discredited by some competent authority. It is a forced loan even from myself and others who see through the iniquity and falsehood of the thing; we cannot help ourselves; we must accept and circulate bank notes, pay interest on our own capital, and deal with the banks upon their own terms, or do nothing.

The notes issued directly by the national Treasury—greenbacks that form two-thirds of the legal tender—have the advantage of costing no interest to the public, but the public know nothing and care nothing for the advantage. There is not intelligence enough upon the subject in Congress to see the saving to the industrious classes, and the National Bank Act, which is a copy essentially of the principle of the Bank of England, imposes a needless cost of interest upon the public for the currency it authorizes. Public writers and professors are busy here writing down the "greenbacks," that the banks may have the profit of the circulation in their place. It is doubtful if they know who pays it.

There is an important advantage in all the national currency, whether furnished directly by the Treasury or through National Banks, as compared with that furnished by the State Banks, namely this: the national currency being public debt, directly or indirectly, forms a fund with which goods are bought and sold as for cash, relieving a vast amount of embarrassment in individual indebtedness. Whereas the State Bank currency requires to be fed with individual indebtedness. Goods must be sold on credit to make notes for the banks to discount into currency, and their system accordingly forces nearly the whole traffic of the country through debt and credit. But this again is unheeded; people care nothing about it.

The one idea here is that without a paper currency we should have no money and do no business. It is a common remark that there is not gold and silver enough in the world to do the business of the United States; and the notion prevails that "paper money" is capital, so that the more we have of it the more business we have. Accordingly it has come to be considered a sort of patriotic duty for every one to encourage the utmost extension and circulation of bank and Government notes, and of bank credits. If there be such a thing as blind ignorance here upon any subject, it is the most dense upon this subject of "paper money;" and if there be an unpopular man in the nation it is the bullionist. Thus we drive away capital, the only employer of industry, and substitute debt, the embarrassment of capital and industry, in its place. But we work hard and cover our foolish losses with a surplus still.

Under these circumstances you may readily conceive that the Legal Tender Act is a matter of small practical importance. Theoretically it is an act in violation of contracts; it is *expost facto*, unconstitutional, and the essence of injustice; but its repeal would make no practical difference in our currency, or in the condition of the national finances. Even in satisfaction of a judgment and execution no court or individual declines to accept a check or current bank notes. Legal tender is seldom thought of, and never demanded except in bank settlements at the Clearing-House, and the repeal of the act could only tend to a further inflation of the currency by removing all check upon bank discounts and currency making. There is a possible ultimate restraint upon the making of fictitious

credits by banks, in the legal tender requirement, but as the legal tenders amount to three times as much as the specie by which the currency was formerly regulated, we must expect three times as much currency as under the specie requirement before the restraint can operate. Still it is something, and better perhaps than no restraint at all.

The Bank of England system enlists the strongest motive to human exertion—self interest—in the business of damaging the capital of the country by expanding the currency and degrading the value of money. The more mischief of this sort they can do the greater is the profit of the corporators. Instead of furnishing capital to the people, as the people generally suppose, it is using their capital and charging them interest upon it, their money capital meanwhile being forced abroad in pure loss to them for the benefit of foreign producers. But our people like it, and exhibit a democratic spirit of independence in ignoring the science which teaches the folly of it.

Asia gets the benefit of this folly of America and Europe, and the precious metals are driven to the East nearly as fast as they are taken from the bowels of the earth, because there they escape the contact and depreciation of "paper money." If America and Europe obtained an equivalent value in return the benefit would be mutual, but it is not so.

Thankful for your friendship to my country, and for your earnest support of the democratic principle in its present terrible conflict with barbarism here, I am glad of the opportunity to contribute something to your knowledge of our institutions, and to explain to you the evil nature of our financial system, which is one of the two greatest evils and antagonisms that the democratic principle has yet to deal with in this country. The other is the tariff system of "protective" duties on imports, which by checking imports checks our exports to the same extent, and cripples the commerce and the industry that the energy and enterprise of our people would otherwise develop into much additional and enduring wealth. Both are creatures of class or privileged legislation that are out of place in the institutions of the United States.

But we are a young nation. England is old. And we follow England with a weak subservience that our self-styled democrats are too ignorant to see, or too conceited to acknowledge. We did once set up for ourselves in politics in establishing a republican government, and did well; but we take no step in political economy until England pioneers and points out the road. From her we received our great anti-democratic institutions of slavery, protective tariff, and privileged banking for the manufacture of a currency of debt. From her we have learned to hate slavery and abolish it, and we expect to follow her lead already taken in establishing free trade. But until she moves to protect her capital against the encroachments of "paper money," we shall doubtless continue as blind as we are now, and know nothing of the difference in currency between capital and debt, and we shall go on sinking our capital by putting debt into its place.

If I could induce you to lend your pen and your influence to persuade your Government to change its great financial institution from a *debt-factory* to an honest bank, with the simple privilege of every honest banker to borrow and lend capital without limit, it would be something to repay me for much careful thought upon this subject, and I should feel

that I had taken a step to benefit England and my own country, and the commercial world.

With the highest regard, permit me to subscribe myself, your friend,

CHARLES H. CARROLL.

West Newton, Mass., February, 1865.

COMMERCIAL LAW.—NO. 20.

BANKRUPTCY AND INSOLVENCY.

(Continued from page 198, vol. 52.)

WHAT PROPERTY THE ASSIGNEE TAKES.

IT has been already intimated, that what the bankrupt holds in the right of another does not pass to the assignee. If, therefore, the bankrupt has collected a debt for another, and has kept the sum so collected apart, it belongs, generally speaking, to him for whom it was collected. But if it is merged (or sunk) indistinguishably into the general assets of the bankrupt, the owner has only a claim for it, which must be proved like other debts. So, if the bankrupt sold goods for his principal, and they are not paid for, the principal can collect the whole debt, and sue for it in his own name. Or if the bankrupt has received payment of the goods, and has kept that payment apart, the owner, generally, could reclaim it; but not if it were merged in, and mingled with, his assets.

The insolvent laws generally exempt from their operation the same or similar property with that excepted by statute from attachment or levy. Among these is wearing-apparel; but under this clause in the national act, it was held that articles of jewelry belonging to the bankrupt passed to his assignee. In New York, however, it was held that jewelry and ornaments which belonged to the wife before marriage, or were given to her afterwards,—even if given by the husband, provided he was not then insolvent, and gave the articles in good faith,—belonged to the wife, and not to the assignee. In a case which occurred in Boston, Judge STORY differed somewhat from Judge BETTS, applying the principles of equity and trust to the question, and allowing to the wife only such things as the husband must be regarded as holding in trust for her. So as to gifts to the children of an insolvent; if made by himself, and in good faith, before insolvency, we know no reason why they should not remain the property of the children. If given by a stranger, there could be no doubt. An interesting case occurred before Judge STORY, in which the wife of a person who petitioned the court for the benefit of the bankrupt law was possessed of a watch of about the value of fifty dollars, presented to her by the petitioner, about ten years before the filing of the petition. She had likewise several mourning rings and pins, and a few other articles of jewelry, of the value of about twenty-five dollars, some of which had been given to her by friends, and others by the

petitioner, some years previous, and one mourning ring, of the value of about five dollars, given her by the petitioner nearly two years before filing the petition. The petition further stated, that his two sons, of the respective ages of seventeen and twenty years, had each a gold watch, of the value of about fifty dollars, which had been purchased about two years before with money given by a friend, and with about twenty-eight dollars given to each by the petitioner, out of his private cash. It was ruled by the court, that the watch of the wife, and any jewelry given to her by third persons before the marriage, or by her husband, either before or since the marriage, pass to the assignee as part of the property of the bankrupt, to which his creditors are entitled. But jewelry, as personal ornaments, and mourning rings, given to her by third persons since the marriage, as personal ornaments or memorials, belong to the wife for her sole and separate use in equity, and do not pass to the assignee under the bankruptcy for the benefit of the creditors. That the watches of the sons, under the circumstances stated in the petition, belong to them, as their property. But, nevertheless, if the petitioner was insolvent when he applied a part of his own money to purchase the same for his sons, he had no right so to do against the claims of the creditors; and that in equity, therefore, if the petitioner was so insolvent, the sons must account to the assignee for the amount of the money of the petitioner so paid towards the purchase of the watches. But if the petitioner was not then insolvent, and the donation on his part was made in good faith, and the donation was suitable to his rank in life, condition, and estate, then it was good, and not within the reach of the creditors, or in fraud of their rights under the bankruptcy.

A gift is not complete and effectual until there has been an assent to it on the part of the donee; and the same rule is generally applicable to a devisee. But where one devised real estate to a bankrupt, the bankrupt was not permitted to decline it; and the true reason is, that the assignee had become possessed of his right of acceptance.

After a party is decreed to be a bankrupt, it would seem that whatever comes to the bankrupt remains his own property. It is sometimes important to determine the moment of time *before* which what comes to the bankrupt goes to his assignee, and *after* which all that comes to him remains his own.

If the title to property, by devise or otherwise, falls upon him after the petition and before the decree, in England, it goes to the assignee, as much as if it fell before the petition. But our insolvent laws do not contain the same provisions as to decree, &c.; and it is probable that the time when the insolvent shall begin to hold as his own what comes to him will generally be determined by the phraseology of each statute, or the practice under it. The principle upon which this question must always be determined, can be no other than this: whatever falls to him before he is actually and completely an insolvent at law, goes to his assignee for his creditors; whatever falls to him after this point of time, remains his own.

If one partner of a firm becomes insolvent, this operates a dissolution of the partnership; and his assignee takes only his interest in the balance remaining after the debts are paid. To ascertain this, it is the common practice to permit the property of the firm to remain in the hands of the

other partners, for them to settle the affairs of the firm and render an account. But there is nothing to prevent an appraisement or agreement as to the value of the insolvent's interest, and a transfer of that for its value to the other partners. But such arrangement should not be made without the sanction of the court. And of course it would not be binding against the creditors, and in favor of the other partners, if it were made fraudulently, with their connivance or knowledge or reasonable means of knowledge. The assignee of the insolvent partner is said to have no right to take the property from the hands of the other partner or partners. But the solvent partners must have a right to hold the property needed to settle the concern. This subject has been alluded to in the chapter on the law of Partnership.

Where, after the petition, property fell to the wife of the bankrupt, in such a way as to give him the right of possessing it, in the final decree the "equity" of the wife's interest was regarded, and reasonable provision for her support was made out of this property. And when, at the time of the insolvency, the wife was possessed of an interest or estate in expectancy, to become hers in possession after the death of some person, and that death occurred some time after her husband's insolvency, the assignees were permitted to take the property for the creditors, when the death occurred; but the court made a proper provision for the wife.

An assignment in insolvency passes to the assignee the money of the insolvent which is in the hands of an attorney who has collected it for him.

It passes the possibility of estate or title, when that is connected with an interest; but not a naked possibility, as that of an heir, who expects to inherit, and probably will, but has no certain right. And the test in all such cases is, could the insolvent have made a transfer or assignment of his right; for if so, it passes to his assignee. Thus, an only son of an aged father has every reason to expect his inheritance; but his interest is not legally vested in him, and he cannot transfer it; and therefore the assignee does not take it, and if the father dies the day after the son is insolvent, the son takes it and keeps it. But if the father had property for his life only, to be his son's at his death by the original title, the son *must* have this, if he lives, and may transfer his right during the father's life; and therefore, if he becomes insolvent, his assignee then takes this *right*, and then takes the *property* at his father's death. And the assignee may sell this right and interest at once, and divide the proceeds among the creditors, and the purchaser of the right will take the property when the father dies.

An assignment in insolvency cancels and revokes any authority or power or lien which the insolvent had the power of revoking. Therefore, it does not revoke one which belonged to the agent or attorney as his own. As where the attorney had a vested right or interest in the authority; as if he had paid money for it, or on some good consideration had a right to execute the authority, and apply the proceeds to payment of a debt due from the principal.

Where there is no insolvent law, there is nothing to prevent a debtor from making a voluntary assignment of his property, in trust for his creditors; and to assign so much only as he pleases, and favor one creditor, or one class of creditors, at his own choice, and generally to constitute the trust upon such terms as he prefers. The mischiefs resulting

from this state of things led, as we have said, to the general introduction of insolvent laws. But these laws do not exist in all the States; and where they do not, the same questions, and the same diversity of decision may be expected which led to their adoption elsewhere. Thus, in some States, no assignment operated to the benefit of creditors who did not become parties to it; in others, their assent was presumed on the ground that it was for their benefit. And, generally, an assignment which provided for the absolute discharge of the assignor, was construed with much more strictness than one which provided only for the distribution of the property.

THE DISCHARGE OF THE INSOLVENT.

Among the insolvent laws of the several States, there is a great diversity in the kind and extent of relief or benefit which they give to the insolvent. In some, only his present assets are distributed, leaving future acquisitions liable to attachment. In some, the insolvent is discharged and protected from arrest or imprisonment. In some, the debtor is discharged, if this be voted by a certain proportion of his creditors. In some, the debtor is discharged, either if so voted, or without or against the will of his creditors, provided his assets pay a certain percentage of his debt.

The persons who are entitled to relief under the insolvent laws differ in the different States, as follows:

In California, Michigan, Ohio, Indiana, Louisiana, Missouri, Connecticut, New York, Massachusetts, Arkansas, and Rhode Island, any debtor, whether in or out of prison, may have the benefit of the insolvent laws.

In Delaware, Maryland, Tennessee, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, Illinois, and New Jersey, persons only are entitled to relief who are imprisoned on civil process. But in Maine, New Hampshire, Kentucky, and Virginia, the relief is confined to debtors charged in execution.

In Vermont, the only law resembling an insolvent act is one of the Legislature of 1855, forbidding voluntary assignments with a preference; but there is a constitutional provision, that the debtor shall not be continued in prison where there is not a strong presumption of fraud, after he has delivered up and assigned, *bona fide*, all his estate for the use or his creditors.

The provisions relating to the effect of the discharge vary, also, in different States. The statutes of Arkansas, New Jersey, North Carolina, Mississippi, Tennessee, Illinois, Georgia, Missouri, Connecticut, Pennsylvania and Ohio exempt only the person of the debtor from imprisonment. The statutes of California, Michigan, and Massachusetts provide for the discharge of the insolvent from liability for the debt itself, if his property be assigned and distributed among his creditors.

The laws of New York upon this subject differ in important respects from those of many of the States. We give a few of its provisions, as abridged from the statutes by Chancellor KENT. "The insolvent laws of New York enable the debtor, with the assent of two thirds in value of his creditors, and on the due disclosure and surrender of his property to be discharged from all his debts contracted within the State, subsequently to the passing of the insolvent act, and due at the time of the

assignment of his property, or contracted before that time, though payable afterwards. The creditor who raises objections to the insolvent's discharge, is entitled to have his allegations heard and determined by a jury. The insolvent is deprived of the benefit of a discharge, if, knowing of his insolvency, or in contemplation of it, he has made any assignment, sale, or transfer, either absolute or conditional, of any part of his estate, or has confessed judgment, or given any security with a view to give a preference for an antecedent debt to any creditor. The discharge applies to all debts founded upon contracts made within the State, or to be executed within it; and for debts due to persons resident within the State at the time of the publication of notice of the application for a discharge, or to persons not residing within the State, but who united in the petition for his discharge, or who accept a dividend from his estate."

If a bankrupt or insolvent, who can be discharged only by the assent or vote of his creditors, gives money to any one or more to obtain their ascent, his discharge is void; and the assignees can recover the money from the creditor. And if he gives the creditor a bond, note, or promise, for the same purpose, the paper or promise is void, and so is the discharge. And it has been held that the discharge was void if money was given for it by some one for the bankrupt, but not by the bankrupt himself, nor with his authority or knowledge.

No certificate of discharge affects the claims of creditors upon co-debtors or sureties of the insolvent. Nor does it reach the liability of the insolvent for torts,—as slander, trespass, or the like; nor for claims for profits of land held by him without title; nor for debts due to him in any capacity or relation of trust, which were not proved before the assignee; nor, generally, for any debts which could not be, by law, proved before the assignee.

FOREIGN BANKRUPTCY OR INSOLVENCY.

The effect of proceedings in bankruptcy in a foreign state has been much discussed and variously determined. The principal question may be stated thus. Let us suppose that an English merchant, resident in England, becomes a bankrupt there; that he has also creditors in New York, and property there; and that after the proceedings in England, which certainly vest in his assignees all his property in that country, his creditors in this country attach his property in New York. Can the assignee in England set aside the attachment in New York, on the ground that the property in New York had passed to the assignee by force of the proceedings in England before the attachment?

After some fluctuation, the courts in England have settled down upon the rule, that the proceedings in bankruptcy in the country of the bankrupt's residence operate upon his assets all over the world. And in France and Holland, and, indeed, among the commercial states of Europe generally, the same rule prevails. It is based upon two principles. One is, that the system of bankrupt law should not be considered as local, but as universal, and that all the various parts of this system in different states should recognize each other, and by their union form a branch of what may be called the private law of nations. Another is, that the bankrupt law, when it sequesters the property of the bankrupt, and passes it over to his assignee, operates precisely like a grant, or sale, or other

transfer of the bankrupt himself, and should be regarded as his own act, done by him under compulsion of law.

In this country, in the earliest cases, it would seem that our courts were disposed to adopt the English rule. But this tendency soon disappeared; and although to this day wise men doubt whether the English rule is not the most reasonable and just, it seems to be admitted that the American rule is the very opposite of the English.

We hold in this country, that the bankrupt and insolvent law form a part of the law of nations in no sense and in no respect; that they not only derive all their force from the authority of the state which enacts them, but have no force whatever—no more than any other local and municipal law—beyond the limits of that sovereignty.

So, too, our courts hold that the cession of the bankrupt's assets to his assignee is not to be regarded as his own act; but rather as the result and effect of his civil death. He has, as a merchant, ceased to be. He has no longer anything to do with his property; and does not possess, and cannot exercise, any more right or power in respect to it than a mere stranger. And the principle on which his assets are to be gathered and distributed is the same which would be applied if he had died insolvent, and an administrator, instead of an assignee, had possession of his property. Hence it follows, that within the state where insolvency goes into effect, it operates on all the property, in the same way that insolvency declared by probate would operate on the effects of a dead man; that is, only within the state where it occurs; leaving creditors under other jurisdictions to get hold of other assets if they can.

Hence an English assignment under the bankrupt law would not defeat the attempt of a creditor in New York to get hold of the property of the bankrupt that was there, provided the English assignee had not previously, in person or by agent, got possession of it; but after the New York debts and claims are satisfied, the English assignee takes all the residue. It may be added, also, that the question and the difference refer to personal goods and chattels only; as real estate has always, in view of the law, a place, and is transferable only under the law of that place.

The English courts do not intimate that their bankrupt law can have any force, as law, abroad; or that any foreign law can have that force in England. But they hold that international comity requires that the tribunals in each state shall recognize this law, and the proceedings under it, in every other. But in this country, it is held that this would be an unreasonable and excessive stretch of comity; and that it is the duty of our courts to protect our citizens against interference with their rights or securities by a foreign law, which was made neither by us nor for us.

The English courts, indeed, have recently manifested a purpose—perhaps in consequence of the American decisions—to limit the operation of their rule to the proceedings under bankruptcy in states which admit the same rule. This is perfectly fair, but it tends to reduce this question of comity or justice into one of mere expediency, concerning which the courts and authorities of every country must judge for themselves, on their own facts.

This question is much more important in this country than it is in England, because the numerous States of the Union are, in the absence of a

national bankrupt law, foreign to each other, in this respect. And vastly more cases and questions, involving far greater amounts of property, arise under this question between our States, than can come under it in England, in reference to foreign bankrupt laws, or the operation of her own in foreign States. Thus, by force of the American rule, if a New York merchant becomes insolvent, a Massachusetts creditor may get security from the insolvent's property in Massachusetts, provided he can get hold of it by attachment before the New York assignee. Everybody agrees that the foreign assignee acquires such an interest in or right to the property, that, if he completes his title by taking possession *first*, no creditor can interfere with him.

There is a similar question, whether a discharge of the debtor under a bankrupt or insolvent law is a discharge of all his debts everywhere. And it has been decided in a similar way, that is, with a similar difference, in England and America. Here, however, this very interesting question is affected importantly by the clause in the national Constitution which prohibits the several States from passing laws which "impair the obligation of contracts"; but the questions which have arisen upon this subject are so nice and difficult, and the adjudication in respect to them is so various and irreconcilable, that it will be impossible to do more than give a very brief statement of what seems to be the result. And even this must be stated with some uncertainty.

The foundation of the whole is a distinction introduced by the Supreme Court of the United States, between the *right* of the creditor and his *remedy*. They say that a State statute which affects the *right* of a creditor is unconstitutional and void. But if it affects only his *remedy* for a breach of his right, it is not unconstitutional. Thus, a statute which exempts the person of a debtor from arrest or imprisonment, touches only the remedy, and is constitutional, although applying to previous debts. But if it discharges the debt, or relieves the property from attachment, or prevents a judgement or execution, or operates as a stay law, that is, a law to prevent process of law, it affects the *right* of the creditor and the *obligation* of the debtor, and is unconstitutional unless limited to debts subsequently incurred. And as a State may pass almost any law about *subsequent* contracts, because then people who make the contracts may know what obligations they assume, if a statute does not say whether it applies to the present or only to the past, it shall if possible be held to be intended to apply only to subsequent debts, because it shall be held to be intended to be constitutional rather than otherwise. But if it expressly covers all debts, whether subsequent or prior, equally, it is unconstitutional as toall subsequent debts. A State may, however, make partial exemptions, as of apparel, tools, or even of a homestead, to a reasonable extent. But the decisions even on this subject are not uniform.

The courts of the United States have held, that no State insolvent law or process can discharge the debts of the citizens of that State, so as to affect the citizens of another State, unless those citizens choose to come into the assignment. This, most of the State courts, if not all, deny. And therefore a citizen of New York, for example, whose Boston debtor has become insolvent, and who chooses not to come into the assignment, but to sue his debtor, brings his action in the Circuit Court of the United States, sitting in Boston; because, if he brought it in the State courts,

they would say the defendant was discharged, and would not sustain the action. It is, however, generally true, that a discharge by the insolvent law of a State in which the contract was made, and should be executed, and of which the debtor was a citizen at the time it was made, is valid in another State. Thus, if a Boston man received in New York the note of a New York man, made there and expressly payable there, and the promisor failed in New York and was discharged there, and the Boston man afterwards caught him in Boston and sued him there, the court of Massachusetts would hold that the defendant was effectually discharged from the debt.

COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW.

THE PANIC—COMPARISON OF THE PRESENT PANIC WITH FORMER SPRING PANICS—ITS CAUSES—PRICES OF UNITED STATES PAPER AND GOLD—RATES OF DISCOUNT—FALL IN RAILWAY SHARES—DECLINE IN MERCHANDISE—FALLING OFF OF IMPORTS—RATES OF EXCHANGE—PROBABILITIES OF AN EARLY RECOVERY OF PRICES.

THE month through which we have just passed, has witnessed another Spring panic. A heavy fall in the premium on gold, an extensive depression in the prices of all commodities, a tight money market, and a number of heavy mercantile failures, are the features which have successively developed themselves during the month of March, 1865. The panic of the previous year was entirely dissimilar. The latter was simply caused by the sudden absorption by Government of some sixty millions of greenbacks; by resolutely hammering down gold certificates, and sterling exchange; and by the application of other and still more equivocal measures to the purpose of diverting capital from investments in the share market to investments in Government securities, and to the additional purpose, perhaps, of injuring the State banking system in order to make room for the National banking system. The fall in gold was from 184 to 165. Before this had produced any marked effect upon the prices of commodities, the means of the Treasury to still further depress the market were exhausted, gold went up to its former figure in little over a week, and the State banks crept out of their difficulty, though not without a fearful sense of the danger they had been in. The panic had no other permanent effect than to destroy the gold and silver mining bubbles of the day, transfer the capital invested in them to Government securities, and make people a little more careful for a—few months.

The panic of March, 1863, was of even still less virulence. It was directly occasioned by the sale of some ten millions of gold by the Government, and lasted but a few days, knocking gold in three weeks from 171 to 140.

A comparison of the effect on the price of gold in paper currency by these successive Spring panics is interesting:

Spring panic of 1863, March 1st, 171; 6th, 150; 9th, 163; 26th, 140; April 2nd, 158
Spring panic of 1864, April 14th, 181; 19th, 166; 26th, 185.
Spring panic of 1865, March 1st, 201, and then running almost steadily down to 147 on the 24th, and up to 152 on the 31st.

Did there exist no other evidence of the fact, the remarkable periodicity of these crises would afford strong ground for believing that they were promoted by official action. The part that the Treasury played in 1863 and in 1864, in precipitating the revulsions of those years is well known, and the selection of this season of the year for such operations, is the best that could be made. This, with the Fall of the year, are the two most active seasons for the employment of currency. For a short period in both seasons an unusual amount of paper money is in demand to effect exchanges. This is shown in ordinary times by the extension and curtailment of bank circulation and discounts; but in these times it is exhibited in the rise and fall in the purchasing power of the currency; because the currency is fixed in amount, and promissory notes are in little use. The currency, therefore, at these seasons becomes temporarily of more value, and the prices of gold and other commodities fall. No better time could be selected for giving them an additional downward impetus. As between the Fall and the Spring, the latter is preferable, for in the former case havoc is played with the interests of myriads of small farmers, while in the latter it is only the large merchants who suffer, who, though their capitals are larger in amount, as capitalists are fewer in number. An additional advantage consists in the fact, that at this season the Treasury is generally better filled with gold than at any other.

But whatever inference may be deduced from the singular felicity with which Treasury raids are favored at this time of the year, the causes of the present panic must be looked for as far below those of its predecessors, as its effects exceed theirs in importance. Political, financial, and commercial causes have all contributed to it, we think. More than any other, perhaps, it is owing to political causes.

People for a long while past—ever since the fall of Atlanta—have had their minds fixed upon an early return to peace, and a consequent fall in the premium on gold. Reasonable or unreasonable, this opinion has held resolute possession of men's minds, and has affected their commercial transactions. Then came the magnificent series of victories, which, commencing with the capture of Savannah, included the fall of Branchville, Charleston, Wilmington and Columbia, and the junction of SHERMAN'S and SCHOFIELD'S armies. The effect which these triumphs of the Federal arms produced upon the public mind was heightened by the political demonstration which took place in this city on the 6th of March, and which found a responsive echo in every part of the country. We refer, of course, to the jubilee of victory. Here then we find the principal cause which has contributed to the recent decline.

But financial and commercial matters have had something to do with it. We doubt if these victories had occurred in mid-summer, or if the seven-thirty loan had not been successful, that the victories would have had the effect we have seen. The rapid absorption of nearly $160,000,000 by the Government, mainly through the seven-thirty loan, has had a prodigious effect. Very little of this money has been paid out again. But few greenbacks are to be seen. Then the withdrawal of a large amount of State bank notes from circulation preparatory to the conversion of the banks from the State to the National systems, has had some influence in making currency scarce. Add to these reasons, the almost entire cessation of any demand from importers for gold to pay duties with, caused partly by vague ap-

prehensions and partly by the late changes in the Tariff and Internal Revenue laws, and bearing in mind that at this season of the year circulating paper is in more active demand, and we see enough to have caused quite a respectable panic, had no political causes whatever existed.

But it is not likely that any very permanent impression will be made by the late decline. The end has not come yet. Ample time has almost universally been conceded by creditors. The latter class have never been so accommodating before. The crisis will probably blow over. The Treasury, frightened at the prospect of its loans falling in the market below par, has, it is said, commenced to buy gold in order to stiffen matters up again. The following table shows the course of U. S. securities during a falling market in gold :

PRICES OF UNITED STATES PAPER.

	6's, 1881. Reg.	6's, 1881. Coup.	5's, 1874.	5-20's.	10-40's.	1 year certif.	Gold.
March 1....	111	110⅝	105	110¼	102⅝	98¼	201
" 8,....	111	111¼	....	110⅝	97⅛	98¼	196
" 15,....	110	110	100	109⅝	97	98¼	178¼
" 22,....	105	105	....	105	91¼	97	158
" 29,....	105	105	....	105	91¼	97	151¼

But let us now see what havoc this recent panic has created. Under the system of banking and the usury laws extant, the pressure is but partially seen in the following quotations for commercial paper :

RATES OF DISCOUNT, MARCH, 1865,

	March 1st to 15th.	March 15th to 31st.
Loans on call, Stock securities.....	6 a 7	7
do. Bond and Mortgage,.....	7	7
Prime endorsed bills, 60 to 90 days,.....	8 a 8½	9 a 12
do. 4 to 6 months,.....	8 a 9	9 a 12
First class single signatures,.....	8 a 9	9 a 10½
Other good bills,.....	10 a 12	10 a 15

The fluctuation in the bank discount line will tell the story more plainly. These will be found in another part of this volume.

The principal railway shares have sustained the following decline :

PRICES OF RAILWAY SHARES.

	March 1.	8.	15.	22.	29
New York Central.....	113	106½	106	93½	84
Hudson River,.....	113	112	109⅝	98½	96
Erie,.....	73½	65½	64½	59	45
Cleveland, Col. and Cin.,.....	150	...	...	130	....
Reading	113	110½	106½	96	89½
Mich. So. & N. I,.....	66⅝	66	64⅝	58	50
Illinois Central.....	118½	117½	92½	98½	93½
Cleveland and Pittsburg.....	77⅝	77	70	58	52
Chicago and N. W....	34	33½	31½	28	21½
Chicago and R. I.....	95½	94½	98	88½	85⅝
Fort Wayne	94½	91½	87½	82½	76⅝

This exhibits a fearful decline, an average of over twenty per cent. during the month. The produce and merchandise markets show a corresponding state of affairs :

	March 1.	March 28.
Ashes, pots, 1st sort	$11. a 11.25	Nominal.
Coffee, Rio, prime	21 a 21¼	20½ a 21
Cotton mid. fair, upland	92 a 93	55 a 58
Flour, State, superfine,	9.85 a 10.00	9.20 a 9.40
Hay, N. R. shipping	a 1.65	1.60 a
Nails, cut	8.50 a	a 7.50
Petroleum, crude 40 a 47 gravity	48 a	33 a
Pork, prime mess, new	35.00 a 35.50	26.00 a 27.00
Tobacco, Kentucky lugs	10 a 13	8 a 10
Leather, oak (Sl.) light	48 a 52	47 a 51
Lumber, spruce, Eastern	23 a 27	Nominal.
Corn, white Southern	1.93 a 2.00	1.70 a 1.80
Wheat, white Genessee	2.50 a 2.65	2.25 a 2.40
Sheetings, brown, standard	52½ a	25 a

In the face of this heavy decline, merchants have held their own remarkably well. This is partly owing to the clemency of creditors, all of whom in common with their debtors, look to a speedy recovery of prices to the former level, and partly to the fact that in many businesses, but little credit is in vogue now-a-days. But in others, though no six, eight, or ten months notes are passed, yet short paper at 60 and 90 days is much in use and cramping on short credits is always more severe than on long ones. Many dealers have lost all the profits they had reaped during the war, and some have eaten into their original capital. The decline which follows a fall in gold from 234 in January, to 147 in March, is not likely to have produced but little loss. One-fourth of the wealth of many commercial houses has been swept away during the past six weeks.

The following table shows the imports of dry goods into this port and the gradual cessation of entries for consumption and consequent falling off in gold duties of which mention has already been made:

VALUE OF DRY GOODS ENTERED FOR CONSUMPTION IN MARCH, 1865.

	1864.	1865.
March 2	$3,063,855	$909,229
" 9	2,009,441	672,683
" 16	1,542,663	830,919
" 23	1,341,894	716,009
" 30	2,063,565	709,605
Total	$10,021,418	$3,838,535

WITHDRAWN FROM WAREHOUSE.

March 2	$260,260	$656,232
" 9	253,397	590,183
" 16	315,797	559,025
" 23	244,012	389,750
" 30	190,133	228,817
Total	$1,263,499	$2,424,007

ENTERED FOR WAREHOUSING.

March 2	$511,695	$400,548
" 9	153,972	470,398
" 16	517,967	266,962
" 23	369,392	104,559
" 30	760,683	238,497
Total	$2,813,709	$1,486,064

	1864.	1865.
Total entered for consumption.....	$10,021,418	$3,838,535
Add withdrawn from warehouse.....	1,263,499	2,424,007
Total thrown on the market.....	$11,284,917	$6,262,542
Total entered for warehousing.....	$2,613,709	$1,486,064
Add entered for consumption	10,021,418	3,838,535
Total entered at the port.....	$12,635,127	$5,324,599

The specie movement has been as follows :

SPECIE AND PRICE OF GOLD.

	1864.		1865.			
	Received.	Exported.	Received.	Exported.	Gold in Bank.	Prem. on gold.
Jan. 2,...	$254,239	$590,262	$1,148,850	$594,353	$20,152,892	127 a 127¼
" 9,...	.....	1,216,204	383,519	1,046,251	21,357,608	117⅛ a 121
" 16,...	279,801	1,985,057	50,268	329,833	20,211,569	97½ a 106
" 23,...	365,608	1,000,000	511,019	997,136	18,896,085	113⅝ a 120
" 30,...	324,864	668,747	.....	.....	.....	109 a 114½
Feb. 6,...	.....	662,616	.....	478,777	19,682,308	104⅝ a 109
" 13,...	363,198	1,219,808	.....	870,753	20,297,346	104 a 105⅝
" 20,...	.....	325,632	264,322	100,882	20,682,319	98½ a 99½
" 27,...	407,067	531,700	.....	148,536	20,092,388	96 a 98
March 5,...	512,358	629,803	.....	33,393	19,830,183	96⅝ a 101
" 12,...	.....	465,920	.....	20,015	20,737,838	86½ a 99
" 18,...	281,304	83,881	.....	108,157	22,256,596*	62½ a 91½
" 25,...	375,101	293,900	.....	164,440	22,006,524	47 a 67½
Total ...	.....	.....	.....	$4,392,526		

The rates of exchange have ruled as follows :

RATES OF EXCHANGE IN GOLD.

	London, 60 days.	Paris, 60 days.	Amsterdam.	Frankfort.	Hamburg.	Berlin.
Jan. 7	108½ a 109⅝	5.18¾ a 5.15	41½ a 41⅝	41½ a 41½	36⅝ a 36⅞	72 a 72⅝
" 14	108½ a 109⅝	5.18¾ a 5.13¾	41½ a 41⅝	41 a 41½	36½ a 36⅝	72½ a 72⅝
" 21	108½ a 109⅝	5.18¾ a 5.13¾	41½ a 41⅝	41½ a 41½	36⅝ a 36¾	73 a 72⅝
" 28	108½ a 109⅝	5.20 a 5.13¾	41 a 41⅛	41 a 41½	36⅝ a 36¾	72 a 72½
Feb. 4	108 a 109⅝	5.21½ a 5.15	41 a 41⅛	41 a 41⅛	36 a 36⅛	71⅝ a 72
" 11	108½ a 109	5.23¾ a 5.15	40⅝ a 41½	40⅝ a 41½	35⅝ a 36½	71⅝ a 72½
" 18	107 a 108⅝	5.27½ a 5.20	40½ a 41⅛	40½ a 41	35⅝ a 36⅛	71½ a 72
" 25	108 a 108½	5.27½ a 5.18¾	40½ a 40½	40½ a 41	35⅝ a 36⅛	71½ a 72
Mch. 4	108 a 108½	5.27½ a 5.21½	40⅝ a 41½	40⅝ a 40⅞	36⅛ a 36½	71½ a 71⅝
" 11	107⅝ a 108½	5.27½ a 5.22½	40½ a 41½	40½ a 40⅝	35⅝ a 36½	70⅝ a 71½
" 18	109½ a 109⅝	5 21½ a 5.13¾	41 a 41⅛	41 a 41⅛	36 a 36⅛	71½ a 72
" 25	109 a 109½	5.20 a 5.15	41 a 41⅛	40⅝ a 41½	36 a 36½	71½ a 72

In regard to the probabilities of early recovery from the prevailing depression, the effect of whatever military successes may yet await us has undoubtedly been already discounted. The Treasury will soon be obliged to pay out a large portion of whatever amounts of currency it has succeeded in temporarily absorbing, though we believe the policy of the new Secretary to be in favor of reducing the redundancy all that he can, and we think he will succeed in carrying out this policy to a great extent. Goods meanwhile will be hammered without mercy, and when the urgent necessities of merchants have been relieved, the spring trade will fall off, and the demand for currency concomitantly cease. With a little further pressure, therefore, the general markets may be expected to gradu-

* Two new National Banks now first included in the totals.

ally recover, and as the summer is ushered in, something very like the old state of affairs may exist again. And particularly if peace occurs; for then, the end being known, we can see nothing to prevent another rise in prices. Meanwhile, between these two high tides of inflation, the past one and the future one, those who cannot live in such low tides as now prevail will be stranded; to float again, perhaps, upon the returning flood. Yet these great ebbs of currency will leave their mark upon every industry, and so gradually weaken the resources of dealers. Opportunities to make up for sacrifices that are now unavoidable may never occur. This should caution merchants and others to be more prudent. It is difficult to get out of the scrape now. To wind up might prove ruinous; to go on, as bad. Great prudence and great judgment is required. The return of peace will play as much immediate havoc with mercantile houses as the coming of war did. This is the compensation of forces. Mr. McCULLOCH has now the commercial destinies of this country in his hands. We trust he will act with wisdom and moderation, and show no favor to one interest more than to another—to the agricultural more than to the mechanical—or to either more than to the commercial. Let him remember that the merchant is just as much a producer as is the farmer, or the mechanic. With his success the country succeeds; with his failure the well-being of all must suffer.

JOURNAL OF BANKING, CURRENCY, AND FINANCE.

APPOINTMENT OF HON. HUGH MCCULLOCH AS SECRETARY OF THE TREASURY—THE SEVEN-THIRTY LOAN—THE MONEY PANIC—TRUE PRINCIPLES OF MONEY AND BANKING—THE CURRENCY MUST NOT BE FIXED IN AMOUNT—IT MUST BE LEFT FREE—SPECIE PAYMENTS CALLED FOR—THE RIVAL BANKING SYSTEMS TO STAND ON THEIR OWN MERITS—RETURNS OF THE NEW YORK CITY BANKS—THE LEGAL TENDER RULE—RETURNS OF PHILADELPHIA BANKS—RETURNS OF BOSTON BANKS—THE BANKS OF ENGLAND AND FRANCE.

THE chief events of the month have been the appointment of Hon. HUGH MCCULLOCH as Secretary of the United States Treasury, the taking of the seven-thirty loan to the extent of over twenty-five millions per week, and the money panic, to which reference has been made in another part of this volume.

Mr. MCCULLOCH, unlike his predecessor, brings to the Treasury Department the experience of a practical banker, a faculty which, in these days of fiscal experiments, cannot be too highly rated. In addition to this, he enjoys the advantage of being intimately acquainted with the details of the department over which he now presides, having served as Comptroller of the Currency since that office was created. No man, coming into the office which he has, ever had so much to perform, so excellent an occasion on which to perform it, so many powerful tools to work with, and so many people to gratify by performing it successfully. This consists in no less than entirely remodelling the monetary system of the country. For this great mission Mr. MCCULLOCH is well fitted, the time is apt, and the people ready to applaud its execution. But what is done must be done gingerly. A great deal remains to be undone before anything

can be done. Yet, pinch whose shoes it may, reform must go on, and the sooner it goes on the better. Mr. McCulloch probably knows that money is anything that is used for the purpose of exchanging values: that specie is money, bank bills are money, promissory notes are money, book credits are money; that these various kinds of money have various rates of circulation: that specie circulates more than any other kind of money, bank bills next, promissory notes next—having but the faculty of circulating two or three times on the average,—and that book credits circulate less than all, seldom possessing the faculty of more than a single circulation. That if left to itself the quantity and the kinds of money needed by society will adjust themselves to the demand: that in times of security and peace, time-notes and credits will be largely used, and specie and bank notes very little used: and that, in times of war and danger, specie and bank notes will be largely used, and time-notes and credits scarcely used at all. That though in war or other times of insecurity, more quickly circulating paper may be employed for money than at other times, it does not follow that the amount of it should be fixed and unalterable, because the wants of society change from moment to moment, and the demand for currency, with which to supply those wants, changes as often as the wants do. That, consequently, any currency which is fixed in amount—no matter if it is only fixed for an hour at a time—and not free to come into existence, and to be demonetized, whenever required, is an evil. It is an evil, because the demand for it being varied every moment, the value of it must vary every moment, and continual fluctuations in the prices of commodities must be the result. It matters not if such a currency be made of paper or gold or what not. If not left free to ebb and flow, it must continually fluctuate in purchasing value. If gold could not be melted or exported or imported or coined at pleasure, the same effects would ensue with gold as with paper currency.

All this Mr. McCulloch is well aware of. Not that such knowledge follows as a matter of course from the fact of his having been appointed the Secretary of the Treasury; for Mr. Chase did not know it, and neither did Mr. Fessenden. But Mr. McCulloch knows it, and the people of this country, and particularly the mercantile community who suffer most from its being ignored, earnestly ask him to recognise these important elementary truths of political economy in the practical operations of the Treasury. The time has now passed when any excuse existed, if any ever did exist, for the use of a fixed currency. The currency should be free, and to be free it must either be of some substance capable of being demonetized or shipped abroad at pleasure, and *vice versa*, or it must be convertible at pleasure into such a substance. We all know that this means specie In plain words, we want specie payments again. No doubt but that in the present state of diminished credit several hundred millions of United States Treasury notes, even if inconvertible, would continue to be used as currency, and need not, therefore, be withdrawn from circulation. But we would have this left entirely free to itself. If the people desired to use them, well and good. If not, they should be left free to use what currency they deemed best.

With this great reform all minor difficulties that now attend the system of banking in this country would vanish. The rival systems would find their

respective levels, and a good deal of that gloom would be dispelled which now hangs over the future of banking in the United States.

The frequent changes of banks, from the State system to the National, deprive the statements, at least for a time, of much of the value which they formerly possessed.

NEW YORK CITY BANKS.

NEW YORK BANKS. (*Capital, Jan.*, 1864, $69,494,577; *Jan.*, 1865, $69,658,787.)

Date.	Loans.	Specie.	Circulation.	Net Deposits.	Clearings.
Dec. 24,..	$203,512,093	$20,600,441	$3,383,346	$153,805,909	$593,336,137
" 31,..	199,444,969	19,662,211	3,283,832	147,442,071	471,039,253
Jan. 7,..	195,044,687	20,152,892	3,183,526	147,821,891	535,055,671
" 14,..	189,686,750	21,357,608	3,074,029	148,931,299	538,780,682
" 21,..	187,060,586	20,211,569	2,979,851	146,068,355	611,194,907
" 28,..	169,502,630	18,174,816	2,906,194	143,842,230	656,828,378
Feb. 4,..	185,639,790	19,682,308	2,868,646	152,703,316	663,814,434
" 11,..	185,515,904	20,297,346	2,821,996	156,711,166	584,179,409
" 18,..	186,365,126	20,682,319	2,855,982	156,150,634	518,205,222
" 25,..	183,534,735	20,092,378	2,739,388	153,948,481	481,028,121
March 4,..	186,569,665	19,530,183	2,720,666	153,009,588	511,361,357
" 11,..	188,120,890	20,737,838	2,741,684	152,134,448	412,302,453
" *18,..	211,486,651	22,256,596	4,662,505	174,479,367	635,736,253
" 25,..	207,677,503	22,066,524	4,457,162	166,965,508	604,796,725

The Clearing House has introduced an excellent feature in requiring the banks to state the amount of Legal Tender they have on hand.

The following are the weekly returns of the New York City banks from the commencement of this rule:

March	11....	Legal Tender.....	$26,713,408
"	18....	Do.	33,645,014
"	25....	Do.	35,295,156

The following are the returns of the Philadelphia banks:

PHILADELPHIA BANKS.

PHILADELPHIA BANKS. (*Capital, Jan.*, 1863, $11,740,080; 1865, $13,315,720.)

Date. 1865.	Loans.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Legal tenders.
Jan. 2,...	$48,059,403	$1,803,583	$2,793,463	$39,845,963	$14,524,175
" 9,...	49,250,629	1,781,108	2,978,035	41,001,803	15,297,223
" 16,...	49,833,799	1,750,669	3,228,785	43,121,208	17,003,905
" 23,...	49,755,716	1,792,891	3,606,051	40,186,513	15,939,598
" 30,...	50,056,584	1,773,266	4,010,192	59,822,860	15,572,893
Feb. 6,...	50,269,473	1,702,776	4,393,173	38,496,337	14,000,552
" 13,...	49,511,683	1,629,957	4,660,697	37,340,531	14,295,547
" 20,...	48,639,886	1,569,223	4,866,771	37,141,900	13,922,954
" 27,...	48,992,272	1,498,644	5,077,486	39,011,100	15,398,602
Mar. 6,...	49,228,540	1,389,264	5,446,021	38,391,622	15,200,287
" 13,...	49,297,223	1,422,736	5,906,791	38,655,908	15,487,535
" 20,...	48,976,280	1,323,274	5,609,276	38,673,804	15,796,783
" 27,...	50,255,294	1,350,968	5,736,660	39,117,258	16,866,146

CHANGES IN CAPITAL STOCK.

Feb. 27, $14,485,450 | Mar. 6, $14,494,050 | Mar. 13, $14,495,550

The following are the returns of the banks of Boston, except those which have reorganized under the National law. They make no returns. Their circulation

*The items, except specie, would all show a decrease for the week but for the addition of two new National Banks, now first included in the totals.

is, however, included in these figures. With the other National Banks, they number about thirty institutions.

BOSTON BANKS.

BOSTON BANKS. (*Capital, Jan.*, 1863, $38,231,700; *Jan.*, 1865, $22,350,000.)

Date. 1865.	Loans.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.
January 2.....	$46,312,701	$3,434,323	$7,766,888	$23,086,775
" 9.....	33,707,472	2,903,469	7,803,528	16,772,600
" 16.....	33,444,460	2,862,939	7,529,229	15,926,720
" 23.....	33,160,490	2,797,093	7,126,253	16,058,310
" 30.....	33,025,868	2,659,568	6,792,950	16,343,192
February 6.....	25,609,695	2,245,510	6,581,880	12,641,033
" 13.....	23,609,664	2,087,995	6,345,912	11,031,733
" 20.....	23,533,879	2,039,669	5,094,370	10,621,322
" 27.....	22,872,774	1,932,769	6,278,194	9,789,000
March 7.....	22,325,217	1,877,323	5,843,974	9,961,545
" 14.....	21,224,401	1,700,714	5,580,219	9,435,578
" 21.....	21,206,180	1,524,401	5,435,928	9,393,224
" 28. ...	20,952,000	1,426,700	5,279,700	8,958,800

The following are the returns of the Bank of England:

THE BANK OF ENGLAND RETURNS (IN POUNDS STERLING).

Date. 1865.	Circulation.	Public Deposits.	Private Deposits.	Securities.	Coin and Bullion.	Rate of Discount.
Dec. 7,...	20,118,116	6,468,544	12,666,764	28,726,674	13,840,691	7 per ct.
" 14,...	19,669,832	7,161,719	12,267,474	28,301,608	14,122,711	6 "
" 21,...	19,669,007	7,694,616	12,927,807	29,326,027	14,307,760	6 "
" 28,...	19,810,455	8,601,125	13,040,643	30,708,083	14,100,974	6 "
Jan. 4,...	21,007,215	8,500,269	13,874,977	32,832,904	13,933,592	6 "
" 11,...	21,012,778	4,445,535	16,174,166	30,957,880	14,097,390	5½ "
" 18,...	21,223,648	4,186,614	14,658,015	29,292,273	14,168,227	5½ "
" 25,...	20,614,794	4,836,799	14,553,933	29,173,458	14,317,215	5 "
Feb. 1,...	20,998,478	5,541,452	14,447,994	30,040,933	14,461,224	5 "
" 8,...	20,743,805	6,252,892	13,814,063	29,908,102	14,511,611	5 "
" 15,...	20,399,763	6,572,512	13,969,659	30,007,199	14,553,871	5 "
" 22,...	20,101,978	6,665,364	14,140,885	29,910,491	14,600,233	4½ "
Mar. 1,...	20,381,080	6,854,409	14,158,331	30,424,108	14,801,267	4½ "
" 8,...	20,281,455	7,677,728	13,904,702	30,949,096	14,758,607	4½ "

This shows, for the week ending March 8th, a withdrawal of £253,629 from the private deposits, and an addition of £524,987 to the private securities, as compared with the previous week. The decrease in coin and bullion is £42,760. The principal feature in the London market is a dullness in the Government funds (British), and a decline of consols to 88¼, in expectation of gold shipments having to be made to this country. In view of the recent fall in gold on this side, and the probability of the shipment of five-twenties, held in Europe, to this market, in order to realize at the present handsome profit, the expectation of gold shipments to this country may not be well founded.

BANK OF FRANCE.

	Loans.	Cash and Bullion.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Interest.
December 8	fr.566,921,053	fr.355,640,597	fr.722,291,475	fr.178,968,028	5
" 15	586,521,733	351,562,024	739,383,125	161,270,492	5
" 22	561,603,376	364,008,378	721,487,475	153,193,515	4½
" 29	597,157,830	359,969,767	726,212,275	171,321,867	.
January 5	690,129,259	330,071,913	790,526,625	190,488,131	4½
" 12	677,690,909	314,771,593	806,325,675	153,188,384	4½
" 19	667,121,414	318,170,064	817,448,275	142,120,960	4½
" 26	642,779,237	322,119,477	808,283,925	139,123,008	4½

February	2	651,375,290	318,454,492	812,425,525	148,430,627	4½
"	9	636,303,905	339,240,543	805,966,575	153,039,752	4
"	16	604,140,057	354,573,163	801,601,175	139,995,788	4
"	23	584,895,098	371,630,673	785,025,125	150,235,834	4
March	2	569,812,574	381,455,854	772,377,175	192,866,298	4
"	9	544,367,920	410,774,986	773,243,825	166,985,971	3½

An increase of one hundred millions of francs in the stock of coin and bullion, and a decrease of one hundred and fifty millions in the discount line, within two months, are the principal features of this exhibit. They testify to a depression in commerce which is really painful to contemplate. The stock of coin and bullion now exceeds one-half of the notes in circulation. In consequence of this plethora, the rate of interest has been lowered to 3½ per cent.

THE NEW TARIFF.

We give below an official copy of the Tariff Act passed by Congress and approved March 3, 1865. It takes effect the first of April. To understand this law it will be necessary to refer to the tariff acts passed at the previous sessions of Congress and approved July 14, 1862, and June 30, 1864. The former may be found in vol. 47, page 157, (August, 1862,) and the latter in vol. 51, page 47, (July, 1864,) of the *Merchants' Magazine.* In transmitting the act, the Secretary of the Treasury accompanies it with the following circular giving a liberal interpretation to its provisions:

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, March 11, 1865.

SIR: I transmit herewith an act, amendatory of certain acts imposing duties on imports, approved March 3, 1865.

The second proviso in section 4 of this act does not repeal the 4th section of "the act to modify existing laws imposing duties on imports, and for other purposes," approved March 3, 1863. Vessels trading "to or from any port or place south of Mexico, down to, and including Aspinwall and Panama," will pay the tonnage duty of thirty cents per ton, only once a year.

The 9th section enacts "that this act shall take effect on and after the first day of April, eighteen hundred and sixty-five;" consequently, in the absence of any provision of law to the contrary, you will cause the rates of duty imposed by this act to be assessed only on such goods, wares, and merchandise as may be imported on or after the 1st proximo. Goods imported prior to the 1st proximo, whether under bond or otherwise, are not liable to the increased rates imposed by this act.

Applications for relief under the 13th section of this act must be made in the manner prescribed by articles 524, 525, 526, 527, 528, 529, and 530, of the General Regulations; as that section extends the relief provided by the 8th section of the act of March 28, 1854, to the cases specified in said 13th section.

I am, very respectfully,

HUGH MCCULLOCH, Secretary of the Treasury.

OFFICIAL.

Laws of the United States passed at the second session of the Thirty-eighth Congress.

[PUBLIC—NO. 58.]

AN ACT amendatory of certain acts imposing duties upon foreign importations.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That section six of an act entitled "An act to increase the duties on imports and for other purposes," approved June thirty, eighteen hundred and sixty-four, be amended so that paragraph second, third and fourth of section six of said act shall read as follows:

Second. On all manufactures of cotton, (except jeans, denims, drillings, bed tickings, ginghams, plaids, cottonades, pantaloon stuff, and goods of like description,) not bleached, colored, stained, painted, or printed, and not exceeding one hundred threads to the square inch, counting the warp and filling, and exceeding in weight five ounces per square yard, five cents per square yard; if bleached, five cents and a-half per square yard; if colored, stained, painted, or printed, five cents and a-half per square yard, and, in addition thereto, ten per centum ad valorem. On finer and lighter goods of like description, not exceeding two hundred threads to the square inch, counting the warp and filling, unbleached, five cents per square yard; if bleached, five and a-half cents per square yard; if colored, stained, painted, or printed, five and a-half cents per square yard, and in addition thereto, twenty per centum ad valorem. On goods of like description, exceeding two hundred threads to the square inch, counting the warp and filling, unbleached, five cents per square yard; if bleached, five and a-half cents per square yard; if colored, stained, painted, or printed, five and a-half cents per square yard, and in addition thereto, twenty per centum ad valorem.

Third. On all cotton jeans, denims, drillings, bed tickings, ginghams, plaids, cottonades, pantaloon stuffs, and goods of like description, or for similar use, if unbleached, and not exceeding one hundred threads to the square inch, counting the warp and filling, and exceeding five ounces to the square yard, six cents per square yard; if bleached, six cents and a-half per square yard; if colored, stained, painted, or printed, six cents and a-half per square yard, and in addition thereto, ten per centum ad valorem. On finer or lighter goods of like description, not exceeding two hundred threads to the square inch, counting the warp and filling, if unbleached, six cents per square yard; if bleached, six and a-half cents per square yard; if colored, stained, painted, or printed, six and a-half cents per square yard, and in addition thereto fifteen per centum ad valorem. On goods of lighter description, exceeding two hundred threads to the square inch, counting the warp and filling, if unbleached, seven cents per square yard; if bleached, seven and a-half cents per square yard; if colored, stained, painted, or printed, seven and a-half cents per square yard, and, in addition thereto fifteen per cent ad valorem. *Provided*, That upon all plain woven cotton goods, not included in the foregoing schedule, unbleached, valued at over sixteen cents per square yard, bleached, valued at over twenty cents per square yard, colored, valued at over twenty-five cents per square yard, and cotton jeans, denims, and drillings, unbleached, valued at over twenty cents per square yard, and all other cotton goods of every description, the value of which shall exceed twenty-five

cents per square yard, there shall be levied, collected, and paid a duty of thirty-five per centum ad valorem; *And provided further*, That no cotton goods having more than two hundred threads to the square inch, counting the warp and filling, shall be admitted to a less rate of duty than is provided for goods which are of that number of threads.

Fourth. On spool thread of cotton, six cents per dozen spools, containing on each spool not exceeding one hundred yards of thread, and in addition thereto, thirty per centum ad valorem; exceeding one hundred yards, for every additional hundred yards of thread on each spool or fractional part thereof in excess of one hundred yards, six cents per dozen, and thirty-five per centum ad valorem. On cotton thread or yarn when advanced beyond single yarn, by twisting two or more strands together, if not wound upon spools, four (4) cents per skein, or hank of eight hundred and forty (840) yards, and thirty per cent ad valorem.

Sec. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That from and after the day when this act takes effect, in addition to the duties heretofore imposed by law on the importation of the articles mentioned in this section, there shall be levied, collected, and paid the following duties and rates of duty, that is to say:

On brandy, rum, gin, and whisky, and on cordials, liquors, arrack, absynthe, and all other spirituous liquors and spirituous beverages, 50 cents per gallon of first proof and less strength, and shall be increased in proportion for any greater strength than the strength of first proof.

On spun silk for filling in skins or cops, 10 per centum ad valorem.

On iron bars for railroads or inclined planes, 10 cents per 100 pounds.

On wrought iron tubes, one cent per pound.

Sec. 3. *And be it further enacted*, That from and after this act takes effect, in lieu of the duties heretofore imposed by law on the importation of the articles mentioned in this section, there shall be levied, collected, and paid the following duties and rates of duty, that is to say:

On cotton, five cents per pound.

On illuminating oil and naphtha, benzine, and benzole, refined or produced from the distillation of coal, asphaltum, shale, peat, petroleum, or rock oil, or other bituminous substances used for like purposes, forty cents per gallon.

On crude petroleum, or rock oil, 20 cents per gallon.

On crude coal oil, 15 cents per gallon.

On tobacco stems, 15 cents per pound.

On ready made clothing of silk, or of which silk shall be a component material of chief value, 60 per centum ad valorem.

On quicksilver, 15 per centum ad valorem.

Sec. 4. *And be it further enacted*, That section fifteen of an act entitled "An act increasing temporarily the duties on imports, and for other purposes," approved July fourteenth, eighteen hundred and sixty-two, be, and the same hereby is, amended so as to impose a tax or tonnage duty of thirty cents per ton in lieu of "ten cents," as therein mentioned: *Provided*, That the receipts of vessels paying tonnage duty shall not be subject to the tax provided in section one hundred and three of "An act to provide internal revenue to support the government, to pay interests on the public debt, and for other purposes," approved June thirtieth, eighteen hundred and sixty-four, nor by any act amendatory thereof; *Provided*,

further, That no ship, vessel, or steamer having a license to trade between different districts of the United States, or to carry on the bank, whale, or other fisheries, or *on* any ship, vessel, or steamer to or from any port or place in Mexico, the British provinces of North America, or any of the West India Islands, or in all these trades, shall be required to pay the tonnage duty contemplated by this act more than once a year.

Sec. 5. *And be it further enacted*, That the term "statuary," as used in the laws now in force, imposing duties on foreign importations, shall be understood to include professional productions of a statuary, or of a sculptor only.

Sec. 6. *And be it further enacted*, That there shall be hereafter collected and paid on all goods, wares, and merchandise of the growth or produce of countries [east] of the Cape of Good Hope, (except raw cotton and raw silk as reeled from the cocoon, or not further advanced than tram, thrown, or organzine,) when imported from places west of the Cape of Good Hope, a duty of ten per centum ad valorem, in addition to the duties imposed on any such article when imported directly from the place or places of their growth or production.

Sec. 7. *And be it further enacted*, That in all cases where there is, or shall be imposed any ad valorem rate of duty on any goods, wares, or merchandise imported into the United States, and in all cases where the duty imposed by law shall be regulated by, or directed to be estimated or based upon the value of the square yard, or of any specified quantity or parcel of such goods, wares, or merchandise, it shall be the duty of the collector within whose district the same shall be imported or entered, to cause the actual market value or wholesale price thereof, at the period of the exportation to the United States, in the principal markets of the country from which the same shall have been imported into the United States, to be appraised, and such appraised value shall be considered the value upon which duty shall be assessed. That it shall be lawful for the owner, consignee, or agent of any goods, wares, or merchandise, which shall have been actually purchased or procured otherwise than by purchase, at the time and not afterwards, when he shall produce his original invoice or invoices to the collector, and make and verify his written entry of his goods, wares, or merchandise, as provided by section thirty-six of the act of March two, seventeen hundred and ninety-nine, entitled "An act to regulate the collection of duties on imports and tonnage," to make such addition in the entry to the cost or value given in the invoice as in his opinion may raise the same to the actual market value or wholesale price of such goods, wares, or merchandise, at the period of exportation to the United States, in the principal markets of the country from which the same shall have been imported, and it shall be the duty of the collector within whose district the same may be imported or entered, to cause such actual market value or wholesale price to be appraised in accordance with the provisions of existing laws, and if such appraised value shall exceed, by ten per centum or more, the value so declared in the entry, then, in addition to the duties imposed by law on the same, there shall be levied, collected, and paid a duty of twenty per centum ad valorem on such appraised value: *Provided*, That the duty shall not be assessed upon an amount less than the invoice or entered value, any act of Congress to the contrary notwithstanding: *And provided, further*, That the sections twenty-third and twenty-fourth of the act approved June thirtieth, eighteen hun-

dred and sixty-four, entitled "An act to increase duties on imports, and for other purposes," and all acts andrirups gin dut qeao fcsa;tries to be assessed upon commissions, brokerage, costs of transportation, shipment, trans shipment, and other like costs and charges incurred in placing any goods, wares, or merchandise on shipboard, and all acts or parts of acts inconsistent with the provisions of this act are hereby repealed.

Sec. 8. *And be it further enacted*, That so much of an act entitled "An act to authorize protection to be given to citizens of the United States who may discover deposits of guano," approved August eighteen, eighteen hundred and fifty-six, as prohibits the export thereof, is hereby suspended in relation to all persons who have complied with the provisions of section second of said act, for two years from and after July fourteenth, eighteen hundred and sixty-five.

Sec. 9. *And be it further enacted*, That this act shall take effect on and after the first day [of] April, eighteen hundred and sixty-five.

Sec. 10. *And be it further enacted*, That so much of sections thirty-nine, forty, forty-one, forty-two, forty-three, and forty-four of the act entitled "An act to regulate the [collection of] duties on imports and tonnage," approved March second, seventeen hundred and ninety-nine, as requires the branding or marking, and certifying of casks, chests, vessels, and cases containing distilled spirits or teas, be, and the same is hereby, revived, to be executed under such rules and regulations as shall be prescribed by the Secretary of the Treasury.

Sec. 11. *And be it further enacted*, That flax and hemp machinery and steam agricultural machinery, as designated in section 21 of the act, "to increase duties on imports and for other purposes," approved June thirtieth, eighteen hundred and sixty-four, may be imported free from duty for one year from the passage of this act.

Sec. 12. *And be it further enacted*, That in all proceedings brought by the United States in any court for due recovery as well of duties upon imports alone, as of penalties for the non-payment thereof, the judgment shall recite that the same is rendered for duties, and such judgment, interests, and costs shall be payable in the coin by law receivable for duties, and the execution issued on such judgment shall set forth that the recovery is for duties, and shall require the marshal to satisfy the same in the coin by law receivable for duties, and in case of levy upon and sale of the property of the judgment debtor the marshal shall refuse payment from any purchaser at such sale, in any other money than that specified in the execution.

Sec. 13. *And be it further enacted*, That the eighth section of the act of March twenty-third, eighteen hundred and fifty-four, "to extend the warehousing system by establishing private bonded warehouses and for other purposes," which authorized the Secretary of the Treasury, in case of the actual injury or destruction of goods, wares, or merchandise by accidental fire, or other casualty, while in warehouse under bond, &c., to abate or refund the duties paid, or accruing thereon, be extended so as to include goods, wares, or merchandise injured or destroyed in like manner, while in the custody of the officers of the customs, and not in bond; and also to goods, wares, and merchandise, so injured or destroyed, after their arrival within the limits of any port of entry of the United States, and before the same have been bonded [landed] under the *suspension* [supervision] of the officers of the

customs: *Provided*, That this act shall apply only to cases arising from and after its passage, and to cases where the duties have not already been paid.

Approved, March 3, 1865.

AMENDMENTS TO THE UNITED STATES INTERNAL REVENUE LAW.

[We give the following official copy of the Internal Revenue act approved March 3, 1865. The notes are inserted as the readiest mode of pointing out the nature of the several amendments.]

(OFFICIAL COPY.)

AN ACT to amend an act entitled 'An act to provide internal revenue to support the Government, to pay interest on the public debt, and for other purposes,' approved June thirtieth, eighteen hundred and sixty-four.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That the act entitled 'An act to provide internal revenue to support the Government, to pay interest on the public debt, and for other purposes,' approved June thirtieth, eighteen hundred and sixty-four, be, and the same is hereby, amended as hereinafter set forth, namely:

That *section four be amended by striking out the word 'five' and inserting in lieu thereof the word 'ten.'

That †section eight be amended by striking out, after the words 'within each of which the,' the words 'Secretary of the Treasury, whenever there shall be a vacancy, or the public interest shall require, shall appoint, with the approval of the said commissioner, one assistant assessor, who shall be a resident of the district of said assessor,' and inserting in lieu thereof the words 'assessor, whenever there shall be a vacancy, shall appoint, with the approval of said commissioner, one or more assistant assessor[s,] who shall be a resident of such assessment district.'

That ‡section fourteen be amended by striking out the word 'fifty,' and inserting in lieu thereof the words 'twenty-five.'

That ‖section twenty-five be amended by inserting after the words 'four hundred thousand dollars,' the words 'and not exceeding one million of dollars, and one-eighth of one per centum on all sums above one million of dollars;' by inserting after the words 'reasonable charges for,' the word 'advertising;' and by

---

* This increases the number of revenue agents to ten.

† This amendment vests the appointment of assistant assessors in the assessor, and provides for one or more assistants in each division, when necessary.

‡ The assessed penalty for failure to make return is reduced to twenty-five per cent.

‖ Collectors are allowed commissions on the total amount collected, at the rates of three per cent on the first hundred thousand dollars, one per cent on the next three hundred thousand dollars, one-half of one per cent on the next six hundred thousand dollars, and one-eighth of one per cent on all sums above one million dollars. The five thousand and ten thousand dollar limitations are stricken out, so that statements of expenses will be unnecessary, unless additional allowance is asked for. Collectors are also allowed their reasonable charges for advertising in the same manner as for stationery.

striking out all of the first proviso; and by striking out the word 'further,' in the second proviso.

That *section twenty-six be amended by striking out the word 'apportionment,' and inserting in lieu thereof the word 'appointment.'

That †section twenty-eight be amended by striking out all after the enacting clause and inserting in lieu thereof the words, 'That each of said collectors shall, within twenty days after receiving his annual collection list from the assessors, give notice, by advertisement published in each county in his collection district, in one newspaper printed in such county, if any such there be, and by notifications to be posted up in at least four public places in each county in his collection district, that the said duties have become due and payable, and state the time and place within said county at which he or his deputy will attend to receive the same, which time shall not be less than ten days after such notification. And if any person shall neglect to pay, as aforesaid, for more than ten days, it shall be the duty of the collector or his deputy to issue to such person a notice, to be left at his dwelling or usual place of business, or be sent by mail, demanding the payment of said duties or taxes, stating the amount thereof, with a fee of twenty cents for the issuing and service of such notice, and with four cents for each mile actually and necessarily traveled in serving the same. And if such persons shall not pay the duties or taxes, and the fee of twenty cents and mileage as aforesaid, within ten days after the service or the sending by mail of such notice, it shall be the duty of the collector or his deputy to collect the said duties or taxes, and fee of twenty cents and mileage, with a penalty of ten per centum additional upon the amount of duties. And with respect to all such duties or taxes as are not included in the annual lists aforesaid, and all taxes and duties the collection of which is not otherwise provided for in this act, it shall be the duty of each collector, in person or by deputy, to demand payment thereof, in the manner last mentioned, within ten days from and after receiving the list thereof from the assessor, or within twenty days from and after the expiration of the time within which such duty or tax should have been paid; and if the annual or other duties shall not be paid within ten days from and after such demand therefor, it shall be lawful for such collector, or his deputies, to proceed to collect the said duties or taxes, with ten per centum additional thereto, as aforesaid, by distraint and sale of the goods, chattels, or effects of the persons delinquent as aforesaid. And in case of distraint, it shall be the duty of the officer charged with the collection, to make, or cause to be made, an account of the goods or chattels distrained, a copy of which, signed by the officer making such distraint, shall be left with the owner or possessor of such goods, chattels, or effects, or at his or her dwelling, or usual place of business, with some person of suitable age and discretion, if any such can be found, with a note of the sum demanded, and the time and place of sale; and the said officer shall forthwith cause a notification to be published in some newspaper within the county wherein said distraint is made, if there is a newspaper published in said county, or to be publicly posted

---

* The amendment to section 26 is merely verbal.

† Under section 28, as amended, the penalty of ten per cent for non-payment, so far as the annual taxes are concerned, attaches only upon failure to pay within ten days after demand, instead of upon failure to pay at the advertised time.

up at the post office, if there be one within five miles, nearest to the residence of the person whose property shall be distrained, and in not less than two other public places, which notice shall specify the articles distrained, and the time and place for the sale thereof, which time shall not be less than ten nor more than twenty days from the date of such notification, [and] the place proposed for sale not more than five miles distant from the place of making such distraint. And *in any case in which any person, bank, association, company, or corporation required by law to make return to the Commissioner of Internal Revenue shall refuse or neglect to make such return within the time specified, the amount of circulation, deposit, and capital, or either, shall be estimated by the proper assessor or assistant assessor, and shall be certified by him to the Commissioner. And in all cases in which the person, bank, association, company, or corporation required by law to make payment of taxes to the Commissioner shall neglect or refuse to make such payment within the time required, the Commissioner shall certify the amount of tax due by such person, bank, association, or corporation, with all the penalties, additions, and expenses accruing to the collector of the proper district, who shall collect the same by distraint and sale, as in other cases. And† the same proceedings may be had to enforce the collection of taxes which have already accrued and which still remain unpaid. And‡ if any person, bank, association, company, or corporation liable to pay any duty shall neglect or refuse to pay the same after demand, the amount shall be a lien in favor of the United States from the time it was due until paid, with the interests, penalties, and costs that may accrue in addition thereto, upon all property and rights to property; and the collector, after demand, may levy, or by warrant may authorize a deputy collector, to levy upon all property and rights to property belonging to such person, bank, association, company, or corporation, or on which the said lien exists, for the payment of the sum due as aforesaid, with interest and penalty for non-payment, and also of such further sum as shall be sufficient for the fees, costs, and expenses of such levy. And in all cases of sale, the certificate of such sale by the collector shall have the same effect as is prescribed by the one hundred and nineteenth section of the act to which this is an amendment. And‖ all persons and officers of companies or corporations are required, on demand of a collector or deputy collector about to distrain or having distrained on any property and rights of property, to exhibit all books containing or supposed to contain evidence or statements relating to the subject or subjects of distraint, or the property or rights of property liable to distraint for the tax so due as aforesaid: *Provided*, That in any case of distraint for the payment of the duties or taxes aforesaid, the goods, chattels, or effects so distrained shall and may be restored to the owner or possessor, if prior to the sale payment of the amount due or

* This authorizes the assessor or assistant assessor to make the assessment in case of failure to make the return required by section 110; and the next sentence provides for collection of the tax by distraint.

† Taxes heretofore due and unpaid may be collected in the same manner as those hereafter accruing.

‡ Every tax is made a lien from the time it is due, and collectors are authorized to distrain upon securities.

‖ All books containing evidence relating to property, or rights to property, liable to distraint, must be exhibited to the collector upon demand therefor.

tender thereof shall be made to the proper officer charged with the collection of the full amount demanded, together with such fee for levying, and such sum for the necessary and reasonable expense of removing, advertising, and keeping [the] goods, chattels, or effects so distrained, as may be prescribed by the Commissioner of Internal Revenue; but in case of non-payment or tender as aforesaid, the said officer shall proceed to sell the said goods, chattels, or effects, at public auction, and shall and may retain from the proceeds of such sale the amount demandable for the use of the United States, with the necessary and reasonable expenses of distraint and sale, and a commission of five per centum thereon for his own use, rendering the overplus, if any there be, to the person whose goods, chattels, or effects shall have been distrained: *Provided, further*, That there shall be exempt from distraint the tools or implements of a trade or profession, one cow, arms, and provisions, and household furniture kept for use, school books, and apparel necessary for a family.

That *section thirty-eight be amended by striking therefrom the words 'thirty-five,' and inserting in lieu thereof the words 'thirty-six.'

That †section forty be amended by inserting after the words 'appointment of a successor' the words: '*Provided*, That in case it shall appear to the Secretary of the Treasury that the interest of the Government shall so require, he may, by his order, direct said duties to be performed by such other one of the said deputies as he may in such order designate.'

That ‡section fifty-two be amended by inserting before the words 'That all assessors,' the words 'And be it further enacted;' by inserting after the word 'deputies,' the words 'revenue agents;' and by striking out after the word 'charged' the word 'and,' and inserting in lieu thereof the word 'or.'

That ‖section fifty-three be amended by inserting after the word 'distiller,' where it first occurs, the words 'before distilling any spirits,' by striking out after the word 'any,' and preceding the words 'still or stills,' the word 'additional;' by striking out after the word 'used,' and preceding the words 'shall be erected,' the words 'as aforesaid,' and inserting in lieu thereof the words 'for distilling;' and by inserting after the words 'shall be erected,' the words 'or used.'

That §section fifty-four be amended by striking out the words 'the same,' and inserting in lieu thereof the words 'and owning the same, and owning the build-

---

* The amendment to section 38 is merely verbal.

† In case of a vacancy in the office of collector, the Secretary of the Treasury may designate a deputy collector to act as collector.

‡ Revenue agents are authorized to administer oaths, and the authority of assessors, collectors, assistant assessors, deputy collectors, and inspectors, is extended to all cases where oaths are required.

‖ The amendments to section 53 are merely verbal.

§ Section 54 as amended reads as follows: 'That the application in writing made by any person for a license for distilling, as aforesaid, shall state the place of distilling, the number and capacity of the still or stills, boiler or boilers, and the name of the person, firm, company, or corporation using and owning the same, and owning the building used as a distillery, and the land on which the same is located, and if the building or land is leased, the terms and conditions of the lease; and any person making a false statement in either of the said particulars shall forfeit and pay the sum of three hundred dollars, to be recovered with costs of suit.'

ing used as a distillery, and the land on which the same is located, and if the building or land is leased, the terms and conditions of the lease;' and by striking out the word 'one,' and inserting in lieu thereof the word 'three.'

That *section fifty-five be amended by inserting after the words 'said duties shall be a lien,' the words 'on the spirit distilled and;' and by adding at the end of the first proviso the words † except when made and used in the manufacture of vinegar or acetic acid, in which case the duties shall be collected on the basis of the actual proof.'

That ‡section fifty-six be amended by adding at the end of the section the following words, to wit: 'and in all sales of spirits hereafter made, where not otherwise specially agreed, a gallon shall be taken to be a gallon of first proof, according to the standard set forth and declared for the inspection and gauging of spirits throughout the United States.'

That ‖section fifty-seven be amended by striking out the words 'twenty-five,' in the last proviso, and inserting 'fifty' in its place; and by adding to the said proviso the following words, 'and distilled from apples or peaches, shall pay one dollar and fifty cents per gallon.'

That §section fifty-nine be amended by striking out the words 'so inspected and,' and also 'forthwith,' in the last clause of the first sentence; and by adding to the said sentence, after the word 'warehouse,' the words 'before the day prescribed by law for making return of the same;' and ¶ by striking out the words 'one hundred,' and inserting in lieu thereof the words 'three hundred.'

That **section sixty-one be amended by striking out after the words 'and all,' the words 'refined coal oil,' and inserting in lieu thereof the words 'distilled or refined coal-oil, distillate benzoine or benzole;' also by inserting after the word 'warehouse,' and before the words 'and no drawback,' the following words: †† and the same fees shall be paid for exports as are charged to exporters for like services in the custom-house;' and‡‡ by inserting after the words 're-distilled' and before the words 'for export' the words 'or canned.'

---

* The tax is made a lien upon the spirits distilled as well as upon the distillery.

† Low proof spirits made and used in the manufacture of vinegar are to be taxed on the basis of actual proof.

‡ This amendment relates merely to the contract between the purchaser and the seller of spirits, and has no effect upon the amount of duty.

‖ The duty upon brandy distilled from grapes, is fixed at fifty cents per gallon, and upon brandy distilled from apples or peaches, at one dollar and fifty cents per gallon.

§ The clause, as amended, reads as follows: 'And the duty imposed by law shall be paid on all spirits not removed to a bonded warehouse before the day prescribed by law for making return of the same.'

¶ The penalty for changing or fraudulently using an inspection mark for the purpose of evading the tax upon distilled spirits is raised from one hundred to three hundred dollars.

** This amendment allows unrefined coal oil, distillate, benzine and benzole to be placed in bonded warehouses and withdrawn therefrom, in the same manner as refined coal oil.

†† See Treasury Regulations, edition of 1857, article 593, page 326.

‡‡ Distilled spirits and coal-oil may be withdrawn from warehouse for the purpose of being canned for export.

That *section sixty-eight be amended by inserting after the word 'suits' the words 'and shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and be subject to imprisonment for a term not exceeding one year;' and that the proviso to said section be amended by adding after the words 'forfeiture shall have' the word 'been;' and by striking out the word 'the' where it occurs the second time before the word 'nature.'

That †section seventy-four be amended by striking out the word 'or' after the word 'with,' and inserting, in lieu thereof, the word 'one;' and by striking out the words 'and hold the same until the license is produced,' and inserting in lieu thereof the words 'and the assessor of the district in which the seizure has occurred may, on ten days' notice, published in any newspaper in the district, or served personally on the peddler, or at his dwelling-house, require such peddler to show cause, if any he has, why the horses, wagon, and contents, pack, bundle, or basket so seized shall not be forfeited; and, in case no sufficient cause is shown, the assessor may direct a forfeiture, and issue an order to the collector or to any deputy collector of the district for the sale of the property so forfeited; and one-half of the same, after payment of the expenses of the proceedings, shall be paid to the officer making the seizure, and the other half thereof to the collector for the use of the United States.'

That ‡section seventy-nine be amended by inserting in the first paragraph, after the words 'claim agents,' the words 'patent agents;' by striking out, in the same paragraph, the words 'carrying on such,' and inserting in lieu thereof the words 'may carry on;' by striking out, in the same paragraph, the words 'may transact such business;' '*Provided*, ‖ That no license shall hereafter issue until the managers of a lottery now existing shall give bond, in the sum of one thousand dollars, that the person receiving such license shall not sell any ticket, or supplementary ticket of such lottery, which has not been duly stamped according to law;' by inserting, in paragraph nine, § after the words 'other securities,' the words 'for themselves or others;' by striking from said paragraph the words 'and shall make oath or affirmation according to the form to be prescribed by the Commissioner of Internal Revenue that all their transactions are made for a

---

* Brewers and distillers who neglect to comply with all the provisions of law in that behalf, in addition to other penalties, are to be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and be subject to imprisonment for a term not exceeding one year. The other amendments to section 68 are merely verbal.

† The first amendment to section 74 is merely verbal; the second amendment provides for the disposition of goods which may be seized in the possession of a peddler who fails to produce his license when demanded.

‡ The sentence, as amended, reads as follows: 'Any number of persons, except lawyers, conveyancers, claim agents, patent agents, physicians, surgeons, dentists, cattle brokers, horse dealers, and peddlers, may carry on business in copartnership at the place specified in their license, and not otherwise.'

‖ This proviso is an addition to paragraph six, relative to lottery-ticket dealers.

§ Paragraph nine, as amended, reads as follows: 'Brokers shall pay fifty dollars for each license. Every person, firm, or company, except such as hold a license as a banker, whose business it is as a broker to negotiate purchases or sales or stocks, exchange, bullion, coined money, bank notes, promissory notes, or other securities, for themselves or others, shall be regarded as a broker, under this act: *Provided*, That any person holding a license as a banker shall not be required to take out a license as a broker.'

commission;' by *striking out the proviso at the end of paragraph 'twenty-eight;' by adding to paragraph thirty-two the following proviso: '*Provided further*, †That no man between the ages of twenty and forty-five who is not enrolled for military duty, or regularly exempted from enrolment or draft for physical disability, shall be entitled to a license as a peddler.'

By ‡striking out all of paragraph 'forty-nine,' and inserting in lieu thereof the following, to wit:

'Forty-nine. Miners shall pay for each and every license the sum of ten dollars. Every person, firm, or company who shall employ others in the business of mining for coal, or for gold, silver, copper, lead, iron, zinc, spelter, or other minerals, not having taken out a license as a manufacturer, and no other; shall be regarded as a miner under this act: *Provided*, That this shall not apply to any miner whose receipts from his mine shall not exceed annually one thousand dollars.

'Fifty. A license of ten dollars shall be required of every person, firm, or company engaged in the carrying or delivery of money, valuable papers, or any articles for pay, or doing an express business, whose gross receipts therefrom exceed the sum of six hundred dollars per annum. But one license fee of ten dollars shall be required from any one person, firm, or company, in respect to all the business to be done by such person, firm or company on a continuous route, and the payment of such license fee shall cover all business done upon such route by such person, firm, or company, anywhere in the United States; and such license fee shall be required only from the principal in such business, and not from any subordinate.

'Fifty-one. Substitute brokers shall pay one hundred dollars for each and every license, and in addition thereto ten dollars for each substitute procured by him and actually mustered into the military service of the United States. Every person who shall furnish or offer to furnish, for pay, fee, or reward, volunteers, representative recruits, or substitutes for men drafted or liable to be drafted, for the military or naval service of the United States, shall be deemed a substitute broker under this act: *Provided, however*, That persons appointed by any State, county, city, township, or district, or the officers thereof, to procure the enlistment of volunteers or substitutes to fill the quota of such State, county, city, township, or district, for the military service of the United States, under the call of the President of the United States, shall not be considered substitute brokers: *And provided, further*, That such person or agent shall receive no compensation except that which is given by such State, county, town, city, or district.

'Fifty-two. Insurance brokers shall pay twenty-five dollars for each license. Any person who shall negotiate or procure insurance in behalf of another person

---

* This makes insurance agents or brokers liable to license without regard to the amount of their receipts.

† The intention of this proviso is that every person physically qualified for military duty shall be enrolled before procuring a license as a peddler.

‡ The paragraph repealed imposes a license fee upon every person, firm or corporation, engaged in any business, trade, or profession whatsoever, for which no other license is required, whose gross annual receipts therefrom exceed the sum of one thousand dollars per annum.

or party, for which he shall receive any pay, commission, or compensation, shall be regarded as an insurance broker under this act;' and the licenses herein provided for shall take effect on the first day of May next.

That *section eighty-one be amended, by striking therefrom the words 'seventy-three,' and inserting in lieu thereof the words 'seventy-four,' and by striking out the words 'to vinters,' and inserting in lieu thereof the words 'nor to vintners.'

That †section eighty-three be amended, by inserting after the words 'within his district, monthly,' the words 'within ten days from the twentieth day of each month,' and by inserting after the words 'such duties within' the word 'said,' and by striking out after the words 'ten days,' *following* the words 'after demand in writing, delivered to him in person, or left at his house or place of business, or manufactory, or sent by mail.'

That ‡section eighty-four be amended by striking out the words 'eighty-first,' and inserting in lieu thereof the words 'eighty-second,' and by striking out the words 'eighty-fourth,' and inserting in lieu thereof the words 'eighty-fifth.'

That ‖section eighty-six be amended by striking out the words 'deposit at the time of sale,' after the words 'freight from the place of,' and inserting in lieu thereof the word 'manufacture,' and in the next following paragraph by striking out the word 'that,' where it first occurs, and inserting in lieu thereof the word 'the.'

That §section eighty-seven be amended by striking out after the words 'accurately setting' the word 'for,' and inserting in lieu thereof the word 'forth,' and after the words 'description of the manufactured article,' by striking out the words 'the proposed market for the same, whether foreign or domestic,' and by inserting after the word 'assessor,' and preceding the word 'assistant,' the word 'or.'

That ¶section ninety be amended by striking out all after the enacting clause, and inserting in lieu thereof the following: "That any person, firm, company, or corporation, now or hereafter engaged in the manufacture of tobacco, snuff, or cigars of any description whatsoever, shall be, and hereby is, required to make out and deliver to the assistant assessor of the assessment district a true statement or inventory of the quantity of each of the different kinds of tobacco, snuff, flour, snuff, cigars, tinfoil, licorice, and stems held or owned by him or them on the first day of January of each year, or at the time of commencing business

---

* The amendments to section 81 are merely verbal.

† This amendment requires manufacturers to pay the tax within the last ten days of the month, and imposes the penalty of ten per cent for failure so to do.

‡ The amendments to section 84 are merely verbal.

‖ Manufacturers are allowed to deduct freight from the place of manufacture to the place of delivery from the sales price of their goods. The other amendment is merely verbal.

§ These amendments are merely verbal, except that manufacturers of tobacco, snuff, and cigars are not required to include the proposed market for their goods in their statements to the assessor.

¶ The weekly return required of the manufacturers of tobacco, snuff and cigars is dispensed with, and the return is to be made monthly, as in the case of other manufactures; the bond for transportation of tobacco to a bonded warehouse is to be taken by the collector instead of the assessor and imported tobacco, snuff, and cigars may be placed in bonded warehouse as well as domestic.

under this act, setting forth what portion of said goods was manufactured or produced by him or them, and what was purchased from others, whether chewing, smoking, fine-cut, shorts, pressed, plug, snuff-flour, or prepared snuff, or cigars, which statement or inventory shall be verified by the oath or affirmation of such person or persons, and be in manner and form as prescribed by the Commissioner of Internal Revenue; and every such person, company, or corporation shall keep in a book, in such manner and form as said commissioner may prescribe, an accurate account of all the articles aforesaid thereafter purchased by him or them, the quantity of tobacco, snuff, snuff-flour, or cigars, of whatever description sold, consumed, or removed for consumption or sale, or removed from the place of manufacture; and he or they shall, on or before the tenth day of each month, furnish to the assistant assessor of the district a true and accurate copy of the entries in said book during the preceding month, which copy shall be verified by oath or affirmation; and in case the duties shall not be paid within five days, after demand thereof, the *said* collector may, on one day's notice, distrain for the same, with ten per centum additional on the amount thereof, subject to all the provisions of law relating to licenses, returns, assessments, payment of taxes, liens, fines, penalties and forfeitures, not inconsistent herewith in the case of other manufacturers; and such duty shall be paid by the manufacturer or the person for whom the goods are manufactured, as the assessor may deem best for the collection of the revenue; *Provided*, That it shall be the duty of any manufacturer or vender of tinfoil or other material used in covering manufactured tobacco, on demand of any officer of internal revenue, to render to such officer a correct statement, verified by oath or affirmation, of the quantity and amount of tinfoil or other materials sold or delivered to any person or persons named in such demand; and in case of refusal or neglect to render such statement, or of cause to believe such statement to be incorrect or fraudulent, the assessor of the district may cause an examination of persons, books and papers to be made in the same manner as provided in the fourteenth section of this act; *Provided, further*, That manufactured tobacco, snuff, or cigars, whether domestic manufacture or imported, may be transferred, without payment of the duty, to a bonded warehouse, established in conformity with law and treasury regulations, under such rules and regulations and upon the execution of such transportation bonds or other security, as the Secretary of the Treasury may prescribe, said bonds or other security to be taken by the collector of the district from which such removal is made; and may be transported from such a warehouse to a bonded warehouse used for the storage of merchandise at any port of entry, and may be withdrawn from bonded warehouse for consumption on payment of the duty or removed for export to a foreign country without payment of duty in conformity with the provisions of law relating to the removal of distilled spirits, all the rules and regulations and conditions of which, so far as applicable, shall apply to tobacco, snuff, or cigars in bonded warehouse. And no drawback shall in any case be allowed upon any manufactured tobacco, snuff, or cigars, upon which any excise duty has been paid, either before or after it has been placed in bonded warehouse.'

That *section ninety-one be amended by striking out all after the enacting

* The section repealed required manufacturers of tobacco, snuff, and cigars to make a monthly declaration that their several returns had been in accordance with law.

clause, and inserting in lieu thereof the following: "That all manufactured tobacco, snuff, or cigars, whether of domestic manufacture or imported, shall, before the same is used or removed for consumption, be inspected and weighed by an inspector appointed under the fifty-eighth section of the act to which this is an amendment, who shall mark or affix a stamp upon the box or other package containing such tobacco, snuff, or cigars, in a manner to be prescribed by the Commissioner of Internal Revenue, denoting the kind or form of tobacco, and the weight of such package, with the date of inspection and the name of the inspector. The fees of such inspector shall in all cases be paid by the owner of the manufactured tobacco, snuff, or cigars, so inspected and weighed. And the penalties for the fraudulent marking of any box or other package of tobacco, snuff, or cigars, and for any fraudulent attempt to evade the duties on tobacco, snuff, or cigars, so inspected, by changing in any manner the package or the marks thereon, shall be the same as are provided in relation to distilled spirits by existing laws. And all cigars manufactured after the passage of this act shall be packed in boxes. And any manufactured tobacco, snuff, and cigars, whether of domestic manufacture or imported, which shall be sold or pass out of the hands of the manufacturer or importer, except into a bonded warehouse, without the inspection marks or stamps affixed by the inspector, unless otherwise provided, shall be forfeited, and may be seized wherever found, and shall be sold, one-half of the proceeds of such sale to be paid to the informer, and the other moiety to the United States. The Commissioner of Internal Revenue shall keep an account of all stamps delivered to the several inspectors; and said inspectors shall also keep an account of all stamps by them used or placed upon boxes containing cigars, and of all tobacco, snuff, and cigars inspected, and the name of the person, firm, or company for whom the same were so inspected, and return to the assessor of the district a seperate and distinct account of the same; and also to return to the said Commissioner on demand all stamps not otherwise accounted for, and shall give a bond for a faithful performance of all the duties to which he may be assigned, and to return or account for all stamps which may be placed in his hands.

That *section ninety-two be amended by striking out the words 'by this act,' and inserting in lieu thereof the words 'by law.'

That †section ninety-four be amended by inserting after the words 'pea coal' the words 'or coal that will pass through a five-eighth inch and over a three-eighth inch mesh;' in the paragraph relating to gas,‡ by adding after the words 'understood to be,' in the first proviso, the words 'in addition to the gas consumed by said company or other party;' by ‖inserting in the last proviso in the paragraph on gas, after the words 'coal tar,' where they first

---

* The amendment to section 92 is merely verbal.

† The first amendment to section 94 exempts from duty coal that will pass through a five-eighth inch mesh.

‡ The sentence amended reads as follows: 'That the product required to be returned by law by any gas company shall be understood to be, in addition to the gas consumed by said company, or other party, the product charged in the bills actually rendered by the gas company during the month preceding the return.'

‖ Ammoniacal liquor and the products of the manufacture of ammoniacal liquor produced in the manufacture of illuminating gas, are exempt from duty.

occur, the words ' and ammoniacal liquor,' and by inserting after the words ' coal tar,' where they occur the second time in said proviso, the words ' and the products of the manufacture of ammoniacal liquor;' by *inserting after the word ' naptha,' in the paragraph relating to coal illuminating oil, the word ' distillate;' by inserting after the words ' returns, assessments,' the words ' removing to and withdrawing from warehouses;' by striking from the proviso relating to naptha, after the word ' exceeding,' the word ' eighty,' and inserting in lieu thereof the word ' seventy;' by †striking out of the first paragraph relating to ' sugar' the words ' brown or Muscovado;' and by striking out of the second paragraph relating to ' sugar' the words ' all clarified or refined;' and by striking out of the third paragraph relating to ' sugar' the words ' all clarified or refined;' by ‡striking from the paragraph relating to gunpowder the words ' at twenty-eight cents per pound or less, a duty of one cent per pound; when valued above twenty-eight and not exceeding thirty-eight cents per pound, a duty of one and a half cents per pound,' and inserting in lieu thereof ' at thirty-eight cents per pound or less, five per centum ad valorem;' and by striking out, in the last line of said paragraph, the word ' eight,' and inserting in lieu thereof the word ' ten;' by ‖inserting in the paragraph relating to ' bill-heads, printed,' after the word ' circulars,' the words ' law blanks, conveyancers' blanks, and other printed forms;' by §adding at the end of the paragraph relating to printed books the words ' which shall be paid by the publishers thereof;' by ¶inserting in the paragraph relating to photographs, after the words ' being copies of engravings, or works of art,' the words ' when the same are sold by the producer at wholesale at a price not exceeding ten cents each, or are;' by **striking from the paragraph relating to ' hulls, as launched,' the word ' launched,' and inserting in lieu thereof the words ' finished, including cabins, inner and upper works;' by ††inserting after the word ' sewing,' in the proviso to the paragraph relating to ' sails, tents, awnings, and bags,' the words ' or pasting;' by inserting at the end of the paragraph relating to stoves and hollow-ware the following:

---

* Distillate is made subject to the duty of twenty cents per gallon, and naptha of specific gravity exceeding seventy degrees is to be treated as gasoline and subject to the tax of five per cent. *ad valorem.*

† The rate of tax upon sugar produced directly from the cane is made to depend solely upon the color.

‡ The paragraph, as amended, reads as follows: ' On gunpowder, and all explosive substances used for mining, blasting, artillery, or sporting purposes, when valued at thirty-eight cents per pound or less, five per cent. *ad valorem;* and when valued at above thirty-eight cents per pound, a duty of ten cents per pound.'

‖ The paragraph, as amended, reads as follows: ' On bill-heads printed, printed cards and printed circulars, law blanks, conveyancers' blanks, and other printed forms, a duty of five per centum *ad valorem.*'

§ The duty upon printed books, magazines, &c., is to be paid by the publisher.

¶ The paragraph, as amended, reads as follows: ' On photographs, or any other sun-picture, being copies of engravings or works of art, when the same are sold by the producer at wholesale at a price not exceeding ten cents each, or are used for the illustration of books, and on photographs so small in size that stamps cannot be affixed a duty of five per centum *ad valorem.*

** Ships, steamboats, &c, are made taxable upon the hulls as finished, including cabins, inner and upper works, instead of upon the hulls as launched.

†† Shades and bags are to be assessed on the increased value when made by pasting as well as when made by sewing.

'On *railroad chairs, and railroad, boat and ship spikes and tubes, made of wrought iron, five dollars per ton;' by †striking out, in the second proviso of the paragraph relating to 'rivets,' the words 'upon which no duty has been assessed or paid,' and inserting in lieu thereof the words 'the duty to which it was liable;' and after the word 'loops,' in the line following, inserting 'not having been paid;' by striking out the paragraph relating to steam engines, and inserting in lieu thereof the following words: 'On ‡steam, locomotive, and marine engines, including the boilers and all their parts, a duty of five per centum ad valorem: *Provided*, That when such boilers shall have been once assessed and a duty previously paid thereon, the amount so paid shall be deducted from the duties on the finished engine.

'On boilers of all kinds, water tanks, sugar tanks, oil stills, sewing machines, lathes, tools, planes, planing machines, shafting and gearing, a duty of five per centum ad valorem.

'On iron railings, gates, fences, furniture, and statuary, a duty of five per centum ad valorem,' by adding at the end of the paragraph relating to quicksilver, the following: '*Provided*, That quicksilver may be transferred, without payment of the duty, to a bonded warehouse established in conformity with law and treasury regulations, under such rules and regulations and upon the execution of such transportation bonds or other security as *the* Secretary of the Treasury may prescribe; said bonds or other security to be taken by the collector of the district from which such removal is made, and may be transported from such warehouse to a bonded warehouse used for the storage of merchandise at any port of entry; and quicksilver so bonded may be withdrawn from the bonded warehouse for consumption on payment of the duty, or removed for export to a foreign country without payment of duty, in conformity with the provisions of law relating to the removal of distilled spirits, all the rules, regulations, and conditions of which, so far as applicable, shall apply to quicksilver in bonded warehouse; and no drawback shall in any case be allowed upon any quicksilver upon which any excise duty has been paid, either before or after it has been placed in bonded warehouse;' by ‖adding at the end of the paragraph relating to copper and lead ingots the following proviso: '*Provided, however*, That brass made of copper and spelter, on which a duty of three per centum ad valorem shall have been assessed and paid, shall be assessed and pay a duty of three per centum on the increased value only thereof;' by §inserting in the paragraph relating to rolled brass, after the word 'sheets,' the words 'copper, zinc, and brass nails or

---

* These articles were subject to an *ad valorem* duty under the act of June thirtieth, eighteen hundred and sixty-four.

† The proviso, as amended, reads as follows: "*Provided, further*, That castings of iron, and iron of all descriptions advanced beyond pig-iron, blooms, slabs, or loops, the duty to which it was liable in the form of pig-iron, blooms, slabs, or loops, not having been paid shall be assessed and pay, in addition to the foregoing rates of iron so advanced, a duty of three dollars per ton.'

‡ The duty on steam-engines, under the act of June thirtieth, eighteen hundred and sixty-four, was three per cent.

‖ The paragraph to which the proviso is added reads as follows: 'On copper and lead ingots, pigs or bars, and spelter and brass, a duty of three per centum *ad valorem*.'

§ The duty on copper, zinc, and brass nails and rivets is reduced to three per cent.

rivets;' by *adding to the paragraph relating to patent, enameled, and japanned leather the words '*Provided*, That when a duty has been paid on the leather in the rough, the duty shall be assessed and paid only on the increased value;' by †striking out all of the first sentence of the proviso in the paragraph relating to wines or liquors, and inserting in lieu thereof the words '*Provided*, That the return, assessment, collection, and the time of collection of the duties on such wines, and wines made of grapes, shall be subject to the regulations of the Commissioner of Internal Revenue,' by ‡inserting in the paragraph relating to cloth, after the word 'felted,' the words 'articles or;' after the word 'warps,' in the proviso of said paragraph, by striking out the word 'for,' and inserting in lieu thereof the words 'sold before;' by ‖inserting in the paragraph relating to ready-made clothing, after the word 'dress,' the words 'not otherwise assessed and taxed as such,' and by striking out of the same paragraph all after the words 'does not exceed the sum of,' and inserting the words 'one thousand dollars per annum shall be exempt from duty;' by §inserting in the paragraph relating to manufactures of cotton, after the word 'cloths,' in the first proviso, the words 'or articles,' and after the word 'fabrics,' in the second proviso, the words 'or articles;' by striking out the words 'as aforesaid,' where they occur the second time in said proviso, and by inserting at the end of said proviso the words 'and when made wholly by the same manufacturer shall be subject to a duty only of five per centum ad valorem;' by ¶striking out in [the] paragraph relating to diamonds, precious stones, and imitations thereof, and all other jewelry, the word 'ten,' and inserting in lieu thereof the word 'five;' by **striking out of said sec-

* The paragraph to which the proviso is added reads as follows: 'On patent enameled, and japanned leather, and skins of every description, a duty of five per centum *ad valorem*.'

† This authorizes the commissioner to prescribe the mode and time for paying the duties upon wine made of grapes as well as those upon manufactured wines.

‡ The paragraph, as amended, reads as follows: "On cloth and all textile or knitted or felted articles or fabrics of cotton, wool or other materials, before the same has been dyed, printed, or bleached, and on all cloth painted, enameled, shirred tarred, varnished, or oiled, a duty of five per centum *ad valorem*; *Provided*, That thread and yarn, and warps sold before weaving, shall be regarded as manufactures, and be subject to a duty of five per centum *ad valorem*.'

‖ Custom-made clothing is made subject to a duty of five per cent when the annual product exceeds one thousand dollars.

§ The provisos, as amended, read as follows:

'*Provided*, That on all cloths or articles dyed, printed, or bleached, on which a duty or tax shall have been paid before the same were so dyed, printed or bleached, the said duty or tax of five per centum shall be assessed only upon the increased value thereof: *And provided, further*, That any cloth or fabrics or articles, as aforesaid, when made of thread, yarn, or warps, upon which a duty shall have been assessed and paid, shall be assessed and pay a duty on the increased value only thereof; and when made wholly, by the same manufacturer shall be subject to a duty only of five per centum *ad valorem*.'

¶ The duty on jewelry is reduced from ten to five per cent.

** The paragraphs stricken out prescribed the duties upon manufactured tobacco, snuff, and cigars, and required cigars to be inspected and stamped. The paragraphs inserted establish the new rates upon those articles, except upon cigarettes, made of tobacco, enclosed in a paper wrapper, and valued at more than five dollars per hundred packages of twenty-five cigarettes, the duty upon which is five per centum *ad valorem*. The new provisions for the inspection of cigars are found in the amendment to section 91.

tion the several paragraphs from the words 'on cavendish, plug, twist,' down to and including the words 'and the other to the United States,' and inserting in lieu thereof the following:

'On snuff, manufactured of tobacco or any substitute for tobacco, ground dry or damp, pickled, scented, or otherwise, of all descriptions, when prepared for use, forty cents per pound.

'On cavendish, plug, twist, and all other kinds of manufactured tobacco, not herein otherwise provided for, forty cents per pound,

'On tobacco twisted by hand, or reduced from leaf into a condition to be consumed, without the use of any machine or instrument, and without being pressed, sweetened or otherwise prepared, thirty cents per pound.

'On fine-cut chewing tobacco, whether manufactured with the stems in or not, or however sold, whether loose, in bulk, or in rolls, packages, papers, wrappers, or boxes, forty cents per pound.

'On smoking tobacco of all kinds, and imitations thereof, not otherwise herein provided for, thirty five cents per pound.

'On smoking tobacco made exclusively of stems, and so sold, fifteen cents per pound.

'On cigarettes made of tobacco, enclosed in a paper wrapper, and put up in packages containing not more than twenty-five cigarettes, and valued at not more than five dollars per hundred packages, five cents per package.

"On all cigars, cheroots, and cigarettes, made wholly of tobacco, or of any substitutes therefor, ten dollars per thousand cigars;' by inserting in the last paragraph relating to cigars, after the words 'imprisonment not exceeding thirty days,' the words *'And any person furnished with such permit may apply to the assistant assessor or inspector of the district to have any cigars of their own manufacture counted; and on receiving a certificate of the number, for which such fee as may be prescribed by the Commissioner of Internal Revenue shall be paid by the owner thereof, may sell and deliver such cigars to any purchaser, in the presence of said assistant assessor or inspector, in bulk, or unpacked, without payment of the duty. A copy of the certificate shall be retained by the assistant assessor, or by the inspector, who shall return the same to the assistant assessor of the district. The purchaser shall pack such cigars in boxes, and have the same inspected and marked or stamped according to the provisions of this act, and shall make a return of the same as inspected to the assistant assessor of the district, and, unless removed to a bonded warehouse, shall pay the duties on such cigars within five days after purchasing them to the collector of the district wherein they were manufactured, and before the same have been removed from the store or building of such purchaser, or from his possession; and any such purchaser who shall neglect for more than five days to pack and have such cigars duly inspected, and pay the duties thereon according to this act, or who shall purchase any cigars from any person not holding such permit, the duties thereon not having been paid, shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and be fined not exceeding five hundred dollars, and be imprisoned not exceeding six months, at

* This amendment prescribes the conditions under which alone cigars may be sold before inspection.

the discretion of the court, and the cigars shall be forfeited and sold, one fourth for the benefit of the informer, one fourth for the officer who seized or had them condemned, and one half shall be paid to the government.'

That section ninety-six be amended by inserting after the words 'concentrated milk,' the words *'cider and cider-vinegar, and sugar or molasses made from other articles than the sugar-cane;' by †striking out after the words 'use exclusively,' the words 'materials prepared for the manufacture of hoop-skirts exclusively, and unfit for other use, such as,' and inserting in lieu thereof the word 'and,' and by striking out the words 'for joining hoops together,' and inserting in lieu thereof the words 'used in the manufacture of hoop-skirts.'

That ‡section ninety-nine be amended by striking out the words 'gold and silver bullion and coin,' and by striking out the words 'of all contracts for such sales,' and inserting in lieu thereof the words 'upon any sales or contracts for the sale of gold and silver bullion and coin, one-tenth of one per centum on the amount of such sales or contracts.'

That ‖section one hundred and three be amended by adding the following after the word 'vehicle,' where it occurs the second time in the section: '*Provided*, That this section shall not apply to those teams, wagons and vehicles used in the transportation of silver ores from the mines where the same is excavated to the place where they are reduced or worked.'

That section one hundred and three be further amended by inserting after the words 'and any foreign port,' the words 'but such duty shall be assessed upon the transportation of persons and property shipped from a port within the United States, through a foreign territory to a port within the United States, and shall be assessed upon, and collected from, persons, firms, companies or corporations within the United States receiving such freight or transportation.' And that section one hundred and three be amended by adding at the end of said section the following: '*And provided, further*, That no tax under this section shall be assessed upon any person whose gross receipts do not exceed one thousand dollars per annum.'

That §section one hundred and five be amended by striking out, at the end thereof, the words 'for the quarter then next preceding.'

That ¶ section one hundred and nine be amended by striking out, after the words 'one hundred and,' the word 'two,' and inserting in lieu thereof, the word 'three.'

---

* The articles specified are exempt from duty.

† The exemption of materials used in the manufacture of hoop-skirts is limited to cut tapes and small wares.

‡ The tax upon sales, and contracts for the sale, of gold and silver bullion and coin is raised from one-twentieth of one per centum to one-tenth of one per centum.

‖ The amendments to section 103 exempt from duty the receipts of vehicles used in the transportation of silver ores from the mines, and the receipts of persons receiving not more than one thousand dollars per annum, and impose the duty upon receipts for the transportation of persons or property from a port within the United States through a foreign territory to a port within the United States.

A clause in the amendatory tariff act of March 3, 1865, exempts the receipts of vessels paying tonnage duties from the tax imposed in section 103.

§ The amendment to section 105 is merely verbal.

¶ The amendment to section 109 is merely verbal.

That *section one hundred and ten be amended by striking out, after the words 'and redemption thereof,' the words 'nor to any savings bank having no capital stock, and whose business is confined to receiving deposits and loaning the same on interest for the benefit of the depositors only, and which do no other business of banking.'

That †section one hundred and sixteen be amended by striking out all after the enacting clause and inserting in lieu thereof the following: 'That there shall be levied, collected, and paid annually upon the annual gains, profits, and income of every person residing in the United States, or of any citizen of the United States residing abroad, whether derived from any kind of property, rents, interests, dividends, or salaries, or from any profession, trade, employment, or vocation, carried on in the United States or elsewhere, or from any other source whatever, a duty of five per centum on the excess over six hundred dollars and not exceeding five thousand dollars, and a duty of ten per centum on the excess over five thousand dollars; and in ascertaining the income of any person liable to an income tax, the amount of income received from institutions whose officers, as required by law, withhold a per centum of the dividends made by such institutions and pay the same to the Commissioner of Internal Revenue, or other officer authorized to receive the same, shall be included; and the amount so withheld shall be deducted from the tax which otherwise would be assessed upon such person. And the duty herein provided for shall be assessed, collected, and paid upon the gains, profits and income for the year ending the thirty-first day of December next preceding the time for levying, collecting and paying said duty: *Provided*, That income derived from interest upon notes, bonds and other securities of the United States, and also all premiums on gold and coupons shall be included in estimating incomes under this section. *Provided, further*, That only one deduction of six hundred dollars shall be made from the aggregate incomes of all the members of any family, composed of parents and minor children, or husband and wife: *And provided, further*, That net profits realized by sales of real estate purchased within the year for which income is estimated, shall be chargeable as income; and losses on sales of real estate purchased within the year, for which income is estimated, shall be deducted from the income of such year.'

That ‡section one hundred and seventeen be amended by striking out all after the enacting clause, and inserting in lieu thereof the following: 'That in estimating the annual gains, profits and income of any person, all national, State,

---

*Savings banks are made subject to the duties imposed in section 110.

†The changes in section 116 are: first, in the rate of tax on income in excess of five thousand dollars; second, income from dividends, &c., from which a tax has been withheld, is to be included, and the amount of tax withheld is to be deducted from the tax assessed upon the entire income; third, there is a specific provision requiring the return of premiums on gold and coupons; fourth, but one deduction of $600 is allowed in any case from the aggregate incomes of any one family.

‡The changes in section 117 are: first, the allowance of the national income tax as a deduction from income; second, the repeal of the provision allowing the deduction of income from dividends, &c., from which a tax has been withheld, third, interest accruing against the tax payer may be deducted; fourth, the increased value of live stock on hand is not to be included, but merely the amount received for live stock sold.

county and municipal taxes paid within the year shall be deducted from the gains, profits or income of the person who has actually paid the same, whether owner, tenant, or mortgagor; also, the salary or pay received for services in the civil, military, naval, or other service of the United States, including senators, representatives, and delegates in Congress, above the rate of six hundred dollars per annum; also the amount paid by any person for the rent of the homestead used or occupied by himself or his family, and the rental value of any homestead used or occupied by any person or by his family, in his own right or in the right of his wife, shall not be included and assessed as part of the income of such person. In estimating the annual gains, profits, or income of any person, the interest received or accrued upon all notes, bonds and mortgages, or other forms of indebtedness bearing interest, whether paid or not, if good and collectable, less the interest paid by or due from such person, shall be included and assessed as part of the income of such person for each year; and also all income or gains derived from the purchase and sale of stocks or other property, real or personal, and of live stock, and the amount of live stock, sugar, wool, butter, cheese, pork, beef, mutton, or other meats, hay and grain, or other vegetable or other productions, being the growth or produce of the estate of such person sold, not including any part thereof unsold or on hand during the year next preceding the thirty-first of December, until the same shall be sold, shall be included and assessed as part of the income of such person for each year, and his share of the gains and profits of all companies, whether incorporated or partnership, shall be included in estimating the annual gains, profits, or income of any person entitled to the same, whether divided or otherwise. In estimating deductions from income, as aforesaid, when any person rents buildings, lands, or other property, or hires labor to cultivate land, or to conduct any other business from which such income is actually derived, or pays interest upon any actual incumbrance thereon, the amount actually paid for such rent, labor, or interest, shall be deducted; and also the amount paid out for usual or ordinary repairs, not exceeding the average paid out for such purposes for the preceding five years, shall be deducted, but no deduction shall be made for any amount paid out for new buildings, permanent improvements, or betterments, made to increase the value of any property or estate: *Provided*, That in cases where the salary or other compensation paid to any person in the employment or service of the United States shall not exceed the rate of six hundred dollars per annum, or shall be by fees, or uncertain or irregular in the amount or in the time during which the same shall have accrued or been earned, such salary or other compensation shall be included in estimating the annual gains, profits, or income of the person to whom the same shall have been paid, in such manner as the Commissioner of Internal Revenue, under the direction of the Secretary of the Treasury, may prescribe."

That * section one hundred and eighteen be amended by striking out all after the enacting clause, and inserting in lieu thereof the words, "That it shall be the duty of all persons of lawful age to make and render a list or return, in such

* The principal changes in section 118 are the reduction of the penalty for neglect to make return to twenty-five per cent., and the provision that the declaration permitted by the proviso shall not be considered as conclusive of the facts. The other changes are mainly verbal.

form and manner as may be prescribed by the Commissioner of Internal Revenue, to the assistant assessor of the district in which they reside, of the amount of their income, gains, and profits, as aforesaid; and all guardians and trustees, whether as executors, administrators, or in any other fiduciary capacity, shall make and render a list or return, as aforesaid, to the assistant assessor of the district in which such guardian or trustee resides, of the amount of income, gains, and profits of any minor or person for whom they act as guardian or trustee; and the assistant assessor shall require every list or return to be verified by the oath or affirmation of the party rendering it, and may increase the amount of any list or return, if he has reason to believe that the same is understated; and in case any person, guardian, or trustee shall neglect or refuse to make and render such list or return, or shall render a false or fraudulent list or return, it shall be the duty of the assessor or the assistant assessor to make such list, according to the best information he can obtain, by the examination of such person, and his books and accounts, or any other evidence, and to add twenty-five per centum as a penalty to the amount of the duty due on such list in all cases of wilful neglect or refusal to make and render a list or return, and, in all cases of a false or fraudulent list or return having been rendered, to add one hundred per centum, as a penalty, to the amount of duty ascertained to be due, the duty and the additions thereto as penalty to be assessed and collected in the manner provided for in other cases of wilful neglect or refusal to render a list or return, or of rendering a false and fraudulent return: *Provided*, That any party in his or her own behalf, or as guardian or trustee, shall be permitted to declare under oath or affirmation, the form and manner of which shall be prescribed by the Commissioner of Internal Revenue, that he or she, or his or her ward or beneficiary, was not possessed of an income of six hundred dollars, liable to be assessed according to the provisions of this act; or may declare that he or she has been assessed and paid an income duty elsewhere in the same year, under authority of the United States, upon his or her gains and profits, as prescribed by law, and if the assistant assessor shall be satisfied of the truth of the declaration, shall thereupon be exempt from income duty in said district; or if the list or return of any party shall have been increased by the assistant assessor, such party may exhibit his books and accounts, and be permitted to prove and declare under oath or affirmation, the amount of annual income liable to be assessed; but such oaths and evidence shall not be considered as conclusive of the facts, and no deductions claimed in such cases shall be made or allowed until approved by the assistant assessor. Any person feeling aggrieved by the decision of the assistant assessor in such cases may appeal to the assessor of the district, and his decision thereon, unless reversed by the Commissioner of Internal Revenue, shall be final, and the form, time, and manner of proceedings shall be subject to rules and regulations to be prescribed by the Commissioner of Internal Revenue.'

That * section one hundred and nineteen be amended by striking out the words 'for thirty days,' and, after the words 'for ten days after,' inserting the words 'notice and.'

---

*The income tax is made payable immediately after the thirtieth of June, upon ten days' notice.

That * section one hundred and twenty be amended by striking out, at the end thereof, the word 'act,' and inserting in lieu thereof the word 'section.'

That † section one hundred and twenty-five be amended by striking therefrom the word 'and,' following the word 'custody,' and inserting in lieu thereof the word 'any.'

That ‡ section one hundred and thirty-three be amended by adding, at the end thereof, the following words: '*Provided*, That no duty shall be levied in respect of any succession vesting before or subsequent to the passage of this act, where the successor shall be the wife of the predecessor.'

That ‖ section one hundred and thirty-five be amended by striking therefrom the word 'extension,' and inserting in lieu thereof the word 'extinction.'

That § section one hundred and forty-nine be amended by striking out the word 'asment,' and inserting in lieu thereof the word 'assessment.'

That ¶ section one hundred and fifty-eight be amended by striking out all after the enacting clause, and inserting in lieu thereof the following, to wit: 'That any person or persons who shall make, sign or issue, or who shall cause to be made, signed or issued, any instrument, document, or paper of any kind or description whatsoever, or shall accept, negotiate, or pay, or cause to be accepted, negotiated, or paid, any bill of exchange, draft, or order, or promissory note, for the payment of money, without the same being duly stamped, or having thereupon an adhesive stamp for denoting the duty chargeable thereon, with intent to evade the provisions of this act, shall for every such offence forfeit the sum of fifty dollars, and such instrument, document, or paper, bill, draft, order, or note, shall be deemed invalid and of no effect: *Provided*, That the title of a purchaser of land, by deed duly stamped, shall not be defeated or affected by the want of a proper stamp on any deed conveying said land by any person from, through, or under whom his grantor claims or holds title: *And provided, further*, That hereafter, in all cases where the party has not affixed to any instrument required by the one hundred and fifty-first section of the act of June thirtieth, eighteen hundred and sixty-four, or the schedule marked B, thereunto annexed, *and* the stamp thereby required to be thereunto affixed, at the time of making or issuing the said instrument, and he or they, or any party having an interest therein shall be subsequently desirous of affixing such stamp to said instrument, he or they shall appear before the collector of the revenue of the proper district, who shall, upon the payment of the price of the proper stamp required by law, and of a penalty of fifty dollars, and, where the whole amount of the duty denoted by the stamp required shall exceed the sum of fifty dollars, on payment also of interest, at the rate of six per cent, on said duty, from the day on which such

---

*This confines the exemption of return premiums paid by mutual life insurance companies to the tax upon dividends.

†The amendment to section 125 is merely verbal.

‡This exempts real estate passing from a husband to his widow from succession tax.

‖The amendment to section 135 is merely verbal.

§The amendment to section 149 is merely verbal.

¶ Down to and including the first proviso this is the old section, with the insertion of the word 'negotiate' and the reduction of the penalty from two hundred dollars to fifty dollars. The second and third provisos are new, and substantially take the place of section 163.

stamp ought to have been affixed, affix the proper stamp to such instrument, and note upon the margin of said instrument the date of his so doing, and the fact that such penalty has been paid, and such instrument shall thereupon be deemed and held to be as valid to all intents and purposes, as if stamped when made or issued: *And provided, further*, That where it shall appear to said collector, upon oath or otherwise, to his satisfaction, that any such instrument has not been duly stamped at the time of making or issuing the same by reason of accident, mistake, inadvertence, or urgent necessity, and without any wilful design to defraud the United States of the stamp duty, or to evade or delay the payment thereof, then and in such case, if such instrument shall, within twelve calendar months after the making or issuing thereof, be brought to the said collector of revenue to be stamped, and the stamp duty chargeable thereon shall be paid, it shall be lawful for the said collector to remit the penalty aforesaid, and to cause such instrument to be duly stamped.'

That *section one hundred and sixty be amended by inserting before the word 'injury,' the word 'accidental,' and by striking out the words 'while traveling;' also † by striking out after the words 'nor on certificates,' the word 'or,' and inserting in lieu thereof, the word 'of,' and ‡ by striking out the words 'other articles,' and inserting in lieu thereof the word 'hay.'

That ‖section one hundred and sixty-five be amended by striking out in the proviso the words 'act contained,' and inserting in lieu thereof the word 'section.'

That §section one hundred and sixty-seven be amended by striking out the word 'or,' where it occurs the second time, and inserting after the word 'sell,' the words 'expose for sale.'

That ¶section one hundred and sixty-eight be amended by striking out the words 'lucifer or friction matches, and cigar lights or wax tapers.'

That **section one hundred and sixty-nine be amended by inserting after the words 'who shall offer,' the words 'or expose;' and by inserting after the words 'so offered,' the words 'or exposed;' and ††by inserting in the proviso, after the words 'imported articles,' the words 'except lucifer or friction matches, cigar lights, and wax tapers.'

That ‡‡'Schedule B,' preceding section one hundred and seventy-one, be amended in the paragraph marked 'receipts,' by inserting after the word 'pro-

---

* This confers exemption from stamp duty upon contracts of insurance when limited to accidental injury to persons.

† This amendment is merely verbal.

‡ This limits the exemption of certificates of weight or measurement to such as give merely the weight or quantity of animals, wood, coal, or hay.

‖ Medicines compounded according to published formulæ are made subject to *ad valorem* duty.

§ This prohibits the manufacture of articles enumerated in Schedule C, from exposing for sale any articles on which the proper stamp is not affixed.

¶ Lucifer or friction matches, cigar lights, and wax tapers are not to be manufactured in bonded warehouse.

** The first two insertions in section 169, prohibit the exposure for sale by any dealer of articles enumerated in Schedule C, on which the proper stamps are not affixed.

†† This prohibits the sale of imported matches without the proper stamp.

‡‡ This exempts from stamp duty receipts issued by express companies on the delivery of property for transportation.

perty,' the words 'except receipts issued by any persons, firms, or companies doing business as an express or express company on the delivery of any property for transportation,' and * that 'Schedule C,' preceding section one hundred and seventy-one, be amended in all the paragraphs concerning 'playing cards,' by striking out, wherever it occurs, the word 'retail.' Add at the end of the paragraph marked 'receipts,' the following: '*Provided*, † That when two or more persons shall sign the same receipt, one or more stamps, equal in value to the several stamps required by this act may be affixed to said receipts in lieu of said several stamps.'

That ‡ 'Schedule B,' preceding section one hundred and seventy-one, be further amended by striking out the word 'lease,' in the proviso in the clause taxing 'mortgages,' &c.; and also by adding to said proviso the following: '*And provided, further*, That upon each and every assignment of any lease a stamp duty shall be required and paid equal to that imposed on the original instrument, increased by a stamp duty on the consideration or value of the assignment equal to that imposed upon the conveyance of land for similar consideration or value.

That ‖ section one hundred and seventy-one be amended by inserting before the words 'refined coal oil,' the words 'crude petroleum or rock oil;' and after the words 'all descriptions,' by inserting the words 'bullion, quicksilver, lucifer or friction matches, cigar lights, and wax tapers.'

That §section one hundred and seventy-nine be amended by striking therefrom the words 'if a collector or deputy collector,' and by adding at the end of the words 'use of the United States,' the words 'and where any penalty is paid without suit, or before judgment, and a moiety of the same is claimed by any person as informer, the Secretary of the Treasury, on application to him, under such regulations as he shall prescribe, shall determine whether any claimant is entitled to such moiety, and to whom the same shall be paid.

SEC. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That from and after the passage of this act, the proviso to section one hundred and sixty-nine of the act to which this act is an amendment, shall not be held to apply to lucifer matches, friction matches, or other articles made in part of wood, and used for like purposes, nor the cigar lights and wax tapers.

SEC. 3. *And be it further enacted*, That from and after the thirtieth day of June, eighteen hundred and sixty-five, the gross amount of all duties, taxes, and revenues, received or collected by virtue of the several acts to provide internal revenue to support the government and to pay the interest on the public debt,

---

* The manufacturer of playing cards is allowed to affix the stamp appropriate to the price at which he sells, and the subsequent vendor must affix the additional stamp if the advance on price is such as to require it.

† If the full stamp duty is paid, it is immaterial whether there be one or more stamps.

‡ Under the former law the duty on the assignment of a lease was the same as that on the original instrument.

‖ No drawback is to be allowed or paid upon crude petroleum or rock oil, bullion, quicksilver, lucifer or friction matches, cigar lights, or wax tapers.

§ A moiety of all fines, penalties and forfeitures is to be paid to the informer, whether an officer of the revenue or a private citizen; and where penalties are paid without suit, the Secretary of the Treasury is to determine to whom the moiety belongs.

and of any other act or acts that may now or hereafter be in force, connected with the internal revenues, shall be paid by the officers, collectors or agents receiving or collecting the same daily into the treasury of the United States, under the instructions of the Secretary of the Treasury, without any abatement or deduction on account of salary, compensation, fees, cost, charges, expenses or claims of any description whatever, anything in any law to the contrary notwithstanding. And all moneys now directed by law to be paid to the Commissioner of Internal Revenue, including those derived from the sale of stamps, shall be paid into the Treasury of the United States by the party making such payment; and a certificate of such payment stating the name of the depositor, and the specific account on which the deposit was made, signed by the treasurer, assistant treasurer, designated depositary, or proper officer of a deposit bank, and transmitted to, and received by the Commissioner of Internal Revenue, shall be deemed a compliance with the law requiring payment to be made to the commissioner, any law to the contrary notwithstanding: *Provided,* That in districts, where from the distance of the officer, collector or agent receiving or collecting such duties, taxes, and revenues from a proper government depositary, the Secretary of the Treasury may deem it proper, he may extend the time for making such payment, not exceeding, however, in any case, a period of one month.

SEC. 4. *And be it further enacted,* That so much money as may be necessary for the payment of the lawful expenses incident to carrying into effect the various acts relative to the assessment and collection of the internal revenues after the thirtieth day of June, eighteen hundred and sixty-five, until the first day of July, eighteen hundred and sixty-six, and not otherwise provided for, be, and the same is hereby, appropriated from any money in the treasury not otherwise appropriated. And it shall be the duty of such of the colectors of internal revenue as the Secretary of the Treasury may direct to act as disbursing agents to pay the aforesaid expenses without increased compensation therefor and to give good and sufficient bonds and sureties for the faithful performance of their duties as such disbursing agents, in such sum and form as shall be prescribed by the First Comptroller of the Treasury, and approved by the Secretary.

SEC. 5. *And be it further enacted,* That in addition to the duties imposed in section ninety-four of the act to which this is an amendment, as hereinbefore amended, there shall be levied, collected, and paid upon the goods, wares, and merchandise therein mentioned, except as hereinafter otherwise provided, an increase of one-fifth or twenty per centum of the duties or rates of duty now provided in said section, whether ad valorem or specific: *Provided,* That the additional duties or rates of duty herein mentioned shall not apply to coal illuminating oil, refined, and naphtha, benzine, and benzole, wood-screws, paper of all descriptions, printed books, magazines, pamphlets, reviews, and similar publications, cotton, manufactured tobacco, snuff, cigars, cigarettes, and cheroots.

SEC. 6. *And be it further enacted,* That every national banking association, State bank, or State banking association, shall pay a tax of ten per centum on the amount of notes of any State bank or State banking association, paid out by them after the first day of July, eighteen hundred and sixty-six.

SEC. 7. *And be it further enacted,* That any existing bank organized under the laws of any State, having a paid-up capital of not less than seventy-five thou-

sand dollars, which shall apply before the first day of July next for authority to become a national bank under the act entitled 'An act to provide a national currency, secured by a pledge of United States bonds, and to provide for the circulation and redemption thereof,' approved June third, eighteen hundred and sixty-four, and shall comply with all the requirements of said act, shall, if such bank be found by the Comptroller of the Currency to be in good standing and credit, receive such authority in preference to new associations applying for the same: *Provided*, That it shall be lawful for any bank or banking association organized under State laws, and having branches, the capital being joint and assigned to and used by the mother bank and branches in definite proportions, to become a national banking association in conformity with existing laws, and to retain and keep in operation its branches, or such one or more of them as it may elect to retain; the amount of the circulation redeemable at the mother bank and each branch to be regulated by the amount of capital assigned to and used by each.

SEC. 8. *And be it further enacted*, That there shall be levied, collected and paid on all crude petroleum or rock oil that may be produced and sold, or removed for consumption or sale, a duty of one dollar on each and every barrel of not more than forty-five gallons; and all petroleum or rock oil that may be in possession of the producers at the place of production on the day when this act takes effect, shall be held and treated as if produced on that day; and the said duty shall be paid by the owner, agent, or superintendent of the well from which the petroleum or rock oil has been produced within ten days after the time of rendering the account required to be rendered by law of petroleum or rock oil so chargeable with duty; and the said duty shall be a lien upon the same, and on the well producing the same, with the buildings, fixtures, vessels, machinery, and tools, and on the lot or tract of land where the same may be until the said duty shall be paid: and the person paying such duty, if other than the actual owner of said petroleum, shall have a lien on such petroleum for the repayment of the duties so advanced by him: *Provided*, That any person who shall produce petroleum or rock oil, and use or refine the same without having paid the duty as aforesaid, shall, in addition to all other penalties and forfeitures, be liable to pay double the amount of duties as aforesaid thereon. *Provided further*, That when casks, barrels or other vessels are used holding more than forty-five gallons, the excess shall be paid for at the rate of one dollar for every forty-five gallons.

SEC. 9. *And be it further enacted*, That every person who shall be the owner of any well producing petroleum or rock oil, or who shall have such well under his superintendence, either as agent for the owner or on his own account, and every person who shall use any well as aforesaid, either as owner, agent, or otherwise, shall, from day to day, make true and exact entry, or cause to be entered in a book to be kept for that purpose the number of barrels of crude petroleum or rock oil barreled or removed for storage, or for sale, or for consumption; which book shall be opened at all times when required for the inspection of the assessor, assistant assessor, collector, deputy collector or inspector, who may take any memorandums, or transcript thereof; and on the first, eleventh, and twenty-first days of each and every month, or within five days thereafter, the owner, agent, or superintendent shall render to the assessor of the district an account in dupli-

cate of the number of barrels of petroleum or rock oil sold, and of the number of barrels removed for consumption or sale or storage, not before accounted for.

SEC. 10. *And be it further enacted*, That wherever, under the proviso to section one hundred and three, the addition to any fares shall amount to a sum involving the fraction of one cent, any person or company liable to the duty of two and one-half per cent, as in said section provided, shall be authorized to add to such fare one cent in lieu of such fraction.

SEC. 11. *And be it further enacted*, That lucifer or friction matches, and cigar lights and wax tapers may be transferred, without payment of duty, directly from the place of manufacture to a bonded warehouse established in conformity with law and treasury regulations, and upon the execution of such transportation bonds or other security as the Secretary of the Treasury may prescribe, said bonds to be taken by the collector in the district from which such removal is made; and may be withdrawn therefrom for consumption after affixing the stamps thereto as provided by the act to which this act is an amendment, or may be removed therefrom for export to a foreign country without payment of duty or affixing stamps thereto, in conformity with the provisions of the act aforesaid, relating to the removal of distilled spirits, all the rules and regulations and conditions of which, as far as applicable, shall apply to lucifer or friction matches, cigar lights, and wax tapers in bonded warehouse. And no drawback shall in any case be allowed upon any lucifer or friction matches, cigar lights, or wax tapers, upon which any excise duty has been paid, or stamps affixed, either before or after they have been placed in bonded [w]arehouse.

SEC. 12. *And be it further enacted*, That any person required by law to be licensed as a manufacturer of tobacco, snuff, or cigars, before said license is issued, shall give a bond to the United States in such sum as shall be required by the collector, and with one or more sureties to be approved by the collector, conditioned that he will comply with all the requirements of law in regard to any persons, firms, companies, or corporations, engaged in the manufacture of tobacco, snuff, or cigars; that he will not manufacture nor employ others to manufacture tobacco, snuff, or cigars, without first obtaining the requisite permit for such manufacture; that he will not engage in any attempt by himself or by collusion with others to defraud the Government of any duty or tax on any manufacture of tobacco, snuff, or cigars; that he will render truly and correctly all the returns, statements, and inventories prescribed for manufacturers of tobacco, snuff, and cigars, and will pay to the collector of the district all the duty or taxes which may or should be assessed and due on any tobacco, snuff, or cigars, so manufactured, and that he will not knowingly sell, purchase, or receive for sale any such tobacco, snuff, or cigars, which has not been inspected, branded, or stamped, as required by law, or upon which the tax has not been paid.

SEC. 13. *And be it further enacted*, That all persons and every person who shall engage or be concerned in the business of a lottery dealer without having first obtained a license so to do, under such rules and regulations as shall be prescribed by the Secretary of the Treasury, shall forfeit and pay a penalty of one thousand dollars, to be assessed by the assessor of the proper district and collected as assessed taxes are collected, subject, nevertheless, to the provisions of law relating to erroneous assessments, and shall, on conviction by any court of competent

jurisdiction, suffer imprisonment for a period not exceeding a year, at the discretion of the court. And it shall be the duty of all managers and proprietors, and their agents, to keep, or cause to be kept, just and true books of account wherein all their transactions shall be plainly and legibly set forth, which books of account shall at all reasonable times and hours be subject to the inspection of the assessor, assistant assessor, revenue agent, and inspector of the proper district; and any manager, proprietor, agent, or vender under this act, who shall refuse or prohibit such inspection of his or their books, as aforesaid, shall pay a penalty of one thousand dollars or suffer imprisonment for a term not exceeding one year for every such offence.

SEC. 14. *And be it further enacted*, That the capital of any State bank or banking association which has ceased or shall cease to exist, or which has been or shall be converted into a National Bank, for all the purposes of the act to which this is an amendment, shall be assumed to be the capital as it existed immediately before such bank ceased to exist or was converted as aforesaid. And whenever the outstanding circulation of any bank, association, corporation, company, or person shall be reduced to an amount not exceeding five per centum of the chartered or declared capital, existing at the time the same was issued, said circulation shall be free from taxation. And whenever any State bank or banking association has been converted into a national banking association, and such national banking association has assumed the liabilities of such State bank or banking association, including the redemption of its bills, such national banking association shall be held to make the required return and payment on the circulation outstanding, so long as such circulation shall exceed five per centum of the capital before such conversion of such State Bank or banking association.

SEC. 15. *And be it further enacted*, That in any port of the United States in which there is more than one collector of internal revenue, the Secretary of the Treasury shall designate one of said collectors to have charge of all matters relating to the exportation of articles subject to duty under the laws to provide internal revenue; and at such ports as the Secretary of the Treasury may deem necessary there shall be an officer appointed by him to superintend all matters of expertation and drawback, under the direction of the collector, whose compensation therefor shall be prescribed by the Secretary of the Treasury, not exceeding, however, in any case, an annual rate of two thousand dollars, which, together with the office expenses of such superintendence, shall not be included in the maximum of the aggregate expenses of the office of the said collector. And all books, papers, and documents in the bureau of drawback in the different ports, relating to the drawback of duties paid under the internal revenue laws, shall be delivered to said collector of internal revenue.

SEC. 16. *And be it further enacted*, That all provisions of any former act inconsistent with the provisions of this act are hereby repealed: *Provided however*, That no duty imposed by any previous act, which has become due or of which return has been or ought to be made, shall be remitted or released by this act, but the same shall be collected and paid, and all fines and penalties heretofore incurred shall be enforced and collected, and all offences heretofore committed shall be punished as if this act had not been passed; and the Commissioner of Internal Revenue, under the direction of the Secretary of the Treasury, is authorized to

make all necessary regulations and to prescribe all necessary forms and proceedings for the collection of such taxes and the enforcement of such fines and penalties for the execution of the provisions of this act.

SEC. 17. *And be it further enacted*, That the privilege of purchasing supplies of goods imported from foreign countries for the use of the United States, duty free, which now does or hereafter shall exist by provision of law, shall be extended, under such regulations as the Secretary of the Treasury may prescribe, to all articles of domestic production which are subject to tax by the provisions of this act.

SEC. 18. *And be it further enacted*, That this act shall be in force and effect on and after the first day of April, in the year eighteen hundred and sixty-five, unless otherwise provided by this act.*

SEC. 19. *And be it further enacted*, That the Secretary of the Treasury is hereby authorized to appoint a commission, consisting of three persons, to inquire and report, at the earliest practical moment, upon the subject of raising, by taxation, such revenue as may be necessary in order to supply the wants of the government, having regard to, and including, the sources from which such revenue should be drawn, and the best and most efficient mode of raising the same, and to report the form of a bill; and that such commission have power to inquire into the manner and efficiency of the present and past methods of collecting the internal revenue, and to take testimony in such manner and under such regulations as may be prescribed by the Secretary of the Treasury. And such commissioners shall receive for their services three hundred dollars a month for the time necessarily employed, and their necessary travelling expenses.

SEC. 20. *And be it further enacted*, That the Secretary of the Treasury may, at any time, prior to the first day of July, eighteen hundred and sixty-six, assign to the office of the Commissioner of Internal Revenue such number of clerks as he may deem necessary, or the exigencies of the public service may require; and the privilege of franking all letters and documents pertaining to the duties of his office, and of receiving, free of postage, all such letters and documents, is hereby extended to said Commissioner.

Approved, March 3, 1865.

* The provision requiring cigars to be packed in boxes, and that relating to imported matches, (sec. 2,) take effect from the passage of the act. The amendment relating to licenses take effect May 1.

NATIONAL BANK CURRENCY.

BY an amendment to the National Currency Act, passed at the late session of Congress, the amount of circulation contemplated by that act is to be apportioned to the different States and Territories. In view of this fact, Mr. HUGH M'CULLOCH, Comptroller of the Currency, issued a circular, saying:—"All persons, therefore, who contemplate the organization of National Banks, other than those whose papers have been filed or whose applications have been approved, are requested to suspend operations until the necessary data can be collected and the required apportionment can be made. State banks contemplating a change of organization can proceed without interruption."

THE CROPS OF 1863 AND 1864.

Mr. ISAAC NEWTON, the Commissioner of Agriculture at Washington, has published in advance of his report, the following tables, showing the amount, the yield per acre, the whole average, the price per bushel, and the total value of the crops of 1863 and 1864:

AMOUNT OF CROPS.

	1863. Bushels.	1864. Bushels.	Increase. Bushels.	Decrease. Bushels.
Indian corn	397,839,212	530,451,403	132,612,191	.....
Wheat	173,677,928	160,695,823	.....	12,982,105
Rye	19,989,335	19,872,975	.....	116,360
Oats	170,129,864	175,990,194	5,860,330	.....
Barley	12,158,895	10,716,328	.....	1,442,567
Buckwheat	15,786,122	18,700,540	2,914,418	.....
Potatoes	98,965,198	96,532,029	.....	2,433,169
Total	888,546,554	1,012,959,292	141,386,939	16,974,201
Tobacco.....lbs.	163,353,082	197,460,229	34,107,147	.....
Hay .....tons	18,346,730	18,116,691	.....	230,039

AVERAGE OF CROPS.

Indian corn	15,312,441	17,438,752	2,126,311	.....
Wheat	13,098,936	13,158,089	59,153	.....
Rye	1,439,607	1,410,983	.....	28,624
Oats	6,686,174	6,461,750	.....	224,424
Barley	557,299	540,317	.....	16,982
Buckwheat	1,054,060	1,051,700	.....	2,360
Potatoes	1,129,804	902,295	.....	227,509
Tobacco.....lbs.	216,423	239,826	23,403	.....
Hay .....tons	15,641,504	15,034,564	.....	606,940
Total	55,136,248	56,238,276	2,208,867	1,106,839

VALUE OF CROPS.

Indian corn	$278,089,609	527,718,183	249,628,574	.....
Wheat	197,992,837	294,315,119	96,322,282	.....
Rye	20,589,015	31,975,013	11,385,998	.....
Oats	105,990,905	139,381,247	33,390,342	.....
Barley	13,496,373	16,941,023	3,444,650	.....
Buckwheat	12,660,469	21,986,763	9,326,294	.....
Potatoes	55,024,650	77,184,043	22,159,393	.....
Tobacco	24,239,609	29,335,225	5,095,616	.....
Hay	247,680,855	365,707,074	118,026,219	.....
Total	$955,764,322	1,504,543,690	548,779,368	.....

TABLE OF COMPARISON BETWEEN 1863 AND 1864.

Total bush	888,546,554	959,821,150	21,274,596	.....
Tobacco.....lbs.	163,353,082	140,503,760	.....	22,849,322
Hay .....tons	18,346,730	18,004,366	.....	342,264
Average	55,136,248	53,950,797	.....	1,185,451
Value crops	$955,764,322	$1,440,415,435	$484,651,113	.....

The value of crops, the market value of gold when the prices were taken, and the per cent increase of the value of both are as follows:

Years.	Value crops.	Rate gold.	Per ct. inc. Gold value.	Per ct. inc. Value crops.
1862	$706,887,495	131	..	..
1863	955,764,322	147	12	35
1864	1,440,415,435	227	54	50

The relative difference of 1863 and 1864 between the increase of gold value and of the value of crops, shows that, of the advance in the value of crops in 1863, twenty-three per cent over the gold value was caused by the demand of government for war purposes; but in 1864, great as was the increase in the value of the crops, being $484,651,113, it was four per cent less than the increase in the value of gold. This proportional decrease was doubtless caused by the decrease of exports in 1864.

THE ATLANTIC TELEGRAPH CABLE.

The new Atlantic cable, which is now in process of manufacture in England, is to be about two thousand five hundred miles long, allowing four or five hundred miles for all contingencies. Its core, through which the electricity passes, is to be composed of seven strands of the best copper wire, making together over seventeen thousand miles of copper wire; this is to be enclosed in eight coats or layers of insulating material; then follow ten coatings of jute, and ten iron wires. Each wire is covered separately with five twists or strands of yarn.

About eight hundred miles of this cable is now ready, and is being placed on board of the Great Eastern, and will fill one of three large tanks prepared to receive it. It is intended that in June next the whole two thousand five hundred miles of the cable will be ready to pay out from the Great Eastern, and be sunk "down among the dead men," who, for once, will have their connection with the living world of humanity resumed wherever their bones come into contact with the cable.

THE NEWSPAPER TRADE.

Ten years ago, the whole amount of business done by the wholesale newsagents did not probably exceed in amount the sum of $750.000 yearly. Now the cash receipts of the American News Company of New York, for the sale of newspapers, magazines, books and stationery, for the eleven months ending with the thirty-first of December last, have reached the sum of $2,226,372 83. We learn from the office of that company, that probably forty millions of newspapers were handled within that time by persons in the employ of the company, of whom seventy were constantly occupied in getting them in, charging, distributing and shipping them. For wrapping paper and twine, with which to pack this enormous mass, the company paid twelve thousand dollars.

CONTENTS OF APRIL NUMBER.

1. The House of Hapsburg in America. By Professor Andrew Ten Brook 249
2. The Legal Tender Act. By Albert Stickney, Esq. 259
3. Hon. Thurlow Weed. By Matthew Hale Smith 268
4. National Finance with Legal Tender 271
5. Commercial Law.—No. 20. Bankruptcy and Insolvency 280
6. Commercial Chronicle and Review 287
7. Journal of Banking, Currency, and Finance 293
8. The New Tariff 296
9. Amendments to the United States Internal Revenue Law 301
10. National Bank Currency 306
11. The Crops of 1863 and 1864 317
12. The Atlantic Telegraph Cable 326
13. The Newspaper Trade 328

form and manner as may be prescribed by the Commissioner of Internal Revenue, to the assistant assessor of the district in which they reside, of the amount of their income, gains, and profits, as aforesaid; and all guardians and trustees, whether as executors, administrators, or in any other fiduciary capacity, shall make and render a list or return, as aforesaid, to the assistant assessor of the district in which such guardian or trustee resides, of the amount of income, gains, and profits of any minor or person for whom they act as guardian or trustee; and the assistant assessor shall require every list or return to be verified by the oath or affirmation of the party rendering it, and may increase the amount of any list or return, if he has reason to believe that the same is understated; and in case any person, guardian, or trustee shall neglect or refuse to make and render such list or return, or shall render a false or fraudulent list or return, it shall be the duty of the assessor or the assistant assessor to make such list, according to the best information he can obtain, by the examination of such person, and his books and accounts, or any other evidence, and to add twenty-five per centum as a penalty to the amount of the duty due on such list in all cases of wilful neglect or refusal to make and render a list or return, and, in all cases of a false or fraudulent list or return having been rendered, to add one hundred per centum, as a penalty, to the amount of duty ascertained to be due, the duty and the additions thereto as penalty to be assessed and collected in the manner provided for in other cases of wilful neglect or refusal to render a list or return, or of rendering a false and fraudulent return: *Provided*, That any party in his or her own behalf, or as guardian or trustee, shall be permitted to declare under oath or affirmation, the form and manner of which shall be prescribed by the Commissioner of Internal Revenue, that he or she, or his or her ward or beneficiary, was not possessed of an income of six hundred dollars, liable to be assessed according to the provisions of this act; or may declare that he or she has been assessed and paid an income duty elsewhere in the same year, under authority of the United States, upon his or her gains and profits, as prescribed by law, and if the assistant assessor shall be satisfied of the truth of the declaration, shall thereupon be exempt from income duty in said district; or if the list or return of any party shall have been increased by the assistant assessor, such party may exhibit his books and accounts, and be permitted to prove and declare under oath or affirmation, the amount of annual income liable to be assessed; but such oaths and evidence shall not be considered as conclusive of the facts, and no deductions claimed in such cases shall be made or allowed until approved by the assistant assessor. Any person feeling aggrieved by the decision of the assistant assessor in such cases may appeal to the assessor of the district, and his decision thereon, unless reversed by the Commissioner of Internal Revenue, shall be final, and the form, time, and manner of proceedings shall be subject to rules and regulations to be prescribed by the Commissioner of Internal Revenue.'

That * section one hundred and nineteen be amended by striking out the words 'for thirty days,' and, after the words 'for ten days after,' inserting the words 'notice and.'

---

*The income tax is made payable immediately after the thirtieth of June, upon ten days' notice.

That * section one hundred and twenty be amended by striking out, at the end thereof. the word 'act,' and inserting in lieu thereof the word 'section.'

That † section one hundred and twenty-five be amended by striking therefrom the word 'and,' following the word 'custody,' and inserting in lieu thereof the word 'any.'

That ‡ section one hundred and thirty-three be amended by adding, at the end thereof, the following words: '*Provided*, That no duty shall be levied in respect of any succession vesting before or subsequent to the passage of this act, where the successor shall be the wife of the predecessor.'

That ‖ section one hundred and thirty-five be amended by striking therefrom the word 'extension,' and inserting in lieu thereof the word 'extinction.'

That § section one hundred and forty-nine be amended by striking out the word 'assment,' and inserting in lieu thereof the word 'assessment.'

That ¶ section one hundred and fifty-eight be amended by striking out all after the enacting clause, and inserting in lieu thereof the following, to wit: 'That any person or persons who shall make, sign or issue, or who shall cause to be made, signed or issued, any instrument, document, or paper of any kind or description whatsoever, or shall accept, negotiate, or pay, or cause to be accepted, negotiated, or paid, any bill of exchange, draft, or order, or promissory note, for the payment of money, without the same being duly stamped, or having thereupon an adhesive stamp for denoting the duty chargeable thereon, with intent to evade the provisions of this act, shall for every such offence forfeit the sum of fifty dollars, and such instrument, document, or paper, bill, draft, order, or note, shall be deemed invalid and of no effect: *Provided*, That the title of a purchaser of land, by deed duly stamped, shall not be defeated or affected by the want of a proper stamp on any deed conveying said land by any person from, through, or under whom his grantor claims or holds title: *And provided, further*, That hereafter, in all cases where the party has not affixed to any instrument required by the one hundred and fifty-first section of the act of June thirtieth, eighteen hundred and sixty-four, or the schedule marked B, thereunto annexed, *and* the stamp thereby required to be thereunto affixed, at the time of making or issuing the said instrument, and he or they, or any party having an interest therein shall be subsequently desirous of affixing such stamp to said instrument, he or they shall appear before the collector of the revenue of the proper district, who shall, upon the payment of the price of the proper stamp required by law, and of a penalty of fifty dollars, and, where the whole amount of the duty denoted by the stamp required shall exceed the sum of fifty dollars, on payment also of interest, at the rate of six per cent, on said duty, from the day on which such

---

*This confines the exemption of return premiums paid by mutual life insurance companies to the tax upon dividends.

†The amendment to section 125 is merely verbal.

‡This exempts real estate passing from a husband to his widow from succession tax.

‖The amendment to section 135 is merely verbal.

§The amendment to section 149 is merely verbal.

¶ Down to and including the first proviso this is the old section, with the insertion of the word 'negotiate' and the reduction of the penalty from two hundred dollars to fifty dollars. The second and third provisos are new, and substantially take the place of section 163.

THE

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE

AND

COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

MAY, 1865.

ABRAHAM LINCOLN.

By Matthew Hale Smith.

The past month will ever be most remarkable in our country's history as furnishing perhaps its brightest and darkest pages, illustrating in that short period the two extremes of intense national joy and intense national grief. The lights and shadows of the picture could not be more strongly marked. Victory after victory had filled all hearts with gladness, until, at length, this most formidable rebellion was left without a capital, without a government, without a military organization, and one earnest, united, joyful hallelujah of a country saved re-echoed throughout the length and breadth of the land. Then, as if to add one more drop to the full cup of happiness, came the welcome proclamation that no further armies were needed, for peace was at hand. With how light a heart each one went through his daily duties on that fourteenth of April! The gray-haired man looked younger, and the child's laugh sounded merrier than for many a weary month and year before, and on all sides could be heard the earnest, joyful prayer—God bless Abraham Lincoln. But, before midnight, came the announcement of the death of the very one upon whom every eye was fastened, and about whom a nation's hopes were clustered. Nor was it to him a peaceful folding of the hands to sleep, but an unnatural, violent, cruel end, at the hand of a cowardly assassin. To portray the sudden grief thus brought upon the nation is impossible. Every face showed it, every voice spoke it, and, instead of yesterday's rejoicing, a cloud of profound sorrow darkened the entire land. The head was stricken, and all the members of the national body quivered with agony.

THE DAY BEFORE THE ASSASSINATION.

Everything relating to Mr. Lincoln, especially to the closing days of his eventful life, has a mournful interest at this time. It was the privilege of the writer to be at the executive mansion on Thursday, the day before the

assassination. Since the inauguration, the President has been run down with calls of all descriptions. Before the morning mail was assorted, and sometimes before the President had breakfasted, office-seekers and their associates would be roaming round the White House, invading the private apartments in search of Mr. LINCOLN. His good nature and kindness of heart induced him to give an audience to almost every one who sought it, till the raid on his rooms became a positive nuisance, and hindered public business, and denied to the President any moments of leisure. If the heads of department of the City of New York find it impossible to transact public business unless the public are shut out, and calls limited in business hours to those only who have business with the departments; if our leading merchants, among whom are STEWART, and men of his range of business, are compelled to put a guard at their doors, and demand of all comers, for what they call, that their business may be transacted—how much more should the President of the United States be protected against that which is more burdensome than all the duties of his office, and which, in more than one instance, has literally worn the executive into the grave. On reaching the White House, a few minutes before ten o'clock—the hour appointed for public reception—a crowd was seen on the front steps awaiting the opening of the doors. A placard hanging from the bell handle announced that "positively no person admitted till ten o'clock." On the opening of the doors a rush was made for the Chamber of Audience, resembling a rush for dinner on board an over-crowded steamboat. The ante-chamber presented a sight. Senators, members of Congress, governors, judges, lawyers, generals, corporals, office-holders, office-seekers, sick soldiers and lame, colored men and boys. There were seats for four persons, and there were fifty persons in the room. Men sat on the window sill, on the steps, on the wood-box, and on a champagne basket. Some reclined on the floor, and some walked impatiently about. Many had been in attendance for twenty-four hours, and some for twenty-four days. They had sent in their cards daily, and waited for the moving of the waters, no-wise discouraged though another stepped in before them. Every card was taken in by the gentlemanly usher, and laid before the President, and his face glowed with satisfaction whose name was announced with the assurance the President "will see you, Sir." Members of the Cabinet were coming and going all day. They had the preference over all others, and were admitted without question or announcement. While the crowd were waiting for an interview, a gentleman walked up the stairs unattended, passed through the ante-chamber, and into the room of the private Secretary of the President. He seemed about fifty years of age, tall, well built, with black hair, without whiskers or mustache. He was genteely dressed in a black frock, pants, and satin vest. His appearance would attract attention anywhere as that of a man of mark. He spoke to no one, no one spoke to him. With his head inclined, like one on whom grave cares rested, he entered and closed the door of the room adjoining that in which the President sat. It was casually remarked, "That is ANDY JOHNSON, the Vice-President." He was not then in power. No one supposed him of consequence enough to be spoken to. Had those courtiers known what a day would bring forth, they would have asked the privilege of removing the dust from Mr. JOHNSON'S boots. Those who were fortunate enough to obtain access to the President's room that day could not fail to notice his robust health, his genial spirit, and unbounded humor,

his hopeful tone for the future, his firm belief that the black cloud over our national horizon would soon be rolled back, and peace be proclaimed throughout the land. None could believe that in a few hours he would be cold in death, and the nation mourn over him with a great lamentation.

MR. LINCOLN'S EARLY LIFE.

Mr. LINCOLN was born in LaRue County, in the State of Kentucky, on the 12th of February, 1809. He came from a poor but honest parentage, and received a good constitution and good principles as his inheritance. He knew toil, suffering, and hard usage. But he had a genial humor that compensated and softened his hard lot. With his early labor as a lad—tending cattle or driving the plow—cutting his way through the woods with his axe—splitting rails to fence in the farm of JOHN HUNTER, or putting his shoulder to the pole as a flat-boatman—he was far happier than the pampered child of luxury. He made a pleasure of toil, and, through a long life, cultivated that "merry heart that doeth good like a medicine." Mr. LINCOLN was a self-made man in the best sense of that term. His educational privileges were few. Common schools were not known in the home of his youth, and he had no means to purchase the priceless boon of learning. But, with a vigorous constitution, he had that thirst for knowledge, a resolution to elevate himself, that prompted him to embrace every opportunity to gain information—to tread all the paths of knowledge he could find, and to drink at every open fountain. Diligent in his calling, and industrious in his aims, he gained an education that enabled him to stand among the peers of the land, and to rule this great nation with credit and wisdom.

He is a good illustration of what our noble land can do for its humblest children. No man is so poor, or so ignorant, that a blessing may not rest on his household. The child of the lowly and of the exile, can gain an education free as the air, and good as that which VICTORIA can give her titled children, with the treasury of her kingdom at her command. The sons of coal heavers and porters become millionaires. The store boy of one generation becomes the princely merchant of the next. The glory of a nation is not its palaces, its luxury, its gold and silver and precious stones, its marble halls, its statuary and paintings. It is in intelligent toil, which is the charm of life, in its thousands workshops, in its marts of trade, in the moral rank of mechanical labor. By these, cities rise—schools, those hiding places of a nation's power, abound—colleges grace the land—churches bless the people—enduring prosperity covers all the habitations of those whose walls are salvation and whose gates are praise. No nation can be tranquil, and no man blest, without employment. The nations who rule the world are marked by intelligent industry. England is called a "nation of shopkeepers," but on her domain the sun never sets. When Dr. JOHNSON expressed his hate of Scotland, because the men and the horses ate the same food, it was significantly asked him where he could find better men or better horses. Where spicy breezes blow softly over the land, and the fruits of the earth come forth without the sweat of labor, there "man is vile." The noblest men of our nation have laid the foundation of their fame and usefulness in the early toil that made their bodies rugged and gave them independence of soul. WASHINGTON blest the discipline that attended his early career as a surveyor. FRANKLIN educated himself at the printing-

press, and amid the daily work of a laborious trade. It was worth sending a letter to France to tell the then Minister at St. Cloud, that his son, JOHN QUINCY, was going to be a man as he rode post to Boston from Braintree with the mail, and did it well. WEBSTER was never ashamed of the log cabin home of his mother, so far on the frontier that the smoke of no white man's hut stood between it and the Canadian line. He never tired of telling of his first investment of the little money earned by hard work with which he bought of a roving peddler a cotton handkerchief, on which was printed the Constitution of the United States—nor how in that home, too poor to allow a candle, he sought out the best pitch knot on the farm, and by its light, as he lay on the hearth, he committed that wonderful instrument to memory. I followed in his wake on his last eastern tour when he sought the little town of Fryburgh, in the State of Maine, to look once more on those "town records" that he, in his early days, wrote with his own hand to eke out a scanty living. Of those memorials of his early resolute purpose to rise he was justly as proud as of any speech or paper that commands the admiration of the world. With the noble army of self-made men, Mr. LINCOLN was not ashamed to array himself. He took no pains to hide his humble birth, or the struggles with ignorance and poverty that attended his upward steps. In 1860, he was in New York. He visited one of the missions at Five Points, and made an address. He detailed his poverty and early struggles, the principles on which he had acted, how success had attended, "And now children," said he, "I am a lawyer."

MR. LINCOLN'S PUBLIC LIFE.

It is not our purpose to write a full biography of Mr. LINCOLN. His public career is well known. His life will be a study for the generations that are to come after us. He ate no bread of idleness. He entered any open field, when in want of employment, that presented itself. At one time we find him in a small country grocery, and then tending a flouring mill. Not succeeding as principal, he became a clerk. On the breaking out of the Black-Hawk War he volunteered and was elected Captain of a company from New Salem. While his company wearied at the privations and exposures of camp life, their Captain, cheerful, jovial, and untiring, kept up the spirits of the party. With an ardent, active, ruling mind he became a politician amid a community that demanded a leader. He studied law under great difficulties, and made himself an equal among the leading members of the bar where he practiced. He entered the Legislature of his adopted State, became a member of Congress, and, though he failed to gain a seat in the Senate, yet, in his contest with Senator DOUGLAS, the marked ability with which he conducted the campaign, made him President of the United States. In all his public life he has been a favorite with the masses. He was trusted as an honest man. And the heart of the people was with him.

MR. LINCOLN AS A STATESMAN.

If a statesman be one "versed in the art of government, or eminent for political abilities," then the late President will rank high among the statesmen of the land. He came to the chair of State in a time of peril and civil war. The Government was at sea. The nation knew not whom to trust, nor what policy to adopt. Men who sat in Congress had joined the

standard of rebellion. Men educated at the expense of the nation, and who had sworn to protect its flag with their blood, had drawn the sword in the cause of men who had trampled the banner of WASHINGTON in the dust. The air was full of treason. We had no arms and no money. Men-of-war, destroyed by the hands of Americans, lay useless at the dock. In disguise, the President came into his capital to escape assassination. More than once Washington has been in danger. Parties and cliques have been organized against the President. His foes have often been those of his own house. Eminent members of the Senate sent out against him a bill of indictment. Chairmen of prominent committees of the House pronounced him unworthy of public confidence. Yet all these discordant elements have been harmonized, and all the factions dissolved. He died, leaving a nation in tears, and ours the strongest Government on the face of the earth. At no time have the various departments been more ably conducted. That Mr. SEWARD has kept us out of a foreign war, while civil commotion raged in our borders—that he has been more than a match for the astute and subtle diplomacy of the old world—meeting promptly and ably all the new and complicated questions that have arisen in our four years of war, is universally acknowledged. The War Department is conducted with vigor. Dislike Mr. STANTON, as some do, all must admit the eminent ability—the executive force and promptness with which he meets the gigantic labors of his department. If any doubts this let him visit the War Department at the hour when Mr. STANTON gives public audience to his visitors, and see the promptness, kindness, and ability with which he disposes of case after case,—standing up in the center of the room, hearing all who wish to speak, and sending twenty men away in an hour with their business completed, and manifesting infinite patience towards the stupid and those who have no common sense. When the present head of the navy took his department the navy had only a name. Now our ships of war have changed the warfare of the world. Our navy is the admiration of all governments. It shares with the army the glory of its great conquest. And if GRANT and SHERMAN command the admiration of all military men, who by universal consent place them by the side of FREDERICK the Great, NAPOLEON, and WELLINGTON, FARRAGUT and his associates will be remembered while NELSON'S name is honored. To create such an administration in four years indicates no common talent. In his own way, but with signal ability, Mr. LINCOLN has met all the great questions that have arisen during his administration. On Wednesday evening, before his death, a party of gentlemen called on Mrs. LINCOLN. In speaking on the question of reconstruction, she said it gave her husband no concern—his mind was made up, and he delighted in anything that made him a lawyer again. This was a legal matter, and he would treat it as he would a case in court. It was a simple recreation, in which he enjoyed himself greatly.

MR. LINCOLN'S HABITS.

The simple, unaffected habits that he brought with him from his Western home he maintained to the last. He had no airs. The cares of State never sat heavily upon him. He saw no reason why he should not enjoy himself as well in the White House as at Springfield. If he wanted a paper from the department, instead of sending for it he went after it, as he would to the office of a brother lawyer—now into the office of the Secre-

tary of State, now into the War Department. He had a round that he would run in the evening. If missed from the White House, those in the secret knew where to find him. And if he was not in one of these places he was accustomed to visit, parties would track him from point to point till he was found. He seemed never weary with the calls and demands on his time. From ten till four the crowds daily beseiged his door for an audience. Many of them had no business there; many of them would bore the President and refuse to leave when an answer was given. But his patience and good-humor greeted the last of the throng, though weary with the visits, as they did the early comer. Difficult as it often was to gain access to Mr. LINCOLN, once in his presence the auditor had his attention till the close. He could say all he had to say. Sometimes the wearied President would ring his bell for a new comer to get rid of an intolerable annoyance, but generally he allowed the visitor to depart in his own time. Often at the close of the day he would give orders for all the company in waiting to come in together. With a quiet humor he received them as each were anxious to get the private ear, or be first heard among the company. Seated in his chair, sometimes with one leg thrown over the other, sometimes the leg thrown over the arm of the chair, the President would hear patiently what the auditor had to say—reply—hear a rejoinder—make an additional reply, add some little incident, or make some witty remark, which usually ended the conference. Few men had the ability or desire to respond the second time. Some of these mass interviews were humorous indeed, and were highly enjoyed by the President. The great point was to get an audience. If a case was commended to his attention, he would hear it through. Men beset him in his private walks, headed him off when he was on horseback, hid behind the trees in the public lawn to fall upon him as he passed along, knowing that he would give them a hearing if they could but speak to him. One day, after a fatiguing levee of many hours, the audience room was closed at 4 P. M., with the usual announcement, "Gentlemen, the President will receive no more to-day." At five the President passed from the Mansion to the War Department. He was intercepted by a woman, who seized him by the arm, and in impassioned tones said, "Oh! Mr. LINCOLN I want to speak one word to you." He replied that he could give audience to no one, that he was greatly pressed, and had no time to spare. She replied, "Oh! I must see you just for one moment; for my poor old father's sake you will not deny my request." Mr. LINCOLN had the heart of a woman. Against this appeal he was not proof. He abandoned his visit to the War Department—went back to his room—heard her story—granted her request—and sent her home a happy daughter. Mr. LINCOLN was an early riser. Much of his private correspondence and business was done before his breakfast. At nine, the family came together for the morning meal. The after part of the day was devoted to domestic and social life, to rides and company, and to intimate friends. Dinner was served at 6, and coffee in the scarlet room, where, in the bosom of his family, and among personal friends, the cares of State were thrown off, and generous, genial hospitality dispensed.

HIS TENDER AND HUMANE SPIRIT.

Mr. LINCOLN had the toughness and elasticity of India-rubber. He seemed to yield when he was the firmest. He gained his ends by keeping

the great point in view, and being not at all particular about the mode. His kindness was accounted incompetency—his tenderness imbecility. Nothing could change the goodness of his heart. Not the threats of assassination—not the repeated attempts to take his life—not the bitterness of the campaigns of '60 and '64—not the brutal treatment of our poor men in the rebel prisons. All these could not make his heart hard, nor his spirit cruel. As he, the second time, took his seat as Chief Magistrate of the nation, he could do so "with malice towards none, with charity for all." On the day of his death he was the best friend the South had in the North. From him they could have secured better terms for reconstruction than from any other living man. He left his mansion, on the evening of the fatal 14th of April, with a face glowing with joy—with spirits buoyant over the hope of returning tranquility—and with a heart full of compassion towards the erring men of the South. The assassin that took his life silenced the beatings of a heart that was full of good-will to men. His life was full of humanity. In him the widow and orphan found a friend. The lowly and oppressed were never turned away without relief. He arrested the mailed hand of military justice when he thought the blow could be averted with safety. The tears of many a pardoned soldier will fall on his grave. Among the cherished memories of the President, his humanity will be the most dearly prized. On one occasion a regiment came in from a long and fatiguing march. One of the exhausted men was put on guard. Wet, muddy, and tired, the soldier slept on his post. He was discovered, tried, and ordered to be shot. The President learned the circumstances, pardoned the prisoner, and ordered him to duty. The soldier died in the swamps of the Chickahominy. On his death-bed he said to a comrade, "Tell President LINCOLN how I loved him, and how I prayed for him with my dying breath." The poor, lowly, and oppressed found in him a warm friend. Among the general mourning of this city, nothing is more touching than the marks of grief that hang around the homes of the humble. Well may they mourn, for the lowly and the oppressed have indeed lost a friend, whose compassion towards them was constant—the pleasant tones of whose voice, which had only kind utterances for them, are silent for ever.

THE GREAT MOURNING.

The news of the assassination ran through the city like light. It saddened every heart. The sound of wailing and woe were heard on all sides. Early in the morning, on Saturday, the porters and clerks opened the stores as usual. Slowly and solemnly the merchants came down town. The iron shutters were closed. Business was suspended. At noon, New York was quiet as on the Sabbath. When PRINCE ALBERT died, the Queen commanded her people to put on mourning. New York waited for no mandate, took no council. By a common impulse the city seemed at once to be draped in mourning. The rich and the poor met together to mourn the death of a common friend. The fish-women in the market put black on their baskets; carmen hung mourning flags on their bridles—and the hackmen tipped their whips with crape. The homes of the dissolute and abandoned had on them marks of sorrow. On every part of the city seemed to be written—"How are the mighty fallen." Mr. LINCOLN died in the fullness of years and of fame. He could have found no fitter time for his own reputation's sake. Enmities were hushed, and the heart of the people

confided in his integrity and ability. His memory is endeared by thousands of ties. He is more beloved than any Chief Magistrate since the Father of His Country was carried to his burial by a sorrowing nation. May the Divine Power that has flung the blood-stained mantle of the martyred LINCOLN on his successor, endow him with his spirit.

PHYSICAL FEATURES OF THE OIL REGIONS.

BY PROFESSOR E. W. EVANS, MARIETTA COLLEGE.

I PROPOSE in this article to state a few general facts respecting the conditions under which petroleum has, thus far, been found to exist in this country.

1. *In what formations found.* The best oil districts yet developed lie, geographically, within the limits, or on the outskirts, of the Appalachian bituminous coal field. Some wells in Ohio and West Virginia derive their supplies from the upper coal measures, others from the lower. The largest collections of oil in Pennsylvania are found below the coal measures proper, partly in the lower group of the subcarboniferous rocks, and partly, it is said, in the upper Devonian. The latter formation is well known to include some oil-bearing strata, for example, the Marcellus shales, and the sandstones of the Chemung period; but experiments made in boring for oil in these, in places where not overlaid by carboniferous rocks, have not yet led to very profitable results. In Canada, a species of oil, supposed by some to be of animal origin, is found in the lower Devonian, and even as far down as the Silurian; but in the United States, the great supplies are found associated with the abundant vegetable fossils of the coal formation and of the rocks immediately subjacent to it. As a general fact, the lower carboniferous strata have been found more productive of oil than the upper. The most abundant supplies, thus far, have been found on the western slope of the Alleganies, where the oil-bearing strata have their greatest thickness.

From the fact that the quantity of petroleum does not bear anything like a direct ratio to the quantity of coal locally associated with it, it may be inferred that it has not been derived from the coal, though probably they are of similar origin.

2. *In what kinds of rock.* The best deposits are found in the cavities of loose, brittle, much-fractured sandstone or conglomerate. Sometimes the sandstone is quite argillaceous, approaching a shale in character. In some places, the most productive oil-rock is a somewhat calciferous sandstone; but in pure limestone rock, the cavities are usually too extensive, and afford too free passage to running water, to hold good collections of oil imprisoned. The corniferous limestone (which is an ancient coral reef of the lower Devonian) contains petroleum in its minute cellules; but it has not yet, unless in Canada, yielded any in bulk. Strata of shale and slate often contain petroleum; but it is so generally diffused through the small fractures, and through the substance of the rock itself, that it cannot be obtained in large quantities. Indeed, it is a general fact that the rocks through which oil is universally diffused, and in which it may be conceived

to have had its origin, are not those which contain it in collections large enough to be profitably pumped. Hard, compact sandstone is usually, for want of cavities, unproductive. This kind of rock, however, often serves as a cover to confine the oil in a looser rock underlying it. It is a common experience among borers to strike oil directly beneath such an impervious layer; for example, under the "third sandrock" of Oil Creek.

It is known that beneath the oil-bearing sandstones, at greater or less depths, there are different strata of bituminous shales containing vegetable impressions. This gives plausibility to the theory that the oil had its origin in the vegetation of the shales, and that by a slow process of distillation, caused by internal heat, it has worked its way up through the cracks and fissures, and gradually accumulated in such cavities in the rocks above as do not admit of its escape to the surface. The most general source of petroleum may have been the so-called black slate, which is widely extended over the Western States, and is considered identical with the Marcellus shales of New York; but on the Western Appalachian slope, there are numerous strata of bituminous or carbonaceous shales above this, included in the carboniferous system.

3. *At what depths.* Other circumstances being equal, deep wells, as a class, are more productive than shallow ones. To speak more explicitly, supplies of petroleum found at a depth of two or three hundred feet or more, are much more copious and lasting than those found at a less depth. Wells not over a hundred feet in depth often give good promise, at first; but they are soon exhausted. The best wells are, generally, not less than five hundred feet deep. Many of the most celebrated wells in Pennsylvania derive their supplies from a depth of seven or eight hundred feet, and have been producing for four or five years without complete exhaustion. In shallow wells, it is common to find a heavy lubricating oil, the commercial value of which is greater than that of the light illuminating oil; but what is thus gained in quality is, as a general fact, many times lost in quantity.

The shallow deposits have undergone more waste by evaporation and drainage, in proportion as their communications with the surface are more free and direct; and the more volatile oils have, of course, escaped more rapidly than the heavy. In regions where the oil-bearing strata are not covered by a considerable mass of superincumbent rock, no large collections of petroleum are likely to be found.

4. *Connection with uplifts and depressions.* Sandstone rocks lying horizontally, or in their original place of deposition, have few cavities. However general the origin of petroleum may have been, the principal collections of it are now found in places where there are some marks of geological disturbance. In connection with other signs, uplifts and depressions of the strata, as indicated by an unusual degree of dip and marked changes in the direction of it, are justly regarded as important conditions of the existence of large and numerous deposits of petroleum. In that loose, brittle class of sandstones in which petroleum most abounds, there are numerous cavities and fissures in regions of disturbance, not only along the anticlinal and parallel synclinal axes, but also under the included slopes. Facts learned in boring demonstrate that oil cavities are irregular and zigzag in shape, but generally quite narrow, and running, not along the strata, but across them. In calciferous sandstones,

the cavities have doubtless been enlarged by the dissolving action of water, and its slow percolation, with carbonate of lime in solution, through transverse crevices to the surface. The same is true of cavities in sandstones containing disseminated particles of salt, or other soluble minerals. It seems that the looser class of sandrocks were thoroughly fractured by the disturbing force, while the more compact and homogeneous class interstratified with them were only bent, or slightly broken only at considerable intervals, marked by oil and gas springs.

But this idea of dislocation of the rocks being evidence of oil deposits, is subject to a very great limitation. There is an extensive system of lines of upheaval running parallel to the Allegany mountains, on both sides of them, as if all produced by the same force which slowly raised the mountain folds themselves, acting in a direction nearly at right angles to the Atlantic coast. It is important to observe that those which characterize the most productive oil regions, west of the mountains, are simple flexures. The slopes are curved or polygonal, and the axial lines not sharply defined. Open breaks and wide disruptions are unfavorable signs, since they admit of the free escape of oil to the surface. In places where such marks exist, no considerable deposits have been found. East of the mountains, where there is little or no oil, and even the coal has been debituminized, the dislocations are violent, exhibiting great disruptions and faults.

The somewhat popular idea of an oil-basin, except so far as limited to a synclinal axis of disturbance, indicating cavities, is a delusion. It seems to be imagined that petroleum would descend along the strata from the sides of a natural basin toward the centre. But being lighter than water, which is always found with it, its tendency is upward, not downward, even through the slight transverse crevices; and we could not conceive of it as running freely along the strata without supposing that it would be rapidly washed to the surface.

5. *Metamorphism as a sign.* In the uplifting and folding of the strata which took place in the so-called period of the Appalachian revolution, heat (followed by great cooling and contraction) must have been an important agent, as shown by the somewhat metamorphic condition of the rocks in those places where the disturbance was greatest. In the region of great uplifts and faults east of the mountains, this condition, though not complete, is exhibited in a much more marked degree than in the region of slight and wavy flexures west of the mountains. The absence of petroleum, as, also, the debituminized condition of the coal and shales, east of the mountains, is to be attributed not only to the more open fractures and clefts in that region, admitting of its escape, but in part, also, to the direct expulsive power of the higher degree of heat concerned in causing those fractures. It is certain that scarcely any petroleum has been found in regions where rocks of decidedly metamorphic character are seen. It is certain, also, that even within the limits of the known oil regions, those places where the disturbance has been greatest, and the rocks approach nearest to that crystaline condition indicating metamorphism, have not been found rich in petroleum. Among the processes of metamorphism may be enumerated the change of soft and brittle sandstones into those of a hard and crystaline character, and often from a pale color to red,—the change of the compact and colored limestones into bleached and granular

ones,—the change of argillaceous shales into firm slates,—also, the partial or total obliteration of fossils. Another evidence of the heat which attended these processes is the frequent occurrence of lodes, or transverse veins of infiltrated metallic ores, and other substances not soluble at low temperatures. The oil regions are characterized by loose sandstones and conglomerates, by the soft, shaly condition of the argillaceous rocks, by the absence of regular beds of granular limestone, by the rare occurrence of lodes, by the abundance and perfect condition of the fossils, as well as by the highly bituminous condition of the coal and shales.

6. *Character of surface.* Too much stress is often laid on the nature of the surface rocks. Practically, the main question to be determined is, what is the character of the strata at the depths where oil may be expected in remunerative quantities; and in order to determine this, the geologist observes the direction and grade of the dip, and seeks the outcrop of the strata at a distance. But there are certain peculiarities in the configuration of the surface which characterize the Appalachian oil districts generally. The hills are abrupt and precipitous, the valleys narrow and deep, exhibiting in a very marked degree the effects of the process of degradation. Originally, the face of the country was higher than the tops of the present hills; but it has been worn down and cut deep by erosion, or the action of water. These effects are more marked than is common elsewhere; partly, because the rocks have been less hardened by metamorphism, and therefore wear away and crumble more easily. But the deep vallies of erosion often have a significance beyond this, and serve to define more nearly the location of oil deposits. Where the rocks have been most bent and crushed, the effects of erosion are naturally greatest. Hence we find that the narrow valleys of streams often coincide nearly with the anticlinal or synclinal axes of flexure. It is common to select, as sites for boring, the margins of creeks and runs, where the rocks either dip away to either side, or inward from both sides. These are sometimes on the axes of the main flexures; but they oftener mark slight local disturbances occurring as waves on the sides of a larger wave, and generally parallel with it, though sometimes running transversely. The surface rock would be most loosened along the anticlinal lines; hence these have oftenest determined the direction of narrow streams. Indeed, it is not uncommon to see the bottom of an original synclinal valley now crowning the top of a hill, while the original hills on either side of it have been worn down into deep gorges. But the mere fact of a deep valley or gorge is no proof of a line of disturbance of either kind. It is necessary in every case to determine the inclination of the strata in order to form an intelligent judgment. Often, the dip is in the same direction on both sides; but this, if considerable in degree, is of itself an evidence of dislocation and fracturing; for rocks lying in the position in which they were originally deposited are, as a general fact, either horizontal or very nearly so. Many flexures are marked only by a change in the grade of the dip.

7. *Surface oil.* In every oil district there is more or less "surface show," though not always very close to the sites of producing wells. It varies so much in quantity and quality, as well as in the circumstances under which it appears, that some discrimination is necessary in order to judge of its value as a sign. Considered independently of geological evidence, it affords,

at best, no proof that there is oil beneath, in collections large enough to be profitably pumped; for it may come up from beds of bituminous shale, or other strata that do not yield it in bulk. In the most productive districts, it is generally seen on low grounds, in a thin scum on springs and streams, where it comes up with water through slight crevices in the underlying rocks.

Oil coming to the surface in bulk, so often prized as a good sign, is really nothing more than an indication of shallow supplies. In many places where "Seneca oil" used to be collected in gallons, and even in barrels, as it issued from the surface strata or oozed up through the sand, experiments in boring have resulted in finding only small collections at a slight depth. The oil, originally deep in the earth, has gradually worked its way up toward the surface, through the too open cracks and fissures, and is rapidly undergoing the process of exhaustion. If, as on Oil Creek, other oil-bearing strata are found upon boring deeper, the kind of surface show here described afforded, beforehand, no evidence of their existence, but only of that which lies near the surface, or perhaps crops out in the hillside. To find this stratum at a good depth, it may be necessary to go off a considerable distance in the direction of its dip. Shallow oil is also indicated by collections of asphaltum, or a thick, tar-like oil approaching asphaltum. Owing to near communication with the surface, the more volatile parts have escaped, while the grosser parts remain. It is not uncommon to see thick oil, in considerable quantity, along those axes of uplift where the rocks are tilted up at very high angles, exhibiting too great disruptions and clefts. Some cases are known, as in one place on Hughes River, where such clefts are filled with a sort of solidified bitumen.

The thinnest scum of petroleum on water is bluish; a little thicker scum exhibits the colors of the rainbow, especially when agitated. Petroleum may also be distinguished by its dividing, when disturbed, and closing again with a perfectly even margin; while other scums, sometimes mistaken for it, break into pieces which do not perfectly re-unite. That which is oftenest mistaken for oil is a blue and somewhat iridescent scum, seen on waters holding carbonate of iron in solution, and precipitating a red ochreous substance (peroxide of iron) to the bottom. But it is not uncommon to find oil floating on the same pool with it. Oil-seekers are sometimes misled, also, by a soapy-looking scum which frequently arises from decaying vegetation in places where there are rills producing bubbles and foam.

Two or three drops of petroleum will cover a spring of ordinary size for half an hour with what would be recognized as fair surface show. The present production of petroleum must be very slow if it does not exceed the natural drainage through springs, which perhaps would require a geological period to exhaust the supplies now in the earth. Indeed, it is not difficult to suppose that these supplies have mainly come down from a period of much greater heat, perhaps the close of the carboniferous era, when the folds and cavities now containing them were produced.

8. *Gas springs.* In many places where oil appears on the streams and springs, carburetted hydrogen gas is also seen bubbling up through the water. Sometimes it is found issuing where no water is present. In the so-called burning springs the bubbling is constant, so that when the gas is set on fire it supports a steady flame; but in the common class of gas springs the bubbles come up only at intervals. From the bottom of most

oil springs they may be stirred up in considerable quantities, and burned as they rise to the air. Gas serves to define the location of oil deposits more nearly than surface oil. The latter may have been carried by the subterranean streamlets, up and down, to a considerable distance from its source. But gas, being more buoyant than oil, and not liable like oil to be borne along in minute quantities with descending currents, by the mere mechanical action of water, is less likely to wander far before it issues. But, as showing the quantity of oil, gas springs, considered without reference to other signs, are quite unreliable. They may be supplied with gas from beds of shale or limestone, or they may be connected with open fractures and rifts where the supplies are shallow. It is not uncommon to find a line of burning springs along the anticlinal axis of an upheaval.

The gas which comes from oil deposits is heavy carburetted hydrogen, or, at least, contains it in considerable proportion. It may be distinguished from light carburetted hydrogen by its burning with a brighter flame. The latter commonly arises from decaying vegetation, and is known as marsh gas. It sometimes comes from coal, being the same gas which, among the miners, is called fire-damp. Heavy carburetted hydrogen may also be distinguished by its brighter flame from sulphuretted hydrogen, which is sometimes mistaken for it. The fetid odor of the latter is another distinctive mark.

9. *Connection with mineral waters.* In the best oil districts there are numerous oil and gas springs in which the analysis of the water always reveals various minerals, such as common salt, chlorid of lime, carbonates of lime, soda and iron, sulphates of soda and potash, and sometimes sulphuretted hydrogen. These are variously called salt licks, chalybeate springs, sulphur springs, oil springs, and so forth, according to the mineral predominating. If, on the common springs of pure water, whose source is usually near the surface, oil is not seen, but only on mineral springs, it affords good evidence that the source of supply is quite deep. It comes up through slight cracks and fissures in the strata from depths where the water has lain in contact with many substances, and gathered its various mineral contents. The high temperature of these oil and mineral springs, as compared with the ordinary springs of pure water, is another fact indicating a deep source. But decidedly thermal springs (in the Appalachian region) are located on the axes of more violent upheavals than those which distinguish the oil districts.

The observed connection of petroleum with various soluble minerals, containing carbon and hydrogen, has led some to suppose that it is directly formed from these minerals, by some chemical interaction not proved or explained. This connection, however, may be satisfactorily accounted for without the aid of such an hypothesis. For, aside from the fact already adverted to, that mineral springs, as a class, come up from a great depth, and are thus naturally rendered the common vents of various liquids and gases, it is evident that the same class of cavities, protected from running water, in which petroleum lurks, are also the best adapted to harbor water impregnated with salt and other minerals. In an article "On the Action of Oil-Wells," (*Journal of Science*, September, 1864,) I presented some facts tending to show that the connection of the water in oil cavities with free currents is slight and indirect. The same is true of deposits of salt water, and mineral waters generally, for the simple reason that from cavities

exposed to free currents the minerals must, in the progress of ages, have been washed away. The history of salt wells presents various points of coincidence with that of oil wells. For example, the wells of the great Kanawha salines, in the neighborhood of Burning Spring, are located on a marked uplift. The salt water is found, according to Dr. HILDRETH, in a "white calciferous sandstone, full of cavities and fissures." The water is stagnant, and contains, besides salt, various muriates and carbonates. The same wells have yielded large quantities of petroleum with carburetted hydrogen. Indeed, it is a general fact that the water on which collections of petroleum are found is either quite salt, or brackish and nauseous with various minerals held in solution. Subterranean currents are almost always fresh, or nearly so; and experience has taught, that in fissures where pure water is found, no large deposits of oil are to be expected.

RAILWAY ACCIDENTS.

WE find the following recent railway accidents reported in the daily papers:

On the 31st of January last, a train of cars, on the Cleveland and Toledo Railway, was thrown from the track *by a defective rail*, and four or five persons were injured. On the 4th of February, a passenger train on the Marietta and Cincinnati Railway was precipitated a distance of fifty feet into Leer Creek, sixty miles east of Cincinnati, *by a defective bridge*. Ten or twelve persons were killed, and a number seriously injured. On the same day, a train on the Central Ohio Railway was thrown down an embankment near Newark, Ohio, *by a defective rail*, and a number of persons injured thereby. On the 8th of February, the express train of the Ohio and Mississippi Railway met with an accident near Oakdale Station, sixty-eight miles west of Cincinnati. Three of the hind-most cars in the train were thrown from the track *by a defective rail*. Many of the passengers were badly injured. On the 12th of February, a freight train on the Baltimore and Ohio Railway was thrown off the track *by a defective rail*, and the fireman instantly killed. On the 13th February, a train on the Grand Trunk Railway of Canada was thrown off the track, near the town of Guelph, and a car, containing between thirty and forty passengers, was tumbled down an embankment twenty feet high. A number of persons were seriously injured. On the 15th February, the milk train on the New York and New Haven Railway was thrown off the track, near Westport, *by a defective rail*. A large number of persons were severely injured. On the same day (15th) an accident, caused *by a broken rail*, occurred on the St. Louis and Alton Railway. The two rear cars of the train were thrown from the track and nearly demolished, causing the instant death of two persons, fatally wounding a third, and bruising a number of others, one of them seriously. On the 17th February, a locomotive on the New York and Erie Railway exploded at Binghampton, killed one fireman and seriously injured an engineer and another fireman. A large amount of damage was also done to the adjacent property by the explosion. On the 24th February, a serious accident occurred on the Long Island Railway, between Lakeland and Islip. A passenger car plunged down an embankment, rolling over two or three times. It was filled with passengers, nearly all of whom were considerably injured, many of them having limbs broken. Many of the passengers of the other cars also received injuries. The attachees of the line attribute the accident to a broken axle, but the passengers believe it to have been occasioned *by the bad condition of the road*. On the 16th February, eleven persons were killed and a number badly injured on the St. Louis and Chicago Railway, through an accident caused *by a defective rail*. On the 17th February, two freight trains on the Chicago and New Albany Railway collided, instantly killing one man, and completely smashing both locomotives. One of the

engineers had gone to sleep with a bottle of liquor beside him, leaving the valves of his engine open. On the 20th February, *a defective rail* gave way on the Ohio Central Railway, and a train was dragged some distance over the cross-ties, by which several passengers were injured. On the 21st February, there was a collision on the Pennsylvania and Erie Railway. Result, the death of two persons; one of whom was burned in a most horrible manner, and the injuring of many others. On the same day, the engine and a train on the Springfield and Albany Railway was thrown from the track *by a defective rail.* Casualities not reported. On the 23d February, a collision occurred on the New York Central Railway, by which five or six passengers were badly injured. On the 24th February, two persons were killed and seventeen badly wounded by an accident on the Pennsylvania Central Railway. Particulars not reported. On the same day, the passenger train from New York to Boston met with an accident, caused by the breaking of an axle. Particulars not reported. On the 22d February, a collision occurred on the Pittsburgh, Fort Wayne, and Chicago Railway, forty miles west of Crestline, by which one passenger was killed and several others injured. On the 23d February, an accident, caused *by a defective rail*, occurred near Petersburg, on the Grand Trunk Railway of Canada, by which one passenger was fatally and many others seriously injured. Two passenger cars were thrown down an embankment fifty feet high, one of them making three revolutions before reaching the bottom. The wounded passengers were then plundered by a gang of thieves. On the 7th March, a collision occurred on the Camden and Amboy Railway. While the express train from Washington for New York was passing through Bristol, Pa., it ran into the rear of a passenger train from Philadelphia for New York, which, it is stated, *was about two hours behind time, and had no rear lights out to enable the engineer of the Washington train to perceive it.* The shock was terrific, and the results appalling. Many of the passengers were scalded, some thrown out of the cars, and others crushed to death, or mutilated in a horrible manner. Nine persons were instantly killed, and over forty wounded—at least three of them fatally. Portions of both trains were smashed to atoms, and the wreck was so extensive as to completely block up the track for several hours. One of the cars also caught fire, thus adding to the peril and terror of the unhappy passengers. On the 10th March, the express train on the Ohio and Mississippi Railway was thrown off a tressle bridge four miles west of Vincennes, and the express, baggage, and second class cars, precipitated to the earth. A number of persons were injured. No particulars reported. On the 23d March, the express train on the New York Central Railway ran off the track eight miles west of Utica. Five passenger cars were piled in a heap in water from three to five feet deep. Two persons were killed outright, and thirty persons badly injured.

All these accidents, and perhaps many more which, in these busy times, fail to find their way into print, occurred within a period of fifty days.

The occurrence of so many accidents at this time, after so much has been said and done in former years on the subject, naturally leads to an investigation of their cause, with a view to suggest safeguards against their happening again.

Although the question of railway accidents involves the whole question of railway management in detail, yet as that question of management is itself included within the bounds of a single principle, we shall find no difficulty in placing our finger at the proper time upon the source of all the blunders with which the history of railways is so plentifully filled.

In England, where the subject has received far more attention than in this country, it has been a favorite principle with some people to attribute railway accidents mainly to excessive speed. Lord Brougham and Lord George Bentinck have especially identified themselves with this proposition. These gentlemen maintain that high speed is manifestly the cause of nearly all railway accidents. High speed should therefore be put a stop to, and Parliament should enact laws compelling companies to run their trains below a certain maximum velocity. Until the celebrated report of 1858 their arguments met with but little effectual opposition, but

in that report the committee consisting of Messrs. BENTINCK, LOWE, CROSSLEY, WM. HODGSON, BLACKBURN, Lord A. V. TEMPEST, Messrs. HUME, F. SCOTT, KENDALL, Lord A. PAGET, and Mr. JACKSON, after having treated the whole question exhaustively, came to the conclusion that legislative interference would do more harm than good, and that Parliament, with more chance of success, might better confine its action in the matter to a more rigid enforcement of that contract which railway companies virtually make with the public in regard to the time of departure and arrival of trains. Want of punctuality they regarded as one of the chief causes of accidents. Trains depart behind time, and then run at double speed to make up for the time so lost, and thus not only disarrange the preconcerted running of other trains, but increase the amount of destruction in case of collision. They also recommended that time tables should be advertised to the public some time in advance of their going into effect; that a signal rope should be used and a telegraph line connected with the road. Any further than this they did not feel warranted in going. The whole question of detail, including speed, etc., they justly considered to be a matter wholly beyond their jurisdiction.* Yet, even after the publication of this report, the Anti-High-Speedites continued to iterate their demands for more legislation until the celebrated debate of 1863, when they were finally put down by Earls GRANVILLE and HARDWICKE, and by Messrs. MILNER GIBSON, and RICHARD HODGSON. These gentlemen proved beyond cavil that the fastest trains and the fastest roads were not those upon which the greatest number of accidents occurred, but, on the contrary, it was upon those that the fewest occurred. And singular to say, Mr. HODGSON also showed that the popular notion that accidents occurred more frequently at curves was totally erroneous, the truth being that they more often happened upon sections of the road where the line was perfectly straight.†

Many people in this country are apt to believe railway accidents in England to be of such rare occurrence that arguments drawn from the railway experience of that country must be more or less defective; but this is by no means the case. Besides the many who were injured by railway accidents through their own carelessness, and besides those who were employees of railways, there were killed and injured as follows:

PASSENGERS KILLED AND INJURED IN ENGLAND BY RAILWAY ACCIDENTS DURING THE YEARS 1857, 1858, 1859, 1860, 1861, 1862, AND PART OF 1863, FROM CAUSES BEYOND THEIR OWN CONTROL.‡

1857.....	776	1861.....	827
1858.....	445	1862.....	560
1859.....	384	1863 (first six months).....	169
1860.....	509		

This makes a grand total of 3,670 *passengers* killed and injured. The total number of railway passengers during the period of six and a-half years, covered by this table, was about one thousand millions. The num-

* See Report of Committees. Parliamentary Reports, vol. xix, 1857–58.

† HANSARDS' Debates, vol. clxxii, p. 599.

‡ London *Times*, September 13, 1862, and Board of Trade Reports for the various years.

ber of passengers killed and injured was therefore one in 272,479. Doubtless the mortality and injury in this country is greater; but we have no means of definitely ascertaining the fact. There are no statistics. In England the Board of Trade takes cognizance of all railway accidents, and sends an officer to the scene of every one of them. This officer makes a report which embraces the names and numbers of the injured, and a critical account of the disaster. Here we have nothing of the kind. The establishment of companies to insure against accidents of this nature, two of which have recently been organized in this country, will, however, doubtless furnish us through the medium of private enterprise with that which in England is afforded by official reports. We refer to the Traveller's Insurance Company of Hartford, and the United States Life and Limb Insurance Company of New York.

But it must be borne in mind that though we have single tracks where they have double ones, though we have open crossings where they have bridges or tunnels, and tressil work as substitutes for their magnificent viaducts, yet that we have much less way travel, that we employ cars in which passengers can go from one end to another while the train is in motion, and that we use the telegraph more often: finally, that we possess that invaluable treasure—the check rope. The want of a check rope might have prevented one-half of the accidents on English railways. We read of one accident from the rear cars breaking their coupling and running down the train in front which had slowed up to wait for them. This occurred on the Caledonian Railway in 1862, and twenty-six passengers were injured by it. Then we read of accidents from employing single lines of rail while portions of the double track were undergoing repair: on the Edinburgh and Glasgow and the Lancashire and Yorkshire Railway. Then we read of accidents from turnpike gates being swung across a track*—from employing inexperienced drivers†—from using defective breaks†—from boiler explosions‡—from overhanging timbers‖—from bad roads§—from collisions—from falling in of tunnels—from animals on the track—from excursion trains being run at low rates for advertising purposes, and so being overcrowded, and generally behind time—from defective gearing—from the wheel tyres being bolted instead of dove-tailed—from having the break whistle too shrill to be heard by the guard above the noise of the train—from the difficulty of distinguishing the signal to "down breaks," from the warning signal—indeed from almost every cause it is possible to conceive of.

Many of these accidents might have been prevented by the use of the check rope, which has been in use in this country for so many years, but which has not yet been adopted in England. It certainly appears quite incomprehensible in a country of so much general intelligence and utilarianism as England, that this simple expedient should not be in use, for without it, it is simply impossible for any person on a train of cars in motion to communicate with the engineer in case of accident. Nearly all

* Dublin and Drogheda Railroad, 1862.

† Great Northern Railroad, 1862.

‡ Great Western Railroad, 1862.

‖ London, Brighton, and South Coast Railroad, 1862.

§ London, Chatham, and Dover Railroad, 1862.

the loss of life which arises from the breaking of car couplings, from the breaking of axles or other running gear, and from fire, is capable of being avoided by leaving in the hands of the passengers the means of immediately notifying the engineer of the accident.

Strange as it may seem two-thirds of the English accidents appear to have been from collisions,* while the remainder were owing to trains running off the track. Of the collisions five-sixths were between a passenger and a freight train, and one-sixth between two freight trains. Not over one accident in twenty is attributed in any way to high speed, but to imperfections in the permanent way. And the very few accidents attributed to excessive speed might all have been prevented had the running gear and the permanent way been perfect.

This brings us to the main cause of the railway accidents in this country—defects in the permanent way; for, though railway trains, in the matter of running gear, inattentive servants, etc., are probably far from being as dangerous to travelers as stage coaches used to be, yet it is doubtless true that to their peculiar roadway (compelling their carriages to travel over one or one of two lines of rails) is owing most of the deplorable accidents which distinguish this method of locomotion. The greatest *number of accidents* is due to the carelessness of persons working on the tracks, etc.,† but of those accidents which involve the *greatest number of deaths and injuries*, we must look to the main cause in the defects of the permanent way—defects in the road-bed, the rails, the bridges, culverts, tressil work, etc., etc.‡

During the past two years the mortality from accidents of this nature

---

* Board of Trade Report, 1857.

† The number of persons injured in life or limb, the cause of the injury, whether passengers, persons employed, or others, and whether the persons reported as injured, survived or died, on the—

NEW YORK CENTRAL RAILROAD, 1864.

Causes of the injury.	Passengers.		Employees.		Others.		Total.	
	Kil'd.	Injr'd.	Kil'd.	Injr'd.	Kil'd.	Injr'd.	Kil'd.	Injr'd.
Fell from the cars	2	.	3	.	.	.	5	.
Jumping on or off the trains or engines while in motion	1	2	2	2	3	1	6	5
Walking, standing, lying, sitting, or being upon the track	.	.	9	.	39	17	48	17
At work on or near the track, or in making up or detaching trains	.	.	5	2	.	.	5	2
Trains thrown from or running off the track	.	5	1	.	.	.	1	5
Striking bridges, or telegraph wire	.	1	2	2	.	.	2	3
Explosion of engine	1	20	2	1	.	.	3	21
Total	4	28	24	7	42	18	70	53

‡ Railway men of course think differently. They put all the blame on their employees, or upon "frosty rails," the latter being a favorite theory with them. In order to turn public attention from the bad condition of their roads to the alleged carelessness of their servants, they have recently procured a law to be passed by the Legislature of Pennsylvania, making the employees criminally responsible for all accidents clearly traceable to their neglect. This is well, as far as it goes, but we opine that it will not be productive of much practical reform.

has been frightful. In this State alone 347 persons in 1863, and 450 persons in 1864 were killed or injured by railway accidents. These accidents were in nearly every case traceable to the bad condition of the roads.

But why have the managers of the roads not found it to their *interest* to keep them in good order? If the sacrifice of human life occasioned by these accidents does not appeal to their sympathy, why does not the immense damage to their rolling stock, which attends every serious accident, arrest their attention, and force them at least from interested motives to adopt proper precautions? Here we come upon the gist of the whole question, at least so far as regards this country.

Much as it may surprise the general reader, it is but the simple truth to state that railways, unlike almost any other species of investment, are not made to pay. It will be remembered that we now speak exclusively in regard to this country. They are never commenced on a paying basis, and rarely ever become in a paying condition. They start with an insufficient capital, and buy their supplies on credit, paying in bonds extortionate prices for them to the contractor. When a portion of the road is finished, and things come to a stand-still for want of funds, the contractor is induced to go on with the work by the promise of $5,000 additional per mile, and the issue of bonds based upon the expected income. After a struggle the rails are all laid, a light stock of equipment is furnished, but the company is unable to save anything from the earnings, because the road is indifferently stocked and badly ballasted. The first year finds it with just money enough from traffic to pay running expenses, but saddled with a large floating debt, created by being short of means at the start, and subsequently promising to pay nearly double for everything bought on a credit, instead of purchased for cash.*

The road is then conducted wholly in the interest of the proprietors of the lands through which it passes, and wholly opposed to the interests of the stockholders. Passengers are carried at ruinously low rates of fare, and freight transported for a mere nothing.

But why does the public purchase railway stock if such is the usual course of management? Because the stockholders (at least originally) are also the property-holders; and their interest as stockholders is much inferior to their interest as property-holders. Yet they do not neglect even their interest as stockholders. Dividends wholly unwarranted by the condition of the road are declared every half year, and the public is left to shift for itself in ricketty cars drawn by defective locomotives over perilous roads; left to shift for itself without attendance, without proper heat in winter or ventilation in summer, without proper conveniences for traveling, without proper stations, without proper refreshments, and at the mercy of a few over-worked and insolent officials. Is it any wonder that accidents happen?

How is a railway gotten up? A few landed proprietors, in some out of the way locality, meet together and propose a railway which shall strike through the heart of their rustic regions. Mind, the wants of the public do not demand this railway. If they did, somebody would find it to his interest to build it at once, and pay for it, sure of realising immediate profits in that plentiful patronage which would soon be bestowed upon it.

* Srow's Railway Manual, 1859, p. 10.

No; only the interests of these Ten-cents-an-acre land-owners demand the road. Well, they have no money. They scratch their heads and talk and talk, and finally the men whose lands are to be mostly benefitted are required to raise a cash subscription. If they do this, well; if not, the projected road is diverted towards another direction in order that it may strike through the lands of those men who *can* raise the cash. These men all become stockholders. The road is built in the manner we have described, and their cheap lands rise in value till they become worth thousands of dollars per acre. The stock may fall in the market until it becomes almost worthless, accidents may happen continuously, the road may be bankrupted, the cars smashed to pieces by hourly collisions, and shall we find the stockholders plunged into grief by their misfortunes? Not at all. We shall find them in the best of humor, their hands in their pockets, a smile upon their faces, and an offer upon their lips to sell us their once worthless farms, at a smart price, for building lots.

Here, then, we come at the source of railway accidents in the United States. The roads are built for the land-owners; built before they are needed; built in advance of any demand for them; built in debt through the needs of their projectors, and kept in debt through their rapacity.

This latter point is one which we have not yet dwelt upon with sufficient emphasis. Suppose a railway was owned by a single individual, who went into the business for the sake of profit. Suppose his road had cost him when he opened it in 1851 $24,000,000. Suppose that in 1864 its capital account, capitalizing its leased roads, was equal to $48,000,000. Suppose that $20,000,000 of net earnings had been applied to construction, making the total cost of the road $68,000,000. Suppose it earned in 1852 $3,537,766, and in 1864 $13,346,457. Suppose that it had a very large and unmanageable floating debt, and its shares were but lately sold at 45. What would be thought of this individual if with this condition of affairs he was known to appropriate $1,832,623, or nearly 14 per cent of the entire receipts towards some other project, and charge the same to "dividend account?"

And yet this is precisely the condition of one of the leading roads in the country. But the other companies act in noways differently. They may be in a better condition, financially, but they all practice the bad principle of setting aside a large portion of their earnings for dividends, while the condition of the road, as shown by the frequency of railway accidents, loudly calls for immediate repairs.

But it is useless to compile statistics to demonstrate this point. All the railways devote too much of their earnings to dividends, and too little to construction. They say: "Why shall we conduct the business of a road for the sake of posterity? Why shall we not reap profits from it as we go along? Why devote our time to the promotion of an enterprise from which only a distant generation shall reap substantial benefits?" Ah, gentlemen, we are afraid you are forgetting the profits you have already made, and are exhibiting a little of that quality to which some plain-spoken people apply the name of rapacity. Where are your lands rendered ten, twenty, fifty-fold more valuable by this road? Answer! Is this not enough profit for you? Are you not content with using the slave till he drops, but must sell his body, hair, skin, and bones, to "reap your profit as you go along!"

If American railways were built to supply the wants of the traveling public, instead of in advance of them, if they were built for the stockholders instead of for the property-holders, if they were overflowing with wealth instead of being heavily in debt, we could even then see no reason why their rates of fare should be limited by law, because whenever their profits became very large an inducement would exist for the establishment of competing lines, and these would soon reduce their tariffs. But that such restrictions should exist when all these conditions are reversed is only an evidence of that madness after inter-meddling legislation which is the bane of all our public enterprises. What is the practical result of this tampering with affairs of commerce and traffic. The New York Central is restricted by the Legislature to two cents a mile for passengers. Its published reports shows that this is its average rate of fare even counting way passengers, for it carries emigrants at one cent. Last year its iron rails cost $22 per ton for re-rolling, its wood cost $2 25 per cord, its car wheels $16. This year the first costs $52, the second $6, and the third $25. Lumber, hardware, paint, labor, machinery, all these items are doubled in price. The law does not keep its expenses down, but the law keeps its receipts down.

Without inquiring into the motives which impel legislators to countenance this injustice, we merely state the fact.

How then can it be asked to carry passengers at a limited rate? It will carry them. Oh, yes! Restrict the price of razors to ten cents each, and razors will continue to be sold still. But what kind of razors? And what kind of traveling do we get for two cents a mile? The answer is self-evident. But the evil does not stop here. Because the Central is required to carry first-class passengers at two cents a mile, the Erie is obliged to do the same. The obvious consequences of this absurd inter-meddling is bad roads, bad engines, bad cars, in short, all the conditions which are highly favorable to the frequent occurrence of appalling accidents and loss of life.

When our legislators are possessed of intelligence enough to trace the obvious cause and effect between a non-paying road and frequent accidents, and do not follow the example of British legislators by totally abstaining from placing legal restraints upon their management, the name which we shall give to these deplorable occurrences will, instead of Railway Accidents, be the more deserved one of Railway Murders.

COAL FEVER.

THE PRICE AND PROSPECTS OF ANTHRACITE COAL.

BY C. B. CONANT.

Why is coal so high? A question that has been asked a few thousand times every month for the last three years, and which, answered or unanswered, has wrought widely and diversely on the public mind. Whenever a great staple, nearly related to the daily wants of mankind, is advanced in price, an excitement prevails proportioned to its advance.

All classes are its consumers, and the consequence of the excitement is, that communities are soon arrayed into two factions—the first in clamor, and the numerically superior, being the poorer, whose only interest is to bring the price down; and the other, less numerous, but more powerful, who are not slow to see that their profit lies in keeping it up. The latter use the enhanced article as much as the former, usually more; but the added cost in their consumption is as nothing compared to the gain which accrues, or may accrue, to them, directly or indirectly, as producers or dealers. In almost all such cases the popular clamor increases the evil of which it so loudly complains; which, if let alone, would usually soon be equalized by the operation of the laws of trade. It is the interest of capitalists to encourage this unreasoning outcry, because they take advantage of it. Capital has no bowels or patriotism, and capitalists are instinctive.

The usual degree of prejudice and ignorance has prevailed on the subject of the coal trade in this respect. Coal has advanced, to the consumer, nearly two hundred per centum within three years—in 1862, about fifty per cent.; in 1863, seventy-five per cent.; in 1864, seventy-five more—at about which figure it remains, at the time of writing this article—March 1, 1865. In the same period, flour has barely doubled. There are good reasons why the two articles cannot be judged by precisely the same standard. Flour is so much more a staple of life than coal that it has no substitute, and its production must engage a thousand hands where the other occupies one. If the coal fields had as many tillers, as many conveyers, and as many merchants as the wheat fields, the disproportion in price would be much more than reversed, and coal would go begging; while if the wheat fields had as few as the other, a loaf of white bread would be worth, to-day, a dollar. In the next place, this very importance of bread-stuffs, involving the employment of so many hands, makes the trade transparent, and uncontrollable by monopolists. Men can know what is going on in grain, without serious chance of mistake. It is a glut in the market, it is foreign export, it is specific demand for emigration or the army, it is drought, it is weevil, it is failure of transportation, it is the holding of the farmers, it is the scarcity of exchange. There are a hundred causes of the rise or fall of breadstuffs, which are patent to all who choose to make inquiry. The staple character of this branch of trade, too—its absolute certainty as to sale and consumption—tempts the investments of that large class of conservative capitalists, which always stands ready to use heavy sums of money on perfect security for small returns. This, with the fact that comparatively little machinery is needed—warehouses, wharfs and boats only, which are, besides, continuously and variously useful—this makes the handling of crops comparatively easy. Money can be had by millions at simple interest from private capitalists; banks will do this business in preference to all other—many, indeed, being founded for this exclusive purpose, and refusing any different trade; and the attempt of any individual or corporation to monopolize it, is only saved from infamy by its ridiculousness and impossibility. Every merchant knows that it is an axiom in business, that the nearer an article of trade is to the daily and indispensable wants of men, and the more perishable or consumable it is, the more difficult to limit it—consequently to make it a means of large profit. Competition keeps prices down.

The coal trade is a different matter. The entire number of master colliers in this country, east of the Alleghany mountains, may be estimated at about two hundred and forty—in which are included the four great corporations, the Lehigh, Delaware and Hudson, Pennsylvania, and Scranton companies—with forty or fifty other incorporated organizations. Of these, about two hundred and fifteen are at work in the Anthracite fields of Pennsylvania, and about twenty-five in the Bituminous regions of that State and Maryland. There is no record of coal operations in the great Bituminous area west of the Alleghanies—an important omission in our statistics that ought to be remedied—so that both the number of miners and quantity of products must be estimated. The coal in this region is usually mined by individuals, and may be estimated at about one million to one million and a-half tons. The total quantity of all kinds of coal mined in the year 1864 was about twelve and a-half million tons, of which ten million (in round numbers) came from Pennsylvania alone. We will give, a little farther on, more exact and very interesting statistics.

For our present purpose, we discard the limited and uncertain product of the Western country—little of which comes farther east than Buffalo, except what is sold in Canada—and confine our attention to the product of the Pennsylvania, Maryland and Virginia mines. It will be seen at a glance how limited (comparatively) the field of operations is, what opportunities exist for monopoly, and how difficult it may be for those who are outside the trade to know exactly what is going on within. These peculiarities are still more apparent, when we consider the means of transportation. This is entirely in the hands of seven, and, virtually, of five corporations—the Lehigh Coal and Navigation Company, the New Jersey Central Railroad, the Reading Railroad, the Delaware and Hudson Canal Company, and the Delaware and Lackawanna Railroad. The Lehigh and New Jersey Central are fed by numerous lateral roads, which they control, inasmuch as their avenues are the main outlets of the regions from which they lead. The Reading Railroad is the great monopolist of the Schuylkill trade, which, down to 1858, comprised one-half, and, in 1864, more than one-third of the whole quantity of Anthracite mined in Pennsylvania. True, the Schuylkill Navigation Company, which does about one-quarter of the carrying, stands as a separate organization; but the ownership of the two is interpenetrated, and they always work together, to a fraction—the latter constantly following the lead of the former. In the Lackawanna region, the Pennsylvania Company, which is the mighty and popular rival of the Delaware and Hudson, is still dependent upon the former for the canal conveyance by which about half its coal reaches market. A law-suit for a difference in tolls that amounts to a million or more, between these two companies, has been decided, though not in the highest court, in favor of the Delaware; and the state of feeling is such that the Pennsylvania will undoubtedly tend, as rapidly as possible, to become independent. As it is, this company transports a considerable quantity of coal over its railroads to Newburgh, and to New York and Jersey City, by connection with the Erie Railroad at Lackawaxen—probably about 300,000 tons during the past year. We have, then:

The Lehigh Coal and Navigation Company, with its branches.
The New Jersey Central Railroad and its laterals.

The Reading Railroad and the Schuylkill Canal, acting as a unit.
The Delaware and Hudson Canal Company, and the Pennsylvania Coal Co..—the latter partially dependent upon the former, but recalcitrant.
The Delaware and Lackawanna Railroad, or Scranton Co., which are the same.
In all, *five* great avenues of transit.

Between special privileges and the difficulties which exist in the way of the creation of collateral lines, these five or six avenues control the trade. There is undoubtedly some ground for the complaint of monopoly; but not so much as there will be, if the designs of certain very powerful parties are carried out. There is a scheme to unite the interests of the Reading Road and Schuylkill Canal, with those of the Scranton Company. This latter concern is controlled by men of much capital and enterprise. They have introduced a feature into the coal trade, which, while it has worked like a charm for their interests, is viewed with much apprehension by all the "middle-men"—those who stand between the miners and dealers, constituting a rich and powerful class—and bids fair to exert a controlling influence upon the coal trade of the country. This feature, which originated in the strong executive mind of the late President of the Scranton Company, CHRISTOPHER R. ROBERT, Esq., is the plan of selling all the probable surplus of the company, monthly, at auction. It was commenced in February, 1863, and has been continued regularly since, with an aggregate sale of nearly 300,000 tons per annum, or about one-third the product of the company brought to tide-water. To the Company, the advantages of this plan are obvious. The sale is, substantially, for cash; and the quantity being about 25,000 tons, places, at the average price of the year, $200,000 in the hands of the company every month, in advance of shipments. Besides this, it is clear that the certain "placing" of one-third the product of a mining corporation, monthly, in advance of production, is a remarkably safe basis of procedure; for in case of the failure of other regular and calculable outlets of sale, it would not usually be difficult to curtail the scale of operations sufficiently to avoid serious loss. *All* contracts made by mining corporations are made subject to their ability to fulfil them—a somewhat peculiar feature of this trade, to which the Scranton auction sales are no exception. If the company is unable to furnish the coal sold, by reason of accidents, floods, strikes, or other unavoidable causes, it returns the money to purchasers, and annuls its contracts. On the other hand, whatever may be the state of the market, the buyer, having put up his money, has to send for his coal, or lose his advance. He is limited to the current month. The Scranton sale has become, as was inevitable, the thermometer of the coal trade. Transactions are virtually suspended, except those proceeding on regular contracts, for the week before the sale, and the result is instantly telegraphed to all parts of the country. There is considerable reason for believing that this method of sale will become general, within a few years—a result which the middle-men and small miners deprecate exceedingly. It is difficult, however, to see what substantial harm would be done, beyond the temporary disturbance of the trade of these parties. Indeed, it is not improbable that the consumer, whose interest, after all, is the main thing, would be eventually benefitted, for nothing can be fairer than the auction

sale, or more exclusive of monopoly. *Nothing*, of course, can entirely neutralise the advantages of capital, which is as it should be; for capital as well as labor has its privileges, is entitled to protection, and operates as a balance in society and civil government. If all the coal was sold at auction, the capitalist would have the same advantage, in kind, that he now possesses, and would undoubtedly exercise it, by accumulating quantities of the staple, when prices ruled low. So the vocation of the middlemen would only be modified, and they would continue, though perhaps in less numbers, to divide the profit with the great mining corporations.

While, however, the limited number of coal carriers and prominent operators tends measurably to monopoly, and to keep the secret of their movements from the ken of outsiders, it is absurd to suppose that a business amounting, at the ante-war figures, to nearly eight billion dollars, and carried on by some two hundred and forty firms and companies, is beyond the power of the laws of trade. There may be temporary influences of an accidental or subsidiary character, of which capitalists or corporations can avail themselves; but it is certain that, in the main, the coal trade must be governed, and is governed, by the great law of supply and demand. Let us look into this subject, somewhat narrowly, and see if we can discover, in a rational way, an answer to the question at the beginning of this article. First, although not in all its details essentially preliminary to this inquiry, yet because of general interest in the elucidation of the subject, let us glance at the history and statistics of the coal trade in this country from its beginning.

The first Anthracite brought to market was in the year 1813, when a small quantity of flinty coal was shipped down the Lehigh River in arks, by the firm of Miner, Cist & Robinson. Five arks were dispatched, but only two reached Philadelphia, the appearance of which excited about as much astonishment as that of Noah would have done. The other three were lost on the passage, and the only wonder to any one acquainted with the Lehigh River, before its improvement, is, that any craft was ever gotten safely over its rocky, roaring bed. This stream is subject, too, to sudden and incalculable freshets—insomuch that with all the substantial dams, locks, breakwaters and other improvements and defences of the present company, the last great flood, in June, 1862, cost a million dollars to repair, and the upper section, which was worst damaged, was abandoned altogether. These little ark-loads of coal were sold at Philadelphia for twenty-one dollars a ton, but the owners lost money and abandoned the business. It may be of interest to state that the first Lehigh Coal Company, and the first (it is believed) formed in this country, was organized in the year 1793. This company "took up" from the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania, under warrants, about ten thousand acres of land, being, with the addition of about two thousand more, the very same tract now owned and worked by the "Lehigh Coal and Navigation Company." This original company appropriated *ten pounds currency* (/) to the construction of a road over the property; but the stockholders, wearying of such expensive assessments, gave up the job, and the lands lay idle till —after one or two leases in turn abandoned—the ark-builders before named took the matter in hand. In 1817, Josiah White and Erskine Hazard entered upon the field, taking of the original company a twenty year's lease, for the annual rent of one ear of corn, payable on demand,

and with the farther condition, that after a suitable time spent in preparation, they should deliver at Philadelphia, for their own benefit, not less than forty thousand bushels of coal, yearly. To the enterprize and ingenuity of these gentlemen, the establishment of the present company is due. A doubt existing in the minds of many that the coal was of any value, two associations were first formed—the "Lehigh Coal Company," and the "Lehigh Navigation Company," with $55,000, and $50,000 capital, respectively. These united their interests and names in 1820, when, after great faith, perseverance and ingenuity, the first regular shipments of coal began, with a product, for that year, of 365 tons. Its substance was found to be very different from the English bituminous coals —the only kinds known—and, of course, an entirely new method was needed, with new forms of stoves and grates. It was opposed and ridiculed roundly, as all innovations upon established trade and usage are, but experiments were made, with results so successful, that 1023 tons were brought down in the same way, the following year, and found a market at about fifteen dollars a ton. At this time, the fuel of the country was almost exclusively wood—Liverpool coal being considered a luxury of doubtful utility. The people did not understand coal, and did not like it. The entire importation of foreign coal (bituminous) in the year 1821 was only 22,122 tons, and it did not reach 100,000 tons until 1836, falling in 1844, from peculiar circumstances, to about 7,000 tons.

At about the same time, the Schuylkill coal began to excite attention, and the canal was projected and energetically prosecuted. A few specimens were brought down, and found to be of the same general character with the Lehigh, but no trade was opened until 1822, when 1480 tons came through—the Lehigh Company bringing, the same year, 2240 tons. In 1828, the Schuylkill began to exceed its rival in quantity, and has ever since maintained a large excess of production. The Schuylkill region yielded in 1864, 3,642,218 tons—the Lehigh, 1,928,706 tons.

The Delaware and Hudson Canal Company commenced operations in 1829, with a product of 7000 tons, rising the next year to 43,000. This company was followed, after some lesser intermediate operations, by the Pennsylvania Company, which began to work in the same general field in 1850, with a product of 111,014 tons. The Scranton Company followed in 1856, beginning with 122,773 tons. The product of these companies in 1864 was, respectively, 852,130 tons, 759,544 tons, and 963,728 tons. The Shamokin region began to be worked in 1839, but its operations are comparatively inconsiderable, beginning with 11,930 tons, only reaching 100,000 in 1855, and 333,478 in 1864. It is somewhat remarkable that our bituminous coals attracted little attention, east of the Alleghanies, until 1842, when the Cumberland Company commenced operations on a very small scale. The increase was comparatively slow on this kind of coal, though the aggregate product of the various companies, in the year 1864, was 1,238,524 tons. To place the entire trade of the country, with the exception of the uncertain product of the States west of the mountains, before the eye, the following condensed table is presented :

PRODUCTION OF COAL IN THE UNITED STATES

From 1820 *to* 1864.

	Lehigh. Canal & R.R.	Schuylkill. Canal & R.R.	Lackawana and Wyoming. Del.&Hud.	Penn. Co.	Scranton, N. & S.	Other Wyoming.	Shamokin.	Total.	Bituminous. Domestic.	Bituminous. Imported.	Total.
1820,.....	365	....	....	....	....	....	....	365	....	....	....
1821,.....	1,073	....	....	....	....	....	....	1,073	....	22,122	22,122
1822,.....	2,240	1,480	....	....	....	....	....	3,720	....	34,523	34,523
1823,.....	5,823	1,128	....	....	....	....	....	6,951	....	30,433	30,433
1824,..... ..	9,541	1,567	....	....	....	....	....	11,108	....	7,228	7,228
1825,.....	28,293	6,500	....	....	....	....	....	34,893	....	25,645	25,645
1826,.....	31,280	16,767	....	....	....	....	....	48,047	....	35,665	35,665
1827,.....	32,074	31,360	....	....	..	....	....	63,434	....	40,257	40,257
1828,.....	30,232	47,284	...	....	....	....	....	77,516	....	32,302	32,302
1829,.....	25,140	79,978	7,000	....	....	....	....	112,118	....	45,393	45,393
1830,.....	41,750	89,984	43,000	....	....	....	....	174,734	....	58,136	58,136
1831,.....	40,966	81,854	54,000	....	....	....	....	176,820	....	36,509	36,509
1832,.....	70,000	209,271	84,600	....	....	....	....	363,871	....	72,978	72,978
1833,.....	128,000	252,991	111,777	....	....	....	....	487,748	....	92,432	92,432
1834, ...	106,244	226,692	43,700	....	....	....	....	376,636	....	71,626	71,626
1835,.....	131,250	339,508	90,000	....	....	....	...	560,758	....	49,969	49,969
1836, ...	148,211	432,045	103,861	....	....	....	....	684,117	...	108,432	108,432
1837,.....	223,902	523,152	115,387	....	....	....	....	862,441	....	153,450	153,450
1838,.....	213,615	433,875	78,207	....	....	....	....	725,697	....	129,083	129,083
1839,.....	221,025	442,608	122,300	....	....	....	11,930	797,863	....	181,551	181,551
1840,.....	225,318	452,291	148,470	...	....	....	15,505	841,584	....	162 867	162,867
1841,.....	143,037	585,542	192,270	....	....	....	21,463	942,312	....	155,394	155,394
1842,.....	272,546	541,504	205,253	....	....	47,346	10,000	1,076,649	1,708	141,521	143,229
1843,.....	267,793	677,312	227,605	....	....	58,400	10,000	1,241,110	10,082	41,163	51,245
1844,.....	377,002	840,378	251,005	....	....	114,906	13,087	1,596,378	14,890	87,073	101,963
1845,.....	429,453	1,083,796	273,435	....	....	178,401	10,000	1,975,085	24,653	85 776	110,429

1846,.....	517,116	1,286,582	320,000	....	....	198,389	12,572	2,284,659	29,795	156,853	186,648
1847,.....	633,507	1,583,374	388,203	....	....	294,864	14,904	2,914,852	52,940	148,021	200,961
1848,.....	670,321	1,652,835	437,500	....	....	247,696	19,356	3,027,708	79,571	196,168	275,739
1849,.....	781,656	1,605,126	454,240	....	....	278,670	19,650	3,139,342	167,774	198,213	365,987
1850,.....	690,456	1,712,007	441,403	111,014	....	275,406	19,921	3,250,207	234,611	180,439	415,050
1851,.....	964,224	2,229,426	479,078	316,017	....	361,072	24,899	4,374,716	331,879	214,774	546,653
1852,.....	1,072,136	2,450,950	497,105	426,164	....	361,231	25,846	4,833,432	426,674	183,015	609,689
1853,.....	1,054,309	2,470,943	494,827	512,658	....	468,746	15,500	5,016,484	631,987	231,508	863,495
1854,.....	1,207,186	2,895,208	440,944	496,648	133,965	531,921	63,500	5,769,372	830,181	252,865	1,083,046
1855,.....	1,284,113	3,318,555	565,460	504,803	187,000	514,248	116,117	6,490,296	780,493	287,408	1,067,901
1856,.....	1,351,970	3,258,356	499,650	612,500	305,580	554,901	137,406	6,720,313	924,488	173,055	1,097,543
1857,.....	1,318,541	2,985,541	480,699	536,008	490,023	445,873	155,806	6,412,491	893,749	238,192	1,131,941
1858,.....	1,380,030	2,866,449	348,789	630,056	683,411	416,074	135,893	6,460,702	989,695	259,885	1,249,580
1859,.....	1,628,311	3,004,953	591,000	668,854	829,435	524,947	180,753	7,448,253	1,119,951	281,208	1,401,159
1860,.....	1,821,674	3,270,516	499,568	701,523	1,080,227	535,583	210,108	8,119,199	1,244,820	240,697	1,485,517
1861,.....	1,738,377	2,697,489	726,644	629,657	1,104,319	740,730	241,451	7,878,667	831,412	533,115	1,364,527
1862,.....	1,351,054	2,890,578	637,066	601,091	1,094,315	585,969	241,642	7,401,715	813,754	545,433	1,359,187
1863,.....	1,894,713	3,433,265	828,150	662,904	1,223,165	662,721	274,936	8,979,854	1,166,210	1,000,775	2,166,985
1864,.....	1,928,706	3,642,218	852,180	759,544	1,302,457	639,456	333,478	*9,457,989	1,238,524	510,608	1,749,122

* This sum is short of the actual production, about 500,000 tons. There are various miscellaneous items that are not easily classified, nor exactly attainable. Mr. BANNAN, the careful editor of the *Miners' Journal*, published at Pottsville, who is the only regular and systematic tabulator of the coal trade, makes the total, for 1864, 9,992,007 tons. But Mr. BANNAN does not attempt even to estimate the Bituminous product of the coal-fields west of the Alleghanies—fields vastly greater in area than those of Pennsylvania, Maryland and Eastern Virginia, and which, in the course of time, will perhaps supersede these entirely. For the Anthracite is limited, as far as known, to the Pennsylvania fields, and is by no means inexhaustible. Every known variety of Bituminous coal is found beyond the Alleghanies, from the common, blacksmith's coal of Pittsburgh, to the rich steam coal, hitherto only brought from Wales, the blocky gas coal like that of Nova Scotia, and the fatty Cannel like the Meeball. The West Virginia Cannels, only brought to this market in specimens, though shaped differently from the English, are quite as dense and inflammable.

We have thus before us the statistics of the *three great* Anthracite coal fields, and it is important to understand that each is in competition with the others, and each divided by competition in itself. This competition extends, with the single exception of the Schuylkill, not only to the mining but the transportation of coal. As before stated, the Schuylkill transporting interests are substantially in the same hands; and it is a remarkable example of the equalizing tendency of the laws which govern supply and demand, and the competitive interests that are aroused by consumption, that the want of another and independent line of transit, which would break the Schuylkill monopoly, is the very thing that the miners there most desire. The interests of consumers and producers are not so far apart, after all, that they may not be subserved by the destruction of an intermediate monopoly.

The Lehigh region is now worked by some eighteen or twenty operators, besides the mother Company, commonly called the Old Lehigh. These operators have a road independent of the old company, and two more are in process of building. The Wilkesbarre mines (from which comes one of our finest family coals) had, until this year, no means of access to the Eastern market, except by the upper section of the Lehigh Canal, and that section having been destroyed by the flood of 1862, was not restored, because the Wilkesbarre tonnage was not worth enough to the Lehigh Company to pay them for rebuilding it. But the Wilkesbarre miners have now a road of their own, connecting with the Pennsylvania Central. Their coal, however, in quality, belongs to the Lackawana family, rather than the Lehigh.

The Delaware and Hudson, Pennsylvania and Scranton Companies, as already remarked, are directly in competition, because they mine in the same general region; and their coals, though not precisely alike, are more readily substituted, one for the other, than almost any others. The smaller miners in this region generally sell their coals to these great corporations, but the natural competition between the companies produces a healthful state of trade, which is evinced by the fact that the Lackawana and Wyoming coals are the lowest priced, and the most equably priced, in the long run, of any that come to the market. While the extent of their operations, under judicious conduct, makes these companies profitable to stockholders, the community of dealers and consumers finds in their products a more trustworthy and cheaper staple of trade than in any other.

The relative qualities and uses of the Lehigh, Schuylkill, and Lackawana coals are as follows: The Lehigh is the hardest and purest anthracite in the world. When mined well and cleared of slate, it is the best known coal for making iron—being substantially free from sulphur. From its density it requires a strong draught for its ignition, and consequently it is comparatively unfitted for open grates or stoves, and is less esteemed for steam than almost any other. But it makes at once the hottest and most substantial inclosed fire, and is therefore a favorite for close stoves and furnaces. The best qualities of the Schuylkill and Mahanoy coals (the latter is an intermediate between the former and the Lehigh) approach the Lehigh in density, but are not usually quite as hard, and are, therefore, more generally useful for families. These coals are very much liked. Their product, as already remarked, is about one-third of the whole An-

thracite list, and they occupy the intermediate or average position. They are good for iron making, good for steam—though rather hard—and excellent for family use. The Lackawana, Pittston, and Scranton coals, with the other Wyoming grades, are of considerably less weight and density. Of these, the Scranton is the lightest and most easily kindled and consumed. All of them will burn either in open or close grates, and are the most easily managed coals that we have. They are not highly esteemed for making iron, though they are used for that purpose, and largely, too, where they are so accessible that their waste is compensated by inexpensive transportation. For steam they are valued above all others, because they are light to carry, and burn freely, without *clinker*—a peculiarity that saves the grate-bars essentially.

It would certainly seem, to an unprejudiced mind, that the elements of independent competition existed between these great companies, in a sufficient degree to insure a fair price to consumers—provided, they are able to keep their production up to the point of demand. This is the very thing. The main reason why coal is so high—apart from the necessary advance on account of the depreciation of the currency—is because the supply for the last three years has fallen short of the demand. It is a simple matter, and easily demonstrable. Of the two hundred per centum advance since the war, it is reasonable to charge one hundred to the account of the currency. This had depreciated more than one-half, and if consumption and production remained unchanged, the fact would necessarily have doubled the price of staples. Let us recur to the table, and in the light of explanatory statements, see if the other hundred per centum is not fully accounted for. The greatest increase in the production of coal in one year since the trade commenced, was in 1863—the excess over 1862 being 1,578,139 tons. The nearest approaches to this rate of increase were in the years 1851 and 1859, which produced, respectively, 1,125,509 and 987,551 tons over the years previous. But there is a remarkable similarity of circumstances in the three cases. The three years previous to 1851—1850, 1849, and 1848—had gained only 334,355 tons together; though the year 1847 had gained 630,203 tons by itself, and the gains of 1846, 1845, 1844, and 1843, had averaged 300,000 tons each. The three years previous to 1859—1858, 1857, and 1856—had gained only 28,594 tons together; though the years 1855 and 1854 had averaged 700,000 tons each. The three years previous to 1863—1862, 1861, and 1860—had gained only 46,353 tons together. Thus:

		Tons.
1856 1857 1858	Gained together	28,594
1859	Gained	987,551
1860 1861 1862	Gained together	46,353
1863	Gained	1,578,139
	In eight years an aggregate gain of	2,640,637

This is an average annual gain for eight years, from 1856 to 1863, of 330,080 tons. A glance at the general table will show that the average annual gain for the twelve years preceding 1856, including the deficient

years of 1850, 1849, and 1848, was fully 450,000 tons. For twelve years, then, from 1844 to 1855, inclusive, the average annual gain was 450,000 tons; for eight years, from 1856 to 1863, inclusive, it was only 335,080 tons. It would be an insult to the intelligence of any reader of this article to suppose that he believes the demand for coal has *diminished* in this country during the last eight years. There is, perhaps, no more convincing evidence to the contrary, than the increase of imported coals during these eight years. Every one knows that importations, when taken by terms of years, absolutely follow demand. In 1856 we imported 87,000 tons of coal; in 1863, 1,000,000 tons.

Not only was the usual demand for coal undiminished during the last eight years, but we all know that a large extra demand has arisen by reason of the war. More coal was demanded by private manufacturers and carriers engaged in making and transporting arms, munitions, and supplies for Government. The Government itself became a greatly increased consumer—using, the first year of the war, fully 200,000 tons; the second and third 500,000 each, and the fourth, not less than a million. To supply this demand considerably more than the usual rate of increase would have had to be maintained. But an incident occurred in 1862 which reduced the natural product of that year not less than 500,000 tons. This was the great freshet of June, which stopped the transportation of every Anthracite mine in the United States for a month, and of some—as of the Lehigh region—for three or four months.

It will be noticed, moreover, that the year 1861 closed with an actual *decrease* of production as compared with 1860 of 430,514 tons. It would thus seem, that no element of disaster to the coal consuming interest of this country was lacking. In 1861, the first year of the war, involving an increased consumption of probably 350,000 tons, the supply fell off 430,514 tons. In 1862, the second year of the war, when the Government demand alone had reached 500,000 tons, not to speak of private manufacturers, the flood came, cutting off half a million tons. True, the country did not immediately feel these great deductions, on account of the large *carrying stock* in the hands of dealers. This quantity probably reached nearly 750,000 tons in the year 1861, and though a good deal reduced by the heavy draught of that year, was not wholly exhausted until 1862. But during the flood of that year it was entirely sold out, and *has never since been replenished—there has been no chance to replenish it.* The *carrying stock* in the United States, outside of the mining corporations, is not two months supply this day, and the opening of trade in the spring finds the yards empty. It was so last spring, and it was so in the spring of 1863.

In view of these facts, does it require a ghost or a prophet to account for the high price of coal? It is not to be denied that more money has been made by somebody, to the extent, probably, of at least fifty per centum of the whole advance, and it is not difficult to decide into whose pockets this profit has gone. It is divided between the miner and the carrying companies. The Delaware and Hudson, Pennsylvania, and Scranton companies are both miners and carriers, but only of their own coal, (with a few unimportant exceptions,) and we have no means of discriminating the sources of their profits, as, whether by mining or carrying. We have their lists of prices of coals, and that is all. But the Lehigh

and Schuylkill avenues are open to all, and by their changes of prices and tolls we can tell something. In the beginning of the year 1862 the cost of these coals was as follows:

	Per ton.
At the Lehigh mines	$1 85
Transportation to tide-water	1 44
	$3 29
At the Schuylkill mines	$1 80
Transportation to tide	1 73
	$3 53

At the close of the season in 1864 the cost was as follows:

At the Lehigh mines	$5 50
Transportation, etc	4 26
	$9 76
At the Schuylkill mines	$5 25
Transportation	5 12
	$10 37

The mines in all parts of the country have been subject, during the past two years, to a continuous succession of *strikes*. In some districts much violence has prevailed, leading colliers having been even murdered in repeated instances. Rather an unusual proportion of operatives have gone from the collieries into the army, and the canals and railroads have lost largely from same cause. The bounties offered have prevailed against the low wages current at the opening of the war. The consequence of these *strikes*, and this scarcity of hands, has been repeated suspensions of mining operations, uniformly followed by advances of wages. Suspensions of mining diminish the supply of coal, and advances of wages under such circumstances, operate in increased proportion to advance the prices.

Another important element demands at least a reference. A colliery of any magnitude—and none but large collieries are profitable—takes a great amount of capital. If a colliery, producing 800 tons a day, requires a floating capital, in ordinary times, of $100,000 to carry on its operations, that capital, in times like these, must be fully doubled. If the collier finds, in ordinary times, that a profit of fifty cents a ton is a fair compensation for his risks, he will naturally calculate, that when the cost of coal is doubled, his profit and guarantee should advance in a similar proportion. This is simply common sense. It operates, indeed, against the consumer, but it is an inflexible law of trade, so much so, that if not complied with, capitalists will gradually withdraw their money and employ it where it will give them legitimate returns. And this brings us to two points, with the consideration of which this article will be concluded. The first is the influence of the small colliers upon the trade, and the price of coal.

There are, in each of the great coal fields, but particularly in the Lehigh and Schuylkill, many small colliers who work "upon their own hook," and from hand to mouth. In the Lackawana region most of these parties sell their coal to the great companies near them, because there are no

other facilities of transportation; but in the Lehigh and Schuylkill they ship directly to the market themselves. Some of them mine good coal—some of them, very indifferent; but almost all are obliged, in order to sell, to make concessions in price. This would seem at first glance to be a species of competition calculated to keep down the prices of the large companies, and promote the consumers interest. So it does, but not immediately. The circumstances of these small colliers create a class of merchants in the large cities, already referred to, as "middle-men," who need not be expected to pass the loaf without cutting from it as liberal a slice as its size will allow. This business has attracted a large capital, and the result of its operations is to keep the coals of these small colliers fully up to the market price of the companies. The profit is made by other men, but the result is the same. We are not to be understood, however, as expressing an opinion adverse to this class of dealers. *They stand as a very necessary check upon the operations of the large companies, and add a distinct and important competitive agency to those already existing.* There is a continual jealousy of their operations, on the part of the large incorporations, resulting in the exhibition of a scale of prices generally intended to underbid them. Coal can always be bought of the companies when they have it to sell, cheaper than of the middle-men.

The other point is the probable price of coal for the future. In the first place let us see what increase the regular trade and consumption of the country demand year by year. The average gain, as shown by our table, for twelve years, from 1844 to 1855, was 450,000 tons. This evidently tended to an excessive stock; for though the average gain for the ensuing eight years, from 1856 to 1863, was only 330,080 tons, there was a heavy glut, and coal fell in 1862 to $3 29 per ton, the lowest price ever reached in this market. We will assume, therefore, that 400,000 tons gain every year will supply the regular demand. For extraordinary war purposes and Government demand we will assume that an aggregate of 2,000,000 tons was required for the years 1862, 1863, and 1864, and that 1,000,000 tons will be needed for the year 1865. It thus appears that 3,200,000 tons was required in the aggregate for 1862, 1863, and 1864, more than the rate of production of 1861. But the aggregate advance product of these three years, at the largest figures, was only 2,745,268 tons; so that we are going into 1865 with a deficiency of 454,632 tons, while the year itself will require for its regular increase 400,000 tons, and for extraordinary purposes 1,000,000 tons. The year 1865, therefore, must advance upon 1864 at least 1,854,632 tons, in order to keep the market in as good a position as at present. Can this quantity be furnished?

We have seen that the mining facilities of the country as they stood in 1863, were equal to the production of 1,578,139 tons more than in 1862, and that the product of 1864—according to Mr. BANNAN'S table, which we think very nearly accurate—was 1,000,000 tons in advance of 1863. The falling off in the latter year is easily accounted for by the frequent suspension of mining operations by reason of strikes, which, in the Schuylkill region alone, amounted to fully 400,000 tons from this cause. We think that there is reason to believe that the mining facilities of the present year will exceed those of 1863, and that the full quantity of 1,854,632 tons in advance of the product of 1864 will be easily supplied,

unforeseen disasters, of course, excepted. This quantity could be supplied by the unassisted facilities of the present mining and transportation companies, *for there is no avenue of transportation worked to its full capacity*, except the Reading Railroad. But there is another and important element at work. The high price of coal has called a great number of new companies into existence within the past year or two, many of which are now ready for operation. A new railroad has been constructed, as already remarked, which is bringing the products of the Wyoming Valley to New York. Two new roads are building along the line of the Lehigh, and, although the Reading interest has been strong enough hitherto to prevent any interference with its route, the fact that it cannot do the business of the region that it represents indicates clearly that a competitive line will be speedily called for and built. These being facts, the inference is unavoidable, that in case of a considerable falling off in the demand for coal, a proportionate reduction of prices may be expected.

The inflation of coal stocks at the present time is a feature of the market that prudent men will do well to heed. We may be sure that *those* who have been conducting the coal trade for the last few years have their eye upon it, and are taking advantage of it. When an old collier, in times like these, invites capitalists and others to form a company, and buy his mines and machinery, they may depend upon it that he sees breakers ahead. They will reflect that he has had much experience in the business that he kindly proposes to resign—they, none at all. There is particular cause for caution, if he who, all his life, has been a producer and seller of coal, appears suddenly as a convert to the interests of the consumer. When numerous companies, with unusual nominal capital are springing up, and inviting attention, prudent men of small means will look sharply to their earnings. This brings us to the exposure of a somewhat favorite fallacy of the day, with which this article will be concluded.

A class of operations have come up lately called "Coal-at-Cost Companies," or "Consumers-Benefit Companies." In plain English, they are humbugs. The ordinary "Coal-at-Cost Company" is nothing more or less than a small collier, or his agent, or a dealer, who, having more coal than he can sell by his usual outlet, strikes off some hand-bills, rents a cheap office, puts his coal down fifty cents or a dollar, and so works it off rapidly from the boats. He keeps his new title as long as it suits his purpose, and then dismisses it. This does no harm—it is an irregular way of doing business, but if the coal is really sold cheaper, and *the* dealer does not cheat in the weight more than the difference he pretends to make in price, the consumer gets the benefit. There is another style, however, that is really mischievous. This is a regularly organized company, proposing to lease or buy certain mines, and promising to give each shareholder coal for his own consumption at actual cost. The prospectus of such a company lies at this moment before us. It proposes to buy a well-known and valuable mine which is now operated by an experienced collier, its owner. Why does he wish to sell it? We know, or may know, if behind the scenes, that it cost him somewhere about $300,000. We turn to the prospectus and find that the proposed capital is $800,000, divided into shares of twenty dollars each. If the experienced owner can run this mine at no more than a satisfactory profit, at a cost of $300,000,

can the inexperienced company into whose hands he proposes to turn it, work it at a cost of $800,000, and sell coal without profit? And to whom is this handsome difference of half a million going? If the old collier gets it, it seems likely that he can well afford to sell out. But suppose he is a man of moderate views, and has offered his property (costing $300,000) to an ingenious Wall-Street broker for $500,000, who, in his turn, has devised this "Consumers-own-your-own Mines Company," at a capital of $800,000. If this seems incredible to any one, let him take the word of one who knows the wires, that it is a very pretty and practicable operation, if only there are found noodles enough to believe that great business operations are gotten up for benevolent purposes.

One day a man came into the office of the writer—an honest, hard-working letter carrier, who had proved his thrift by laying up from such a slender business, a little sum of $200. He came to ask about one of these companies—whether he would better invest his $200 in ten shares of the stock, and so be insured an annual perpetuity of ten tons of coal at cost. "Why do you think of it?" asked I.

"Because you fellows are making three or four dollars a ton out of me on coal."

"Speak for yourself, my friend—I have no interest in coal, though I know others who have. But how do you know that anyone is making three or four dollars a ton out of you?"

"Because everybody says so. Didn't the ———— have an article last night saying that coal can be bought at Mauch Chunk at $3 50, and sent here for $3 50—making $7—and here," (pulling out a receipt,) "is Anthracite and Co.'s bill for my last at $12."

"True, and in another column of the same paper you find the notice of the 'Consumers-own-your-own-mines Company,' don't you?"

"Exactly, and as I thought you knew something about it, I just came in to ask you."

"Well," I suggested, "I don't *know* that there is any connection between the two notices, and I'm sure the honest editor has no suspicion of it, but I happen to know something of the company spoken of, and advise you to turn over in your mind as you carry round your letters, the reason, if you can, why people are so anxious to sell their coal property, when they are getting five dollars a ton profit on the product."

The poor fellow scratched his head doubtfully; but suddenly a bright idea struck him.

"It is always the way with you fellows," he said—determined to class me with the capitalists—Heaven send he be a prophet! "You are always keeping a fellow down. You are in the trade, and you want to keep me from getting coal cheap. I'll put into this company and try it."

"But," I replied, with missionary spirit, "suppose a time comes when coal is sold by all the dealers at considerably *less* than cost, as it will be, if they have any stock on hand when the war ends, and gold goes down—what then?"

"Well, then I won't buy my coal of my company, but get it as cheap as I can."

"But what will become of your stock, then, in a company that was 'watered' 100 per cent, and that has to sell coal under that disadvantage below cost?" Scratch.

"And then, suppose coal continues high and profitable, what is to prevent your company from passing a resolution some day that they find this supplying of subscribers at cost a losing operation, and rescinding the whole arrangement?"

"But they can't do it."

"Don't trust them—that's my advice."

My friend gathered up his package of letters, smiling.

"Ah, you fellows are always down on a poor man—I believe I'll take the stock."

And so he will, and the fact may be a good enough comment on the uselessness of advising a man who has made up his mind.

THE HOUSE OF HAPSBURG IN AMERICA.

By Professor Andrew Ten Brook.

(Continued from page 258.)

There has been one period in the later history of this house which looks so like an exception to Hapsburg bigotry as to demand a reference. Charles VI., who reigned from 1685 to 1740, saw that a male successor to his honors was about to fail, and secured, by the pragmatic sanction, the succession of his only daughter Maria Theresa. She married Francis, Duke of Lorraine, (and hence the house has since been called that of Hapsburg Lorraine,) who nominally reigned jointly with her, but really did not interfere in the government of her Austrian dominions. She was bigoted as any of her family, and wrote devotional books, one of which was published. But her uncertain title to the throne, the fearful external pressure upon her from Frederic the Great of Prussia, the Duke of Bavaria, France and the Turks, drove her to a liberal internal policy to escape dissolution. When in immediate expectation of the capture of Vienna, she fled with her infant child to Presburg, and threw herself upon her Hungarian subjects, at a diet there assembled. They entered into her cause, saved her throne, and ever remained her enthusiastic supporters; for she took the coronation oath as queen of Hungary without any reservation, and kept it. Though she but barely tolerated other religions than her own, her internal administration was wise and liberal. She dismissed the Jesuits, limited the power of the clergy, introduced schools and the arts, and so improved her finances that from the brink of bankruptcy she raised the revenue to a large excess over the expenditures, and left the internal state of Austria better than it had ever been before, or has been since. Her son and successor, Joseph II., played the great and liberal monarch. In 1769, the year after his accession to the Empire, and ten years before he succeeded, on his mother's death, to the Austrian throne, he was at Rome, traveling incognito under the name of Count Falkenstein, and among other places of interest he visited the Gesu, the great establishment of the Jesuits. It was at the time when their suppression was imminent, and was suspended upon the election of a pope by the conclave then in session. The fathers of the order thronged around him. Their

General, RICCI, prostrate at his feet, was about to address him, a petition which he anticipated by asking RICCI when he intended to put off the habit of his order. He treated the matter of the election of a Pope as of little moment. Contrary to the rule he was introduced into the Conclave, which no one was allowed to enter and retire until after an election had been effected, and, to avoid the fetes prepared for him, left Rome that very evening. In this same pert and flippant manner he governed in Austria on his accession. One act raised him above all the family before and after him—the toleration edict which gave freedom of worship to the religious sects; but the rest of his acts—and indeed this too—were arbitrary. Even where they were liberal, their liberality was forced upon the people when they were unprepared for it. He neglected all precedents and constitutions, governed Hungary without the coronation or oath, and acted in like manner in everything else. His life looked much like an attempt to play FREDERIC the Great. He died just in time to escape the dissolution of his Austrian dominions. His brother LEOPOLD, Grand Duke of Tuscany, succeeded him, and, by a master policy, restored in a single year the system of his mother and the good will of his subjects, and died at the opening of the French revolution, in which his sister MARIE ANTOINETTE played so tragic a part. He was succeeded in 1792 by his son FRANCIS, who reigned—if it can be called a reign—until 1835, embracing the whole period of NAPOLEON'S career. He gave his daughter, MARIA LOUISA, to the French Emperor in marriage, and survived and reigned for twenty years after the banishment of his son-in-law. He was succeeded by his son, FERDINAND V., who abdicated in 1848, and still lives in retirement in the city of Prague. The history of the House of Hapsburg would show as narrow a range of variation in the character of its reigning sovereigns as that of any dynasty that ever reigned. It would show a curious compound of benevolence with superstition. The late Emperor is said to be so benevolent that money is even now kept out of his hands lest he should beggar himself by bestowing it all in charity. He had a conscientiousness, however, which did not belong to every member of the family. He would not violate his promises to Hungary and the other provinces of the Empire. As the counsels and policy of the house required this, he must yield his throne to one less scrupulous. It was in the reign of this superstitious, conscientious man, that all the protestants of his province of Tyrol, numbering 137 families, were banished in 1837, and found a home in the Prussian province of Silesia. They must sell their houses and lands, situated in the most beautiful valley of Tyrol—the Zillerthal—and seek a home in a foreign land, because such was the counsel of the Jesuits, who were then the teachers of the province.

FRANCIS JOSEPH, the present Emperor, by the abdication of his uncle, and the renunciation of his father, came to the throne in 1848, when but 18 years of age. His dominions must first be conquered before they could be governed, and but for Russia's aid the Empire would have been dismembered. The rebellion once subdued, he annihilated all constitutions and precedents and incorporated Hungary into the Empire as an integral part of it. Checked, foiled, and rendered more modest, especially by NAPOLEON, in 1859, he has greatly modified his policy, not, however, so as to make the following, which we cut from a religious paper, true in its full

sense: "Within three years Austria has adopted a constitution, securing perfect religious freedom to all, and admitting the Bible in all languages. A place of worship has been given by the Emperor to the protestants in Vienna." Instead of the words "Austria has adopted, etc.," read, "His Imperial Majesty has graciously granted his people a constitution," and then remember that he who can give a constitution can revoke or disregard it. Instead of "perfect religious freedom to all," read, "religious freedom under certain defined provisions to all *existing sects*." The statement that the Emperor has given the protestants a place of worship in Vienna, would *seem* to imply that hitherto there had been no protestant worship in that capital. But there were several such before this imperial gift. It must, however, be admitted that there has been greater progress in Austria for three years past than in any country in Europe, and the true American will set it down as a balance against many weaknesses of FRANCIS JOSEPH, that he is with us in our present struggle. As a true despot, he is opposed to all rebellions even in a republic.

But it is the Emperor's brother on whom our interest is now concentrated. His Imperial Majesty was making, in 1857, a tour with the young empress in his Lombardo-Venetian kingdom. This was characterized by the publication of amnesties and the distribution of largesses. His brother, the Arch-Duke MAXIMILIAN, now on the Mexican throne, was in his suite. He had been married but the year before, and perhaps felt no aversion to becoming the center of a vice-regal court at Milan. Field Marshall RADETSKY, then in his 91st year, had asked to be relieved of the cares of the Government, and the Emperor inclined to grant the veteran's request, and put his brother in the place. It may not have been their fault that the court of this young couple was less brilliant than that which surrounded a man of about his age, and his widow-bride, in the same city, just 60 years before. He may not have been at fault that he failed in his attempt to govern Lombardy and Venice, for a good government from Austria would scarcely have been tolerated by these people. But he soon left them and was placed over the Austrian navy. In this character he did little that we know of, except to write a letter to Lieut. MAURY—a compliment which we value less now than we did before the latter became a rebel.

The motives which led the French Emperor to this choice of a sovereign, for our neighbors on the south, were doubtless somewhat mixed. He who is most recently from the ranks of the vulgar, is most ready to defend the prerogatives of the class to which he has just risen. His Majesty's own rank has been questioned, and he must lay by a store of merit so that other sovereigns may feel bound to admit his divine right to their circle. Mexico has been over forty years without a government. More than seventy different chief executives (nearly two a year) have attempted in turn to administer its affairs, and have failed. If MAXIMILIAN should succeed, the world would attribute to NAPOLEON the singular merit of giving a government to a land which had never been well governed, and for forty years not at all. If he should fail it would only be as all others had failed before him.

And why should we be unwilling to allow that true benevolence may play its part among the motives of this ambitious man? In this respect the pamphleteers and newspaper correspondents who give to the public

the key note upon which they chant the praises and the curses of the world's rulers, generally commit a grave error. They admit too little influence of higher motives in those whom they rightly represent as swayed in general by ambition or the more grovelling passions; they allow too little of baser metal in the composition of the good, the wise, the prudent, and the patriotic. Why may not even NAPOLEON feel in his exalted position some of the impulses which lead to beneficence, and yield them a place in his plans? Why may he not, at least, be wise enough to perceive that the ends of ambition would be more surely attained in the path which leads to the world's highest weal? He had not failed to notice the wretched condition of Mexico—the anarchy and violence which have long prevailed there,—and to feel the importance to that unhappy country and the world of some effort to introduce law and order in their stead. We had lost our hope, and certainly NAPOLEON cherished none, in the weak and spasmodic efforts of a turbulent democracy. MONTESQUIEU taught, and we firmly believe, that virtue in the people is the only security of permanancy in a democracy. Virtue is wanting; honor, too, is wanting; Mexico's only remaining hope is in a strong and vigorous monarchy. NAPOLEON has hope that by establishing such a government he may still save Mexico and merit the world's gratitude.

The motives which sway the imperial mind in this matter are the same in general which rule us. He wishes to furnish a government to Mexico just as we would like to do. The same motive leads us to desire his failure. His own glory, and that of his dynasty, may indeed be a more immediate motive with him than personal and family considerations are with us. Refused admission to the circle of royalty by European sovereigns—long denied by them the epithet of brother—repelled in his efforts to connect himself by marriage even with the petty, princely houses of Germany and Italy, much more the greater ones, he must finally take up with a Spanish princess, whose only hope of escaping a return to the ranks of the vulgar lay in this offer. This alone would not rank him with royalty, much less do what he desired, raise him in the princely ranks far above a questionable position. He must be not only of the princes, but the lawgiver of the order. His success at home, and his merits in the Crimea and in Italy, were not exactly of the kind to secure the personal favor of the monarchs, except that of VICTOR EMMANUEL, which, in the unsettled state of Italy, is of little value. What can he do?

The success of the American revolution reacted upon Europe. This reaction concurring with elements existing there and already in motion, came near overthrowing the monarchies of the Old World. When NAPOLEON was finally put down—when the sovereigns of Europe had just began to raise their heads above the receding waves of the terrible revolution which had well-nigh engulphed them, they saw their greatest danger in the American movement. Reflecting on their recent peril and narrow escape, and deeming that they saw the cause of their danger still in vigorous action in America, they formed what has been called the Holy Alliance, so called perhaps from the personal character of the class of men whose sacred functions had been disturbed, their occupation imperiled, their very existence put to so fearful a hazard, and their persons so often forced into degrading contact with common humanity. These men are declared everywhere to have reigned by the grace of God—a proposition

which we must in fairness admit, since there is no other way to account for their reigning at all. The words of scripture also, "where sin abounded grace did much more abound," greatly favor this claim, as every one must perceive who reads the history of courts. To sustain this institution in Europe, and propagate it on this continent, was the main object of the Holy Alliance. It would restore to Spain—the land in which this institution had attained its highest perfection—her possessions in America, and thus spread the institution of royalty over the whole continent. It was Spain, and that, too, when governed by the Hapsburgs, which developed the greatest activity of the holy office, and at home, in Spanish America, the Netherlands and Italy reduced all to the unity of the faith. This country had, therefore, the first claim on the services of the Holy Alliance, but President MONROE, in his message for 1825, forbade its interference.

This compact of sovereigns was dissolved, but now the last born and most remarkable of that race who reign by "the grace of God," a man who has passed through so many transformations that we scarcely know where to rank him—who is slanderously said to have belonged once to a lower but very useful order of the ruling class—the London police, and to have been afterwards a great patron of the same class in New York—this man has taken up the work of the defunct Holy Alliance in America. The motive which swayed this compact of royalty has doubtless its place, also, in this imperial mind, contemned as he had been by his royal brethren. One would naturally suppose that after rising so far above them all, he would scorn to descend again to their level and accept the brotherhood which they at first denied him, much more to become its champion. He knows that he would not have been so safe in New York if a Bourbon or a Hapsburg had reigned over these States, and that his predecessor, whose granddaughter he has now established on the throne of Mexico, might have been worse off than in school-teaching, or sleeping in hay lofts with stage drivers. He has, however, risen above the fear of a return of such days. Even if he feared them, he might hope that a throne created by him would furnish him an asylum. We may justly attribute to him a desire to restore hereditary monarchy wherever he can conveniently do it. The catholic church, too, may claim his services. By the overgrown power of the Greek church in Russia, the advance of protestantism in Europe and America, and the utter nothingness of the Spanish catholic States of the Western Hemisphere, as well as to make amends for the contempt which he has shown to the Holy Father, he may feel himself called upon to do something towards the equillibrium of the forces and his own credit with the Roman See. What have been called the Latin nations, too, in contradistinction to the Teutonic and Sclavonic, have long been on the wane in regard to their influence in the family of civilized nations. Italy, from her endless divisions and her subjection to Austria, was either lost or was on the wrong side. NAPOLEON restored it mostly in 1859 to its natural alliance with the Latin race. The effort to regenerate Mexico is another movement in the same direction, as, also, the augmented dignity which he had given to his own Empire of France.

This act of the Emperor falls in with those broad views of the world's commerce which he has been known to cherish. In his deepest humiliation, he was occupied with the scheme of cutting the Isthmus of Panama with a ship canal. He wrote a pamphlet setting forth its great advantages

to the world. He signed a contract when in the prison at Ham binding himself personally to expend 75,000,000 francs towards the carrying out of this work. He is now actually occupied with a similar cutting of the Isthmus of Suez. This project in Mexico has attached to it, in his own mind, without any doubt, the long cherished one of connecting the Atlantic and Pacific. The magnificent schemes which occupied his prison hours, when none but himself dreamed of the destiny which awaited him, may be supposed still to exist, perhaps enlarged, but quite as likely made more modest by his elevation to power. He has commenced to translate his thoughts into acts. The results have just begun to develop themselves before us. We must not, however, be strict in reasoning from his known plans to his acts; or, on the other hand, from his acts back to his long cherished plans. The latter will never be known until the secrets of all hearts are revealed. Light may be shed upon them. If his purposes and achievements differ from each other only as those of most men, they will still remain too wide asunder to justify us in taking one as the exponent of the other. He has of course had, and still has, some grand life-plan before him. Hitherto he has doubtless been much more occupied with the revision than with the execution of this plan. Section after section, chapter after chapter, perhaps book after book, must have been dropped from the original draught, as events have closed vistas once open, or reflection has modified his estimate of objects seen through them. So, too, new chapters must have been inscribed as events have opened new vistas. The structure has never been demolished and a new one erected in its stead, and yet, successively, almost every stone and stick of timber in it may have been changed, while, built by the same architect, and on the same general plan, it passes for the same old edifice. He is too wise to attempt the execution of an old purpose, which events have shown not feasible. He has not lived in the world so long, the sport of fortune, before he was adopted and became her favorite son, without learning the world's tendencies. He dare not disregard them if he would. His uncle's situation was very different. His great element of strength was the weakness and rottenness of the European monarchs and monarchies of his day. He played with them as a child plays with his toys. But he failed to notice the progress of their education under his own wonderful tuition. It is hazardous for the master to attempt to flog the young man of twenty, because as a boy of fourteen years he had patiently submitted to flogging. About the time of the Congress of Erfurth, in 1808, NAPOLEON had the continental sovereigns so schooled that, like good boys, they took their seats at his word and quietly kept them. But five years later, he attempted to flog the largest boy in the school, and was in turn put out. The nephew's case is quite different. He has not educated Europe, but Europe and the rest of the world has educated him. No man knows better than LOUIS NAPOLEON the elements of which the world is made up. He will despise none of them. The general demand for religious freedom, the progress of the great missionary enterprise, which is doing more to make known and to improve the physical and moral condition of the world than all other agencies combined, as well as all the liberal and progressive tendencies of the age are, well known to him. He will not forfeit the world's gratitude by setting himself against them. The most he will attempt will be to show that they can thrive under monarchical as well

as under republican governments, and thus become foster-father to the child that will in the end assert his paternal rights, and restore republican, or, at least, constitutional government.

While NAPOLEON has had in mind the great commercial interests of the world—which he will not only foster but develop to their highest capability—he has not forgotten, and dare not despise, these beneficent movements. He has done nothing, nor will he do anything, to promote those great enterprises of Christian benevolence and philanthropy, and especially those of free inquiry in matters of religious and civil government; nor will he, on the other hand, do anything to increase the power of the papal see over the human conscience, but, on the other hand, will ever check and limit it. He is doing more even now to humiliate and offend the Pope than he is to restrain the freedom of protestant worship. He is not fully characterized when called an ambitious man. His ambition is, no doubt, somewhat controlling, but it neglects no considerations of prudence. He is the most cautious of men. When he attempted to free Italy from the Austrian yoke, his caution made him leave the work unfinished. He knew that Prussia would not interfere unless he should cross the Mincio and enter the territory of the German Confederation, and that all the German powers were bound to defend that territory. He left Venetia to Austria rather than incur the risk. He has hazarded nothing yet; probably he will run no hazard in America. In alliance with England and Spain he made an effort to collect some debts in Mexico. His allies withdrew without having effected anything. He more consistently pursued some real end. He saw the United States struggling with a fearful rebellion. The effect of this was not merely to quiet his fears of intervention; he took a broader and more rational view. He would establish a government in Mexico; but he saw no material there from which its subordinate agents could be made. But he foresaw, that in case the government at Washington should succeed in quenching the rebellion, there would be enough—and those, too, skilled in matters of government—who would be ready to take refuge in Mexico and subserve his purpose. If, on the other hand, the Southern States should establish their independence, he foresaw a relation between the new confederacy and the new empire which would still furnish him the agents for his government. If in all this, ambition has been his motive, it has never outrun his caution or prudence. Had there been no movement in progress which promised to furnish the means of sustaining a government in Mexico, he would not have made the attempt. Rumor has already announced the beginning of the execution of this policy by taking an old United States Senator of Southern sympathies, and with a wife of courtly manners, and raising him to a dukedom. This, if true, shows the direction in which he is looking for the agents for the government, whether of the empire bestowed upon MAXIMILIAN, or any territory reserved to himself. His special motive in wishing to own a province in America, if such is the fact, we may not be able to tell. We can, however, conceive of commercial advantages in such an arrangement. Some years since, when the PERRY expedition to Japan was fresh in our minds, we talked of the purchase of an island or islands off the Chinese coast, to be used as a naval or commercial depot. Had the thing talked of been realized, we might have been denounced as ambitious of gaining a foothold by which we might in the end subjugate the Celestial and Japanese empires, or Aus-

tralia. We, however, should have thought of nothing more than a prudent regard to our own commercial interests. So NAPOLEON would find a better name for that which we call in him ambition, just as we can do in our own case.

In regard to MAXIMILIAN. In choosing for this throne a respectable member of this old Hapsburg family, NAPOLEON shows that his shrewdness and caution have not deserted him. Mexico was a province of the Empire of CHARLES V., the most renowned of MAXIMILIAN'S ancestors. Perhaps this imperial majesty of France wishes to give this testimony in favor of legitimacy. In this respect, it is true, he testifies against himself; but then the greatness of his service to the cause of legitimacy will merit an exception in his favor from legitimists. But MAXIMILIAN is a cherished brother of FRANCIS JOSEPH of Austria. This connects him with most of the catholic reigning houses. His wife is a daughter of the very Nestor of European sovereigns, the King of Belgium. Her father was husband to the lamented princess CHARLOTTE, daughter of GEORGE IV. of England, and she takes her name from that princess. Her father is also uncle to the late prince consort, and is a favorite in England. The new Empress is also grand-daughter to LOUIS PHILIPPE, late king of the French. NAPOLEON could not well have made a selection which would have commanded a larger support from the reigning sovereigns.

With much in the disorders of Mexico to repel MAXIMILIAN, there is also much to lure him to the acceptance of the proffered Empire. The territory over which he is to reign, if he subjugates it, is from three to four times as large in extent, and in all the resources of physical wealth, as that over which his imperial brother reigns. Mexico is, par excellence, *the* land of the whole earth for luxuriance and variety of natural productiveness. There the banana, the most prolific of all fruits, is at home; oranges, figs, whatever else the tropics produce, flourish there; Mexico has all climates, from that of the tropical to that marked by everlasting snows, and so as one rises from the low lands of the coasts, there are found flourishing all fruits, grasses, vegetables, and cereals of the temperate and frigid zones. Its mineral wealth—if gold and silver which have been its curse can be called its wealth—are its prime natural distinction above the rest of the world. The coinage of silver alone, since the conquest by CORTEZ, is variously estimated at from $2,000,000,000 to $12,000,000,000. The rest of the world together does not equal it. Precious stones are there. The ruby, the amethyst, the opal, the topaz, the garnet, the agate, the chalcedory, are found. As that gold-hunter from the land of gold-hunters approached the imperial capital, MONTEZUMA in alarm sent presents to turn him back. They were, however, too rich. They suggested too vast an idea of the stores from which they must have been drawn. They made the Spanish captain and all his men delirious, and the nation has never recovered from the delirium. It could not be cured in the presence of the exciting cause, and that cause remains to this day, and is perhaps still, to some extent, the lure which has drawn thither MAXIMILIAN, as it did the original conquerors.

The facts which ought to have caused MAXIMILIAN to pause, are but results of this natural wealth, the curse which has naturally resulted from the exuberance of blessing. The original delirium of the Spaniards, became a chronic malady, generating a complication of physical and mental

weaknesses which must be cured, if at all, by a slow and gradual process. The pure Spaniards, the pure Indians, and the various grades of mixture of the two races, make up the population, and their differences are but the different grades of corruption. Neither person nor property of native or foreigner is ever secure from seizure by bandits or government officials, if indeed the latter should be considered as anything but bandits with authority.

There was an unpromising state of things in our neighbor republic which might well have caused hesitation in the minds of both NAPOLEON and MAXIMILIAN, before assuming their several responsibilities in the matter. They have weighed the reasons on both sides and have acted. What is now the duty and interest of other powers, and especially of the United States?

The world is interested that Mexico be governed. This cannot be unless industry is encouraged and protected in the country itself. For this a vigorous government is necessary. We need not further argue the question whether the people are capable of self-government. The remaining questions then will be: *Should the United States assume the government of Mexico, either by conquest and annexation, or by some kind of protectorate; or should other powers be allowed to intervene and furnish such government?*

It is an unfortunate time to argue that we should have undertaken, or should *now* undertake, the government of Mexico. None but rebels desire that we should have had double the present extent of territory in rebellion, and none but those who wish to provide for future rebellions, will desire to see an authority extended over so large a surface, most of which must be, for generations to come, a theatre of anarchy and disorder as hitherto. Our government could not be vigorous there, and, consequently, would be so nowhere else; even supposing that we could govern the country at all. It would cost us, too, ten times as much as we should profit by it, and we should be giving the world the benefit of its commerce at our own expense. This would be true whether government were by a protectorate, or by annexation, for a protectorate would amount to nothing, unless it furnished a real government. Indeed it would be impossible for the United States to establish its authority in Mexico without violating the fundamental principle of our own government. It could not be governed like the rest of our country—that is, allowed to govern itself—present constitutions of the people's own make, and be received as States by the general government. We should have to prescribe constitutions and furnish the agents and means of carrying them into execution, and, certainly, to commence by a violation of our own principle would be to undermine our own government.

Shall we then, like the dog in the manger, drive the oxen from the corn which we ourselves cannot eat? This would be bad policy if it were good morality. The dog should have considered how much he might be dependent upon both the corn and the cattle for a living, which he could not at the moment realize from either. So should we consider how much more Mexico will be worth to us, if so governed that its resources shall be developed and opened to commerce, than if its present disorders continue.

But does the government just inaugurated in Mexico promise to bring

order out of the chronic disorder and anarchy? In reply to this question, we may say that one of two things is certain: either there will be vigor enough in the new government to reduce the chaos to order, and keep it so, or else it will be subverted and expelled, as its more than seventy predecessors have been within the last forty-five years. If the former, then Mexico will be worth more to us as a neighbor than hitherto; if the latter, she will be worth just as much; if the former, then we should do nothing to check the progress of improvement; if the latter, we may spare ourselves the trouble and expense of doing that which will surely be done for us. Our own interests are all against any interference in Mexican affairs, and there is no one of those moral principles recognized as binding upon the family of nations, which requires interference. If NAPOLEON and his European allies had without provocation attacked and subverted an existing government, and violently put another in its place, the case would have been different. They went to chastise a violation or entire neglect of international right. They found no responsible government to chastise. The people were divided into numerous parties, some of which were found willing to accept of a government by a member of a European house, and sent a deputation to offer it to MAXIMILIAN of Austria. Such is the origin of the present state of affairs in Mexico.

We have hitherto been disposed to encourage immigration, and to allow immigrants freely to pursue the callings to which they have been educated or inclined. This Hapsburg family has for 1,000 years past been accustomed to rule, and that on a large scale. The one who has come to Mexico is now in vigorous and active manhood—about 33 years of age—and is one of the best of the family. To govern is not only theoretically but practically his profession. Many of his German countrymen in our land, who have not been educated as rulers, have still been put to this work soon after their arrival among us, and some of them have done very well too; some have even been sent back to represent our country in the very lands of their birth, and that, too, without experience or preparation. Why should we object to this man's making trial of his talents for governing in a neighboring country?

The Monroe doctrine was good in its time, when the sovereigns of Europe seriously thought of extending monarchy over the world, and perhaps with some modification ought still to hold good. It would have been right, and perhaps duty, if an attempt had been made forcibly to subvert an existing government on our continent and establish a monarchy upon its ruins, to have interfered. But the case has really been much like that of the original occupation by European powers of the Western hemisphere in disregard of the rights of the Indian who owned and occupied it; only that the consent of the Indian tribes was not obtained, nor their wishes consulted, while the Mexicans were consulted in regard to MAXIMILIAN'S government, and the majority are actually in favor of it.

The future policy and results of the new regime in Mexico present an inviting field of speculation. We are not, however, skilful in foretelling the future. In regard to policy we would fain hope that Hapsburg history would furnish no key to the future of Mexico. There is often a great difference between that member of a royal house who has been educated for the throne, and those who have not had their vision thus blurred. The late Archduke JOHN of Austria was a liberal man, and the one chosen

by the revolutionary party of Germany in 1848 to take the lead in carrying out the scheme of a United Fatherland. He was finally forbidden by the reigning member of the house to proceed.

COMMERCIAL LAW.—NO. 21.

THE LAW OF PLACE WHERE CONTRACT IS MADE.

WHAT IS EMBRACED WITHIN THE LAW OF PLACE.

If either of the parties to a contract was not at home, or if both were not at the same home, when they entered into it, or if it is to be executed abroad, or if it comes into litigation before a foreign tribunal, then the rights and the obligations of the parties may be affected either by the law of the place of the contract, or by the law of the domicile or home of a party, or by the law of the place where the thing is situated to which the contract refers, or by the law of the tribunal before which the case is litigated. All of these are commonly included in the Latin phrase *lex loci*, or, as we translate the phrase, the Law of Place.

It is obvious that this law must be of great importance wherever citizens of distinct nations have much commercial intercourse with each other. In this country it has an especial and very great importance, from the circumstance that, while the citizens of the whole country have at least as much business connection with each other as those of any other nation, our country is composed of more than thirty separate and independent sovereignties, which are, for most commercial purposes, regarded by the law as foreign to each other.

THE GENERAL PRINCIPLES OF THE LAW OF PLACE.

The general principles upon which the law of place depends are four. First, every sovereignty can bind, by its laws, all persons and all things within the limits of the State. Second, no law has any force or authority of its own, beyond those limits. Third, by the comity or courtesy of nations—aided in our case, as to the several States, by the peculiar and close relation between the States, and for some purposes by a constitutional provision—the laws of foreign states have a qualified force and influence, which it is perhaps impossible to define or describe with precision.

The fourth rule is perhaps that of the most frequent application. It is, that a contract which is not valid where it is made, is valid nowhere else; and one which is valid where it is made, is valid everywhere. Thus a contract made in Massachusetts, and there void because usurious, was sued in New Hampshire and held to be void there, although the law of New Hampshire would not have avoided it if it had been made there. But it seems that courts do not take notice of foreign revenue laws, and will enforce foreign contracts made in violation of them. If contracts are made

only orally, where by law they should be in writing, they cannot be enforced elsewhere where writing is not required; but if made orally where writing is not required, they can be enforced in other countries where such contracts should be in writing. The rule, that a contract which is valid where it is made is valid everywhere, is applicable to contracts of marriage.

As contracts relate either to movables or immovables, or, to use the phraseology of our own law, to personal property or to real property, the following distinction is taken. If the contract refers to personal property, (which never has a fixed place, and is therefore called, in some systems of law, movable property,) the place of the contract governs by its law the construction and effect of the contract. But if the contract refers to real property, it is construed and applied by the law of the place where that real property is situated, without reference, so far as the title is concerned, to the law of the place of the contract. Hence, the title to land can only be given or received as the law of the place where the land is situated requires and determines. And it has been said by high authority, that the same rule may properly apply to all other local stock or funds, although of a personal nature, or so made by the local law, such as bank stock, insurance stock, manufacturing stock, railroad shares, and other incorporeal property, owing its existence to, or regulated by, peculiar local laws; and therefore no effectual transfer can be made of such property, except in the manner prescribed by the local regulations.

ITS EFFECT UPON THE CAPACITY OF PERSONS TO CONTRACT.

As to the capacity of persons to enter into contracts, it is undoubtedly the general rule, that this is determined by the law of his domicile; and whatever that permits him to do, he may do anywhere. But it must be taken, we think,—for the law on this point is not certainly settled,—with this qualification, that a home incapacity, created entirely by a home law, and having no cause or necessity existing in nature, would not go with the party into another country. Thus, the law of France once fixed the age of twenty-five as that of majority. If, then, a Frenchman, in England or in this country, twenty-four years old, made a purchase of goods, and gave his note for it, we have no doubt that note would be valid where it was made. But if a woman nineteen years of age, whose home was in Vermont, where women are of age at eighteen, made in Massachusetts, while only visiting there, her note for goods, we incline to think this note could not be enforced in Massachusetts; if, however, a Massachusetts woman of nineteen, who could not make a valid note for goods in her own State, went for a short time from Massachusetts into Vermont, and while there made her note, for goods bought there, we think this note could be sued there. If it were sent back to Massachusetts, and there put in suit, we think the note should be open to no defence in that State that could not be urged in Vermont, where the note was made (unless it was expressly to be paid in Massachusetts;) but it is quite possible that, as the law of the domicile (Massachusetts) and the law of the place of the contract (Vermont) were in conflict, that law of these two would prevail which was also the law of the place of the forum, or tribunal, or court, and therefore such a note might not be enforced by the courts in Massachusetts.

THE PLACE OF THE CONTRACT.

A contract is made *when* both parties agree to it, and not before. It is therefore made *where* both parties agree to it, if this is one place. But if the contract be made by letter, or by separate signatures to an instrument, the contract is then made where that signature is put to it, or that letter is written, which in fact completes the contract; thus, it has been held, that where a proposal to purchase goods is made by letter sent to another State, and is there assented to, the contract of sale is made in that other State, and if it is valid by the laws of the latter State, it will be enforced in the State whence the letter was sent, although it would have been invalid if made there. Where A, in America, orders goods from England, and the English merchant executes the order, the contract is governed by the law of England, for the contract is there consummated; and it is the law of this place of contract, as we have seen, which, in general, determines its construction, and its force and effect. But this rule is subject to a very important qualification, when the contract is made in one place, and is to be performed in another place; for then, in general, the law of this last place must determine the force and effect of the contract, for the obvious and strong reason, that parties who agreed that a certain thing should be done in a certain place intended that a legal thing should be done there, and therefore bargained with reference to the laws of the place, not in which they stood, but in which they were to act. This principle has been applied to an antenuptial contract, and it was held, that when parties marry in reference to the laws of another country as their intended domicile, the law of the intended domicile governs the construction of their marriage contract as to the rights of personal property.

But, for many commercial transactions, both of these rules seem to be in force; or rather to be blended in such a way as to give the parties an option as to what shall be the place of the contract, and what the rule of law which shall apply to it. Thus, a note written in Boston, and expressly payable in Boston, is, to all intents and purposes, a Boston note; and if more than six per cent interest is promised, it is usurious, whatever may be the domicile of the parties. If made in Boston, and no place of payment is expressed, it is payable and may be demanded anywhere, but would still be a Boston note. But if expressly payable in California, (where there are at this time no usury laws,) and promising to pay twenty per cent interest, we are strongly of opinion that, when payment of the note was demanded in California, the promise of interest would be held valid. So, if the note were made in California, payable in Boston, and promising to pay twenty per cent interest, we think it would not be usurious. In other words, if a note is made in one place, but is payable in another, the parties have their option to make it bear the interest which is lawful in either place. An interesting case occurred in Vermont, involving these principles. It was an action on two promissory notes given in Montreal, by persons living there, to the defendants, payable in Albany, N. Y., and by the defendants indorsed to the plaintiffs. The notes were thus made at Montreal, where the makers resided, and the indorsers and the plaintiffs resided in Vermont. The lawful rate of interest in Montreal was six per cent per annum, and in New York seven per cent. The court, after examining all the authorities, said: "From all of which, we consider the

following rules in regard to interest on contracts made in one country, to be executed in another, to be well settled: 1. If a contract be entered into in one place, to be performed in another, and the rate of interest differs in the two countries, the parties may stipulate for the rate of interest of either country, and thus, by their own express contract, determine with reference to the law of which country that incident of the contract shall be decided. 2. If the contract so entered into stipulate for interest generally, it shall be the rate of interest of the place of payment, unless it appear the parties intended to contract with reference to the law of the other place. 3. If the contract be so entered into for money, payable at a place on a day certain, and no interest be stipulated, and payment be delayed, interest by way of damages shall be allowed, according to the law of the place of payment, where the money may be supposed to have been required by the creditor for use, and where he might be supposed to have borrowed money to supply the deficiency thus occurring, and to have paid the rate of interest of that country." If a note made in Boston and payable in California were demanded in California and unpaid, and afterwards put in suit in Massachusetts, and personal service made on the promisor there, we should say that any interest which it bore should be recovered, provided it were lawful in California. And indeed, generally, that such a note, being made in good faith, might always bear any interest lawful where it was payable. So it would be if the note were made in Boston, and payable in New York, with seven per cent interest. But a note made in Boston, and intended in fact to be paid in Boston, and bearing seven per cent interest, could not escape the usury laws of Massachusetts merely by being written payable in New York.

In everything relating to process and remedy, the *lex fori* (by which Latin phrase is meant the law of the forum or court, or of the place where the suit is brought) prevails over every other. This is true of arrest. Thus, in a suit between A and B, both resident in England, on a contract made between them in Portugal, the contract was interpreted according to the laws of Portugal, but the remedy was taken according to the laws of England where the suit is brought; that is, A could arrest B in England for a debt which accrued in Portugal, while both resided there, although the Portuguese law does not allow of arrest for debt. In New York, where a seal is necessary to constitute a deed, the action peculiar to sealed instruments will not lie on a contract to be performed in Pennsylvania, with a scrawl and the word *seal* in the place of the seal, though, by the law of Pennsylvania, this constitutes a seal.

The form of action relates to the remedy, and is governable by the law of the forum. This is also true of the statutes of limitation and of prescription. Thus, a foreigner, bringing in Massachusetts an action on a simple contract debt more than six years after it accrued, would find his action barred by our statutes of limitation, although the debt accrued in his own country, where there might be a longer limitation, or none at all.

DOMICILE.

It is sometimes important, and very difficult, to determine where a person has his domicile, or home. In general, it is his residence; or that country in which he permanently resides. He may change it by a change of place *both* in fact and in intent, but not by either alone. Thus, a citi-

zen of New York, going to London and remaining there a long time, but without the intention of relinquishing his home in New York, does not lose that home. And if he stays in New York, his *intention* to live and remain abroad does not affect his domicile until he goes in fact.

He may have his legal domicile in one place, and yet spend a very large part of his time in another. But he cannot have more than one domicile. His words or declarations are not the only evidence of his intent; and they are much stronger evidence when against his interest, than when they are in his favor. Thus, one goes from Boston to England. If he goes intending not merely to travel, but to change his residence permanently, and not to return to this country unless as a visitor, he changes his domicile from the day that he leaves this country. Let us suppose, however, that he is still regarded by our assessors as residing here, although traveling abroad, and is heavily taxed accordingly. If he can prove that he has abandoned his original home, he escapes from the tax which he must otherwise pay. Now, his declarations that he has no longer a home here, and that his residence is permanently fixed in England, and the like, would be very far from conclusive in his favor, and could indeed be hardly received as evidence at all, unless they were connected with facts and circumstances. But if it could be shown that he had constantly asserted that he was still an American, that he had no other permanent residence, no home but that which he had temporarily left as a traveler, such declarations would be almost conclusive against him. In general, such a question would be determined by all the words and acts, the arrangement of property at home, the length and the character of the residence abroad, and all the facts and circumstances which would indicate the actual intention and understanding of the party.

Two cases have occurred in the city of Boston, which illustrate this question. In one, a citizen of Boston, who had been at school in the city of Edinburgh when a boy, and formed a predilection for that place as a residence, and had expressed a determination to reside there if he ever should have the means of so doing, removed with his family to that city, in 1836, declaring, at the time of his departure, that he intended to reside abroad, and that if he should return to the United States he should not live in Boston. He resided in Edinburgh and vicinity, as a housekeeper, taking a lease of an estate for a term of years, and endeavored to engage an American to enter his family for two years, as instructor of his children. Before he left Boston, he made a contract for the sale of his mansion-house and furniture there, but shortly afterwards procured said contract to be annulled, (assigning as his reason therefor, that, in case of his death in Europe, his wife might wish to return to Boston,) and let his house and furniture to a tenant. Held, that he had changed his domicile, and was not liable to taxation as an inhabitant of Boston in 1837. In the other case, a native inhabitant of Boston, intending to reside in France, with his family, departed for that country in June, 1836, and was followed by his family about three months afterwards. His dwelling-house and furniture were leased for a year, and he hired a house for a year in Paris. At the time of his departure he intended to return and resume his residence in Boston, but had not fixed on any time for his return. He returned in about sixteen months, and his family in about nine months afterwards. Held, that he continued to be an inhabitant of Boston, and that he was

ightly taxed there, during his absence, for his person and personal property. This last case was distinguished from the former, by the different intent of the parties upon their departure from home.

It is a general rule, that, if one has a domicile, he retains it until he acquires another. Thus, if a seaman, without family or property, sails from the place of his nativity, which may be considered his domicile of origin, although he may return only at long intervals, or even be absent for many years, yet, if he does not, by some actual residence or other means, acquire a domicile elsewhere, he retains his domicile of origin.

It seems to be agreed that one may dwell for a considerable time, and even regularly during a large part of the year, in one place, or even in one State, and yet have his domicile in another. If one resides in Boston five months in the twelve, including the day on which residency determines taxation, and the other seven months at his house in the country, he will be taxed in Boston, and may vote there, and his domicile is there.

A woman marrying takes her husband's domicile, and changes it with him. A minor child has the domicile of his father, or of his mother if she survive his father; and the surviving parent, with whom a child lives, by changing his or her own domicile in good faith, changes that of the child. And even a guardian has the same power.

COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW.

LATE VICTORIES, ETC., NO EFFECT ON PRICE OF GOLD—LIST OF PRICES—PUBLIC DEBT OF UNITED STATES—CURRENCY MOVEMENT AND PRICE OF GOLD—VALUE DRY GOODS ENTERED FOR CONSUMPTION, ETC.—SPECIE RECEIPTS AND SHIPMENTS—RATES OF EXCHANGE UNITED STATES PAPER—FLUCTUATIONS IN RAILWAY SHARES.

THE belief which we expressed last month that, "in regard to the probability of early recovery from the prevailing depression, the effect of whatever military successes may yet await us has undoubtedly been already discounted," has turned out to be well founded. Events of the most important historical character have since come to pass, one after another in quick succession, but none of them have had any perceptible effect upon prices. During the past thirty days we have seen the fall of Petersburgh and Richmond, the flight of JEFFERSON DAVIS and his Government, the surrender of LEE's army, the capture of Lynchburg, Mobile, Selma and Montgomery, the closure of the Southern ports by proclamation, and the assassination of President LINCOLN, yet gold remains where it stood at our last writing, and the prices of general merchandise, as seen from the following table, have moved only in accordance with the downward tendency imparted to them by the purely commercial and financial causes which we then set forth:

	March 1.	March 28.	April 29.
Ashes, pots, 1st sort.....	$11 00 a 11 25	Nominal.	$8 00 a 8 12½
Coffee, Rio, prime.....	21 a 21¼	20½a 21	a 21¼
Cotton, mid., fair, upland....	92 a 93	55 a 58	a 58
Flour, State, superfine.....	9 85 a 10 00	9 20 a 9 40	6 90 a 7 10
Hay, N. R. shipping.....	a 1 65	1 60 a	1 00 a 1 5
Nails, cut.....	8 50 a	a 7 50	7 00 a
Petroleum,crude 40a47 gravity	43 a	38 a	39 a 40
Pork, prime mess, new.....	35 00 a 35 50	26 00 a 27 00	26 50 a 27 50
Tobacco, Kentucky lugs.....	10 a 13	8 a 10	8 a 10
Leather, oak (SL) light.....	48 a 52	47 a 51	44 a 46

Lumber, spruce, Eastern.....	23 a	27	Nominal.			22 a	25
Corn, white Southern.....	1 93 a	2 00	1 70 a	1 80		1 30 a	1 40
Wheat, white Genessee	2 50 a	2 65	2 25 a	2 40		2 20 a	2 35
Sheetings, brown, standard...	52½a		25 a			31 a	32½

Thus, beyond the elation produced by military successes, and the depression occasioned by the sudden and cruel death of the Chief Magistrate of the Republic, the daily life of the people is seen to throb with a pulse as regular as though it were passing through the most placid and peaceful portion of its history. There were times when events of vastly less importance shook the very foundations of commercial prosperity, and produced the most violent perturbations in the markets of the world, when the taking of a village, or the death of some petty chief, threw all the operations of trade into confusion. But these times are past. Communities hang no longer by single threads. The interests of society are become so numerous and important that triumphs and catastrophies decide little besides private fortunes and personal interests. If it were only to learn this great lesson, it were an especial priviledge to live in these historic times; but the merchant and financier has other advantages to reap from his contemporariety with the class of events which are now occurring. An immense store of useful facts may be gleaned from almost every department of human industry, and all should avail themselves of this era of extra activity to observe them and garner them up for future reference. We want correct statistics concerning prices and values, correct data concerning banking operations, paper money, &c., and now is the time to lay the foundations for such knowledge.

A Treasury statement has been published by Secretary McCulloch, bearing date March 31. After this, it is to be hoped that the law which makes it the duty of the Secretary to exhibit his books to the public, at certain stated intervals will be rigidly regarded. Since October last, this is the first official statement we have had. The two statements compare as follows:

PUBLIC DEBT OF THE UNITED STATES.

Official statement of the public debt, as appeared from the books, treasurer's returns and requisitions in the Treasury Department, on October 31, 1864, and March 31, 1865:

DEBT BEARING INTEREST IN COIN.

Denominations.	Amounts. Oct. 31, 1864.	Amounts. Mar. 31, 1865.	Increase or Decrease.
6 per cents, December 31, 1867.....	$9,415,250	$9,415,250	....
6 do. July 1, 1868.....	8,908,842	8,908,842	....
5 do. January 1, 1874	20,000,000	20,000,000	....
5 do. January 1, 1871	7,022,000	7,022,000	....
6 per cents, December 31, 1880.....	18,415,000	18,415,000	....
6 do. June 30, 1881	50,000,000	50,000,000	....
6 do. June 30, 1881 (exc. for 7-30s)	125,801,650	139,146,400	$13,344,750
6 do. May 1, 1867-82 (5-20 years).	510,756,900	510,756,900	....
6 do. Nov. 1, 1869-84 (5-20 years)	37,781,600	85,789,000	48,007,400
5 do. Mar. 1, 1874-1904 (10-40 y'rs)	81,680,000	172,770,100	91,090,100
5 do. Jan. 1, 1865 (Texas Indem.).	2,052,000	1,507,000	545,000
6 do. July 1, 1881 (Oregon War) .	1,016,000	1,016,000	....
7-30 do. Aug. 19 and Oct. 1, 1864...	14,145,900	615,250	13,530,650
6 do. June 30, 1881.....	74,176,150	75,000,000	823,850
Aggregate of debt bearing coin interest	961,170,792	1,100,361,242	139,190,450

DEBT BEARING INTEREST IN LAWFUL MONEY.

4 per cents, temp. loan } 10 days notice		$548,224	$650,477	$102,253
5 do. do.		1,611,125	5,708,262	4,097,137
5 do. do.		45,989,626	46,093,589	103,963
5 do. certificates (one year).....		236,373,000	171,790,000	64,583,000
5 do. one and two years notes....		120,519,110	69,522,350	50,996,760
6 do. three years comp. int. notes.		102,329,680	156,477,650	54,147,970
7-30 do. three years treasury notes..		76,668,550	300,812,800	224,144,250
Aggregate of debt bearing l. m. interest		584,039,315	751,055,128	167,015,813

DEBT ON WHICH INTEREST HAS CEASED.

Bonds and notes—aggregate	356,720	349,420	7,300

DEBT BEARING NO INTEREST.

United States notes.....	400,000,000	400,000,000	....
Do. do. in red. of temp. loan,	33,160,569	33,160,569	....
Fractional currency.....	20,725,871	24,254,094	3,528,223
	453,886,440	457,414,663	3,528,223
Unpaid requisitions.....	37,514,900	114,256,549	76,740,649
Less amount in treasury.....	19,868,652	56,481,925	36,613,273
Net floating debt.....	17,646,348	57,774,624	40,128,376
Aggregate of debt not bearing interest	471,532,688	515,189,287	43,656,599

RECAPITULATION.

Debt bearing interest in coin	961,170,792	1,100,361,242	139,190 450
Do. do. in lawful money ..	584,039,315	751,055,128	167,015,813
Debt on which interest has ceased.....	356,720	349,420	7,300
Debt bearing no interest.....	471,532,688	515,189,287	43,656,599
Aggregate debts of all kinds	2,017,099,515	2,366,955,077	349,855,562

ANNUAL INTEREST.

Payable in coin....	56,646,604	64,016,632	7,370,028
Payable in lawful money.....	28,667,002	38,819,899	10,152,897
Aggregate interest.....	85,313,606	102,836,531	17,522,925

—not, however, including interest on the three years compound interest notes, which is payable only at maturity.

LEGAL TENDER IN CIRCULATION.

One and two years 5 per cent notes.....	120,519,110	69,522,359	50,996,760
United States notes, currency	433,160,569	433,160,569	....
Three years compound interest notes....	102,329,680	156,477,650	54,147,970
Aggregate legal tender.....	656,009,359	659,160,569	3,151,210

The active circulation of the country is now as follows :

Legal Tender Paper.....	$659,160,564
Fractional Currency.....	24,254,094
National Bank Notes.....	111,634,670
State Bank Notes, say.....	110,000,000
Coppers, say.....	5,000,000
Total.....	$910,049,333

Besides the active circulation, the currency is inflated by means of several descriptions of Government paper which pass readily from hand to hand, in large transactions, as money—sometimes many times over,—and thus, to a certain extent, supply the place of currency, and, of course, correspondingly inflate the whole mass of circulation. We refer to the Certificates of Indebtedness and to the seven-thirty bonds. These securities are paid by the Government to contractors as money, are paid out by the latter as money, and as money, either at par or at a small discount, are passed and repassed again. One of the daily journals of this city states that some twenty millions have lately been paid out of the Treasury in this way, "with the promise that none of them are to be sold or brought upon the open market under four months from the date of reception." Neither the amount stated, nor the supposed restriction which is said to be laid upon their circulation, furnishes any measure of the extent to which they are used. Much larger amounts than this, and without any restriction at all as to their employment, are in active use every day. Of the theory of this and other inflations of the currency, we have treated in the article entitled "Journal of Banking, Currency and Finance."

On the 1st of April, the tax of one-tenth of one per cent on the *currency* price of gold sales went into effect, and tended to add to the depression which other causes had previously produced in the premium. Such measures, in regard to their effect on prices, do not, as is generally supposed, materially discourage speculation. Speculation can never be materially discouraged; but it may be discouraged as to small fluctuations. The effect of such measures is, therefore, to confine speculations to transactions where large fluctuations are looked for, and this is what we may expect to ensue.

Currency continues to be largely employed in moving Western produce, in the operations incidental to the usual Spring trade in the Atlantic cities, and in Government purchases; while, with the foreign imports of general merchandise at $16,012,373, to March 31st, against $23,667,119 for same period last year, the demand for gold, wherewith to pay duties, is very light. These combined causes tend to keep down the price of specie. As soon as they cease to act specie should go up again. The Western movement must soon come to an end, the Spring trade must decline, and quartermasters, having paid up to the 1st of December, and purchased their supplies for the season, will furnish no more employment for currency, at least for some time. The imports, too, which had been interrupted by the low level to which all prices have fallen, will be resumed in order to supply a market which is now but scantily stocked. Unless checked by some erratic operation of the Treasury, or by some unforseen public event, it would therefore appear that we are shortly destined to witness yet another inflation of prices.

But the new seven-thirty loan, and the payments of taxes, afford immense fields for the employment of currency. So long as the Treasury is in receipt of several millions a day, as is the case now, through the combined effect of the seven-thirty loan and the tax laws, so long will the premium on gold rule at low figures.

The following table shows the import of dry goods into this port for the past month:

VALUE OF DRY GOODS ENTERED FOR CONSUMPTION IN APRIL, 1865.

	1864.	1865.
April 6	$1,037,036	$391,243
" 13	932,566	805,678
" 20	1,169,467	403,908
" 27	1,134,372	908,518
Total	$4,273,441	$3,509,347

WITHDRAWN FROM WAREHOUSE.

April 6	$803,225	$350,433
" 13	366,674	571,799
" 20	1,147,017	107,053
" 27	688,193	427,694
Total	$2,505,109	$1,457,029

ENTERED FOR WAREHOUSING.

April 6	$323,772	$502,891
" 13	153,972	621,472
" 20	171,067	22,016
" 27	185,484	213,980
Total	$946,804	$1,360,359

	1864.	1865.
Total entered for consumption	$4,273,441	$2,509,347
Add withdrawn from warehouse	2,505,109	1,459,029
Total thrown on the market	$6,778,550	$3,966,376
Total entered for warehousing	$946,804	$1,360,359
Add entered for consumption	4,273,441	2,509,347
Total entered at the port	$5,220,245	$3,969,706

The specie movement has been as follows:

SPECIE RECEIPTS, SHIPMENTS, &c.

	1864.		1865.			
	Received.	Exported.	Received from California.	Received Foreign.	Exported.	Gold in Bank.
Jan. 2	$254,239	$590,262	$1,147,745	.....	$594,353	$20,152,892
" 9	.....	1,216,204	383,519	$8,171	1,046,251	21,357,608
" 16	279,801	1,985,057	511,088	25,517	329,833	20,211,569
" 23	365,608	1,000,000	.....	5,125	997,186	18,896,085
" 30	324,864	668,747	.....	12,605	.....	.....
Feb. 6	.....	662,616	631,760	19,952	478,777	19,682,308
" 13	363,198	1,219,808	264,322	18,739	370,753	20,297,346
" 20	.....	325,632	448,182	22,900	100,882	20,682,319
" 27	407,067	531,700	794,149	38,696	148,536	20,092,388
March 4	512,358	629,803	.....	48,317	33,393	19,830,188
" 11	.....	465,920	431,163	75,993	181,648	20,737,838
" 18	281,304	83,881	.....	55,221	108,157	22,256,596
" 25	375,101	273,900	.....	50,000	164,440	22,006,524
April 1	273,429	168,912	.....	20,978	79,308	20,584,668
" 8	302,344	345,471	1,463,437	60,769	400,735	20,045,976
" 15	269,522	1,002,384	632,521	31,945	188,900	19,533,734
" 22	.....	3,226,000	.....	71,229	83,922	19,122,288
" 29	282,376	1,271,336	.....	.....	.....	19,049,918

The rates of exchange have ruled as follows:

RATES OF EXCHANGE IN GOLD.

	London, 60 days.	Paris, 60 days.	Amsterdam.	Frankfort.	Hamburg.	Berlin.
Jan. 7	108¼ a 109⅛	5.18⅛ a 5.15	41⅛ a 41⅛	41⅛ a 41⅛	36⅛ a 36⅜	72 a 72⅛
" 14	108¼ a 109⅛	5.18⅛ a 5.13⅛	41⅛ a 41⅛	41 a 41⅛	36⅛ a 36⅛	72⅛ a 72⅛
" 21	108¼ a 109⅛	5.18⅛ a 5.13⅛	41⅛ a 41⅛	41⅛ a 41⅛	36⅛ a 36⅛	73 a 72⅛
" 28	108¼ a 109⅛	5.20 a 5.13⅛	41 a 41⅛	41 a 41⅛	36⅛ a 36⅛	72 a 72⅛
Feb. 4	108 a 109⅛	5.21⅛ a 5.15	41 a 41⅛	41 a 41⅛	36 a 36⅛	71⅛ a 72
" 11	108¼ a 109	5 23⅛ a 5.15	40⅞ a 41⅛	40⅞ a 41⅛	35⅞ a 36⅛	71⅛ a 72⅛
" 18	107 a 108⅛	5.27⅛ a 5.20	40⅛ a 41⅛	40⅛ a 41	35⅞ a 36⅛	71⅛ a 72
" 25	108 a 108¼	5.27⅛ a 5.18⅛	40⅛ a 40⅞	40⅛ a 41	35⅞ a 36⅛	71⅛ a 72
Mch. 4	108 a 108¼	5.27⅛ a 5.21⅛	40⅛ a 41⅛	40⅛ a 40⅞	36⅛ a 36⅛	71⅛ a 71⅛
" 11	107⅞ a 108⅛	5.27⅛ a 5.22⅛	40⅛ a 41⅛	40⅛ a 40⅞	35⅞ a 36⅛	70⅞ a 71⅛
" 18	109⅛ a 109⅛	5 21⅛ a 5.13⅛	41 a 41⅛	41 a 41⅛	36 a 36⅛	71⅛ a 72
" 25	109 a 109⅛	5.20 a 5.15	41 a 41⅛	40⅛ a 41⅛	36 a 36⅛	71⅛ a 72
April 1	109⅛ a 109⅛	5.20 a 5.15	40⅛ a 41⅛	40⅛ a 41	36 a 36⅛	71⅛ a 71⅛
" 8	108⅛ a 109⅛	5.22⅛ a 5.15	40⅛ a 41⅛	40⅛ a 41⅛	35⅞ a 36⅛	72⅛ a 71⅛
" 15	108⅞ a 109⅛	5.22⅛ a 5.16⅛	40⅛ a 41⅛	40⅛ a 41	35⅞ a 36⅛	72 a 71⅛
" 22	109⅛ a 109⅛	5.20 a 5.12⅛	41 a 41⅛	40⅞ a 41⅛	36⅛ a 36⅛	71⅛ a 72⅛
" 29	109 a 109⅛	5.20 a 5.12⅛	41 a 41⅛	40⅛ a 41⅛	36 a 36⅛	71⅛ a 72

PRICES OF UNITED STATES PAPER.

	6's, 1881. Reg.	6's, 1881. Coup.	5-20's. Reg.	5-20's. Coup.	10-40's.	1 year certif.	Gold price.
Jan. 7,....	111⅛	111⅛	100	109	102	96⅛	227 a 227⅛
" 14,....	112⅛	112⅛	102	110	102⅛	98	217⅛ a 221
" 21,....	111	110	99	108⅛	101⅛	97⅛	197⅛ a 206
" 28,....	110⅛	109⅛	98⅛	108⅛	100⅛	98	213⅛ a 220
Feb. 4,....	109⅛	109⅛	99⅛	109⅛	101⅛	97⅛	209 a 214⅛
" 11,....	110⅛	110⅛	102	109⅛	102⅛	98⅛	204⅛ a 209
" 18,....	111⅛	111⅛	103	111⅛	102⅛	98⅛	204 a 205⅛
" 25,....	111⅛	111	102	111⅛	102⅛	98⅛	198⅛ a 199⅛
March 1....	111	110⅛	105	110⅛	102⅛	98⅛	199⅛ a 200⅛
" 8,....	111	111⅛	....	110⅛	97⅛	98⅛	196⅛ a 197⅛
" 15,....	110	110	100	109⅛	97	98⅛	174⅛ a 177⅛
" 22,....	105	105	....	105	91⅛	97	156⅛ a 158⅛
" 29,....	105	105	....	105	91⅛	97	151⅛ a 152⅛
April 5,....	106⅛	....	104⅛	107⅛	92	98	148 a 153⅛
" 12,....	107⅛	107⅛	102⅛	108⅛	93⅛	98⅛	145⅛ a 146⅛
" 19,....	....	....	....	....	...	...	No quotations*
" 26,....	109	108⅞	102⅛	108⅛	97	99⅛	147⅛ a 149

Indications of a renewed inflation of prices may be seen even in the above table; but they appear more decided in the following comparative prices of railway shares:

PRICES OF RAILWAY SHARES.

	March 29.	April 3.	April 27.
New York Central	84	101⅛	103
Hudson River	96	107	115⅛
Erie	45	69⅛	85⅛
Reading	89⅛	...	110⅛
Mich. So. and N. I.	50	62	74
Illinois Central	93⅛	112⅛	117⅛
Cleveland and Pittsburg	52	74	83⅛
Chicago and N. W.	21⅛	31⅛	34
Chicago and R. I.	85⅛	96⅛	105
Fort Wayne	76⅛	93⅛	103

* In consequence of the President's death the stock and gold markets were closed. On the 15th, immediately after the news of the assassination transpired, a few sales of gold were made at 158 a 160, but this price was not sustained. On the 25th, gold ran up to 152.

Erie, which, a month ago, stood at 45, is now quoted at 85; and, though this stock has made a greater advance than any other, probably because of the previous sharp fall which it had sustained, the entire list affords strong indications of an early recovery from last month's panic.

JOURNAL OF BANKING, CURRENCY, AND FINANCE.

SURRENDER OF LEE—TAX ON STATE BANK CIRCULATION—CHANGE OF STATE BANKS TO NATIONAL CANNOT BE MADE WITHOUT CONSENT OF EVERY STOCKHOLDER—WHAT CONSTITUTES MONEY—NEW YORK CITY BANK RETURNS—PHILADELPHIA, BOSTON, AND NATIONAL BANK RETURNS—RETURNS OF BANK OF ENGLAND AND FRANCE.

THE great event of the past month, an event which will fill an important page in the history of our people, is the peace which will virtually follow from the surrender of the forces under General LEE. This ends the great insurrection which for four years past has caused so much bloodshed, and so altered the face of commercial and banking interests in the United States. Some show of resistance may yet be expected in the inaccessible regions westward of the Mississippi, but the war upon a grand scale has ended. It is almost too soon to commence the business of reform in the financial affairs of the country, until a definite and material diminution of the public expenditures has been effected; but the time is drawing nigh, and the coming fiscal year may witness an entire change of public sentiment concerning the manner in which the Government finances are being conducted.

Section 6 of the amendments to the Internal Revenue Act, passed by the late Congress at the close of the session, and published in another part of this number, imposes a tax of *ten per cent* "on the amount of notes of any State Bank or State Banking Association," paid out by *any* bank after the first day of July, 1866. This is only in keeping with the general run of legislation which has been applied to banking. Under such a stimulus, and the facilities afforded by the other section of this act, it is not surprising that every effort is being made to convert the State Banks into National Banks. Besides this, there exists the further advantage of the large profits which the latter institutions are making in their circulation alone. Such is the desire to convert, that stockholders in State Banks who do do not feel quite so sure about the safety of having their comparatively free institutions trimmed down to the Procrustean standard established by Government, meet with no patience from such of their colleagues who differ from them, and the latter gravely demand to know why they have not the right, if they happen to be in the majority, to vote the matter their own way.

Without saying that a change from the State to the National banking system may not be beneficial, it is very evident that the change cannot lawfully be made without the concurrence of every one of the stockholders. The agreement upon which they entered into business together compels them to remain in that business, and to do no other during its continuance. Should a majority of the shareholders deem it to their interest to invest the funds of the institution in

pork or petroleum, or railway shares, will it be contended that they have the right to do so? If it be, then, why have had any agreement at all? Why not have let every action of the institution be decided by a majority vote? The agreement was clearly of no advantage to the majority, since they always possess the power to do as they please. It was only valuable to the minority, and it is the rights of the minority which it was designed to secure from abuse, and no force on earth can justly deprive them of the security it was designed to confer. Should the majority insist upon carrying out an organic change in opposition to the wishes of the minority, the law must enforce adequate damages for the act.

Concerning the question of circulation, a popular misapprehension appears to exist, and its practical effect is this: it governs the daily transactions of many individuals. It being well understood that, other things being equal, an increase of circulating money effects an increase of prices, and *vice versa*, it is not an uncommon thing to hear men assuming that the circulation in this country before the war was so much, say $250,000,000, and that now it is so much, say $1,000,000,000, or quadrupled; consequently, that gold should be at 400, and other prices in proportion. While admitting the corollary we regard the propositions upon which it is established as entirely erroneous. The error arises from a misconception of what constitutes money. We have no space here to prove the fallacy of the popular conception of what money is, but would refer the reader to the latter volumes of Tooke, and to McLeod, Mill, and Herbert Spencer. These, and the more modern French and German economists, have frequently demonstrated that *money is anything that effects exchanges of commodities*. In other words, all the laws which are applicable to what is popularly known as money, (specie and bank notes,) are alike applicable to anything that effects exchanges—to bank checks, to promissory notes, to bills of exchange, to book credits, even to the tenpenny nails and potatoes which were used for this purpose in some parts of the South during the past year or two. These several kinds of money, alike in their action upon prices, only differ in their various powers of intensity—in other words, their ratio of use—or circulation.

Thus, for instance, while a bank note is passing through fifty hands, and performing an equal number of transactions, a promissory note, in case it is endorsed, passes through but two, and in case it is not, through but one, and a book credit the same. A legal tender note will perform twenty offices, while a note which is not a legal tender, and possessing but a local, and consequently a slower, circulation, may perform but ten, or fifteen, or nineteen. Therefore, to know how much the circulation of any country is at any time, it is necessary to know—1st, The amount of specie, and Government and bank notes in circulation, and their respective ratios of activity; 2d, The amount of other paper or credit which is used in commerce, and their respective ratios of activity. This, in the present state of statistical knowledge, is impossible. Only very rough guesses can be made. We know that promissory notes and book credits have been but comparatively little used in this country since the break down of 1861, and that the use of specie has been superseded. An enormous mass of money has thus been withdrawn from use. A large vacuum remained, and Government paper has been forced in to fill it up. Meanwhile the business of the country has not sensibly diminished, perhaps it has increased, and we think it has, and as this regu-

lates the requirement of money wherewith to effect it, the demand has been as great as it was before the vacuum was made. This accounts for the fact that while the circulation appears to be quadrupled, the price of gold is but 150. Let but the present amount of Government paper remain in circulation after the re turn of peace invites renewed confidence among men, and so effects a return to the use of credit, and gold will soon go as high as it is believed it ought to be to-day by the erroneous advocates of the exploded currency principle.

The following are the returns of the New York City Banks during the past month :

NEW YORK CITY BANKS.

NEW YORK BANKS. (*Capital, Jan.*, 1864, $69,494,577; *Jan.*, 1865, $69,658,787.)

Date.	Loans.	Specie.	Legal tender.	Circulation.	Net Deposits.	Clearings.
Dec. 24,	$203,512,093	$20,600,441	$.....	$3,383,346	$153,805,909	$593,336,187
" 31,	199,444,969	19,662,211	.....	3,283,332	147,442,071	471,039,253
Jan. 7,	195,044,687	20,152,892	.....	3,183,526	147,821,891	535,055,671
" 14,	189,686,750	21,357,608	.....	3,074,029	148,931,299	588,780,682
" 21,	187,060,586	20,211,569	.....	2,979,851	146,068,355	611,194,907
" 28,	169,502,630	18,174,816	.....	2,906,194	143,842,230	656,828,878
Feb. 4,	185,639,790	19,682,308	.....	2,868,646	152,703,316	663,814,434
" 11,	185,515,904	20,297,346	.....	2,821,996	156,711,166	584,179,409
" 18,	186,365,126	20,682,319	.....	2,855,982	156,150,634	518,305,292
" 25,	183,534,735	20,092,378	.....	2,739,383	153,948,481	481,028,121
Mar. 4,	186,569,665	19,530,182	.....	2,720,666	153,009,588	511,361,337
" 11,	188,120,390	20,737,838	26,713,408	2,741,684	152,184,448	412,302,453
" 18,	211,486,651	22,256,596	33,645,014	4,662,505	174,479,367	635,736,233
" 25,	207,677,503	22,066,524	35,295,156	4,457,162	166,965,508	604,796,726
Apr. 1,	204,458,355	20,584,668	42,989,382	4,888,980	173,350,491	509,148,691
" 8,	204,153,839	20,045,976	46,424,957	4,773,528	174,850,185	483,653,634
" 15,	206,508,095	19,533,734	51,061,462	4,757,862	177,815,945	427,761,675
" 22,	204,723,195	19,122,288	57,954,937	4,700,210	184,244,399	272,740,215
" 29,	204,277,573	19,049,913	66,096,274	4,660,659	196,188,733	359,950,814

The following are the returns of the Philadelphia banks :

PHILADELPHIA BANKS.

PHILADELPHIA BANKS. (*Capital, Jan.*, 1863, $11,740,080; 1865, $13,315,720.)

Date. 1865.	Loans.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Legal tenders.
Jan. 2,...	$48,059,403	$1,803,583	$2,793,463	$39,845,963	$14,524,175
" 9,...	49,259,629	1,781,108	2,978,035	41,001,803	15,297,223
" 16,...	49,833,799	1,750,669	3,228,785	43,121,208	17,003,905
" 23,...	49,755,716	1,792,891	3,606,051	40,186,513	15,939,598
" 30,...	50,056,584	1,773,266	4,010,192	59,822,860	15,572,893
Feb. 6,...	50,269,473	1,702,776	4,393,173	38,496,337	14,000,852
" 13,...	49,511,683	1,629,957	4,660,697	37,340,531	14,295,547
" 20,...	48,639,386	1,569,223	4,866,771	37,141,900	13,922,954
" 27,...	48,992,272	1,498,644	5,077,436	39,011,100	15,398,502
Mar. 6,...	49,228,540	1,389,264	5,446,021	38,391,622	15,200,287
" 13,...	49,297,223	1,422,736	5,906,791	38,655,908	15,487,365
" 20,...	48,976,280	1,323,274	5,609,276	38,673,804	15,796,783
" 27,...	50,255,294	1,350,968	5,736,660	39,117,258	16,866,146
April 4,...	50,268,729	1,344,223	5,893,626	38,316,847	17,087,645
" 11,...	50,226,821	1,249,282	6,133,397	39,366,445	17,312,697
" 17,...	50,810,519	1,236,338	6,232,343	41,187,764	17,991,294
" 24,...	50,819,061	1,223,798	6,313,889	42,591,060	19,188,676

CHANGES IN CAPITAL STOCK.

Feb. 27.....	$14,485,450	Mar. 13.....	$14,495,550
Mar. 6.....	14,494,050	Apr. 24.....	14,532 150

The following are the returns of the banks of Boston, except those which have reorganized under the National law. They make no returns. Their circulation is, however, included in these figures. With the other National Banks, they number about thirty institutions:

BOSTON BANKS.

BOSTON BANKS. (*Capital, Jan.*, 1863, $38,231,700; *Jan.*, 1865, $22,350,000.)

Date. 1865.	Loans.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.
January 2.....	$46,312,701	$3,434,323	$7,766,888	$23,086,775
" 9.....	33,707,472	2,903,469	7,803,528	16,772,600
" 16.....	33,444,460	2,862,939	7,529,229	15,926,720
" 23.....	33,160,490	2,797,093	7,126,253	16,058,310
" 30.....	33,025,868	2,659,568	6,792,950	16,343,192
February 6.....	25,609,695	2,245,510	6,581,880	12,641,033
" 13.....	23,609,664	2,087,995	6,345,912	11,031,733
" 20.....	23,533,879	2,039,669	5,094,370	10,621,322
" 27.....	22,872,774	1,932,769	6,278,194	9,789,000
March 7.....	22,825,217	1,877,323	5,843,974	9,961,545
" 14.....	21,224,401	1,700,714	5,580,219	9,435,578
" 21.....	21,206,180	1,524,401	5,435,928	9,393,224
" 28. ...	20,952,000	1,426,700	5,279,700	8,958,800
April 3.....	20,749,643	1,385,954	5,099,538	9,264,451
" 10.....	19,047,885	1,258,019	5,898,609	9,036,604
" 17.....	19,222,460	1,178,336	4,738,295	9,165,149

The following table exhibits the aggregate National Bank circulation:

NATIONAL BANKS.

Number, capital, and circulation quarterly to the end of 1864, and periodically to date in 1865.

Date.	Banks.	Capital.	Circulation
October, 1863.....	94	$7,184,715	.....
January, 1864.....	137	14,523,721	$29,155
April, 1864.....	357	42,204,474	12,144,650
July, 1864.....	469	75,213,945	25,825,665
October, 1864.....	524	89,339,400	51,394,150
January, 1865.....	681	143,641,400	76,309,890
January 7, 1865.....	685	145,524,560	78,724,520
" 21, 1865.....	736	159,099,296	83,058,200
February 4, 1865.....	782	179,121,296	87,288,300
" 18, 1865.....	815	186,041,726	93,666,380
March 4, 1865.....	855	192,049,736	99,325,600
" 18, 1865.....	908	202,944,486	104,750,540
April 1, 1865.....	973	225,246,300	111,634,670
" 8, 1865.....	993	232,064,150	114,524,000
" 22, 1865.....	1,041	246,054,170	119,961,300

The following are the returns of the Bank of England:

THE BANK OF ENGLAND RETURNS (IN POUNDS STERLING).

Date. 1865.	Circulation.	Public Deposits.	Private Deposits.	Securities.	Coin and Bullion.	Rate of Discount.
Dec. 7,...	20,118,116	6,468,544	12,666,764	28,726,674	13,840,691	7 per ct.
" 14,...	19,669,832	7,161,719	12,267,474	28,301,608	14,122,711	6 "
" 21,...	19,669,007	7,694,616	12,927,807	29,326,027	14,807,760	6 "
" 28,...	19,810,455	8,601,125	13,040,643	30,708,083	14,100,974	6 "
Jan. 4,...	21,007,215	8,500,269	13,874,977	32,832,904	13,933,592	6 "
" 11,...	21,012,778	4,445,535	16,174,166	30,957,380	14,097,390	5½ "
" 18,...	21,223,848	4,186,614	14,658,015	29,292,273	14,168,227	5½ "
" 25,...	20,614,794	4,836,799	14,553,933	29,173,458	14,317,215	5 "

Feb. 1,...	20,998,478	5,541,452	14,447,994	30,040,983	14,461,224	5	"
" 8,...	20,743,805	6,252,892	13,814,063	29,908,102	14,511,611	5	"
" 15,...	20,399,763	6,572,512	13,969,659	30,007,199	14,553,871	5	"
" 22,...	20,101,978	6,665,364	14,140,885	29,910,491	14,600,233	4¾	"
Mar. 1,...	20,381,080	6,854,409	14,158,331	30,424,108	14,801,367	4¾	"
" 8,...	20,281,455	7,677,728	13,904,702	30,949,096	14,758,607	4½	"
" 15,...	20,095,563	8,348,481	13,785,825	31,204,694	14,882,258	4½	"
" 22,...	20,028,891	10,198,989	13,551,794	32,384,622	15,808,686	4½	"
" 29,...	20,388,744	9,839,430	13,478,242	32,271,054	15,358,999	4	"
April 5,...	21,352,503	9,331,615	14,172,353	32,723,269	15,255,433	4	"
" 12,...	21,750,648	5,826,354	15,414,509	31,226,408	14,937,379	4	"

The alterations in the last returns are mainly owing to the payment of the dividends, which commenced on the 8th of April.

The following are the returns of the Bank of France:

BANK OF FRANCE.

		Loans.	Cash and Bullion.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Interest.
December	8	fr.566,921,053	fr.355,640,597	fr.722,291,475	fr.178,968,028	5
"	15	586,521,733	351,562,024	739,383,125	161,270,492	5
"	22	561,603,376	364,008,378	721,487,475	153,193,515	4½
"	29	597,157,830	359,969,767	726,212,275	171,321,867	.
January	5	690,129,259	330,071,918	790,526,625	190,488,131	4½
"	12	677,690,909	314,771,593	806,325,675	153,188,384	4½
"	19	667,121,414	318,170,064	817,443,275	142,120,960	4½
"	26	642,779,237	322,119,477	808,283,925	139,123,008	4½
February	2	651,875,290	318,454,492	812,425,525	143,430,627	4½
"	9	636,303,905	339,240,543	805,966,575	153,039,752	4
"	16	604,140,057	354,573,163	801,601,175	139,995,788	4
"	23	584,895,098	371,630,673	785,025,125	150,235,834	4
March	2	569,812,574	381,455,854	772,877,175	192,866,298	4
"	9	544,867,920	410,774,986	773,843,825	166,985,971	3½
"	16	514,175,658	424,981,230	777,523,125	153,467,097	3½
"	23	509,473,256	445,364,708	774,556,625	148,899,173	3½
"	30	533,202,250	456,899,812	764,783,125	158,286,600	3½
April	6	520,398,578	454,945,361	786,434,775	167,028,900	3½
"	13	522,800,231	432,776,299	806,557,975	130,834,687	3½

Up to the 6th of April an increase of sixty or seventy millions in specie, and a decrease of some thirty millions of discounts within a month testified to a state of depression almost alarming. The last return is the most satisfactory which has appeared for a long while.

AMENDMENT TO NATIONAL CURRENCY LAW.

[PUBLIC—NO. 60.]

AN ACT to amend an act entitled "An act to provide a national currency, secured by a pledge of United States bonds, and to provide for the circulation and redemption thereof."

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That section twenty-one of said act be so amended that said section shall read as follows:

SEC. 21. *And be it further enacted*, That upon the transfer and delivery of bonds to the Treasurer as provided in the foregoing section, the association mak-

ing the same shall be entitled to receive from the Comptroller of the Currency circulating notes of different denominations, in blank, registered and countersigned as hereinafter provided, equal in amount to ninety per centum of the current market value of the United States bonds so transferred and delivered, but not exceeding ninety per centum of the amount of said bonds at the par value thereof, if bearing interest at a rate not less than five per centum per annum; and the amount of such circulating notes to be furnished to each association shall be in proportion to its paid up capital as follows, and no more: To each association whose capital shall not exceed five hundred thousand dollars, ninety per centum of such capital; to each association whose capital exceeds five hundred thousand dollars, but does not exceed one million dollars, eighty per centum of such capital; to each association whose capital exceeds one million dollars, but does not exceed three millions of dollars, seventy-five per centum of such capital; to each association whose capital exceeds three millions of dollars, sixty per centum of such capital. And that one hundred and fifty millions of dollars of the entire amount of circulating notes authorized to be issued shall be apportioned to associations in the States, in the District of Columbia, and in the Territories, according to representative population, and the remainder shall be apportioned by the Secretary of the Treasury among associations formed in the several States, in the District of Columbia, and in the Territories, having due regard to the existing banking capital, resources, and business of such State, District, and Territory.

Approved, March 3, 1865.

THE LOAN ACT OF MARCH, 1865.

[OFFICIAL.]

AN ACT to authorize the Secretary of the Treasury to issue Treasury notes and bonds to the amount of six hundred millions of dollars.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America, in Congress assembled, That the Secretary of the Treasury be, and he is hereby authorized to borrow, from time to time, on the credit of the United States, in addition to the amounts heretofore authorized, any sums not exceeding in the aggregate six hundred millions of dollars, and to issue therefor bonds or Treasury notes of the United States, in such form as he may prescribe; and so much thereof as may be issued in bonds shall be in denominations not less than fifty dollars, and may be made payable at any period not more than forty years from date of issue, or may be made redeemable, at the pleasure of the Government, at or after any period not less than five years nor more than forty years from date, or may be made redeemable and payable as aforesaid, as may be expressed upon their face; and so much thereof as may be issued in Treasury notes may be made convertible into any bonds authorized by this act, and may be of such denominations—not less than fifty dollars—and bear such date and be made redeemable or payable at such periods as in the opinion of the Secretary of the

Treasury may be deemed expedient. And the interest on such bonds shall be payable semi-annually; and on Treasury notes, authorized by this act, the interest may be made payable semi-annually or annually, or at maturity thereof; and the principal, or interest, or both, may be made payable in coin or in lawful money, provided that the rate of interest on any such bonds or Treasury notes, when payable in coin, shall not exceed six per centum per annum; and when not payable in coin, shall not exceed seven and three-tenths per centum per annum; and the rate and character of interest shall be expressed on all such bonds or Treasury notes; *And provided, further*, That the act entitled "An act to provide ways and means for the support of the Government, and for other purposes," approved June 30, 1864, shall be so construed as to authorize the issue of bonds of any description authorized by this act. And any Treasury notes or other obligations bearing interest, issued under any act of Congress, may, at the discretion of the Secretary of the Treasury, and with the consent of the holder, be converted into any description of bonds authorized by this act; and no bonds so authorized shall be considered a part of the amount of six hundred millions hereinbefore authorized.

SEC. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That the Secretary of the Treasury may dispose of any of the bonds or other obligations issued under this act, either in the United States or elsewhere, in such manner and at such rates, and under such conditions as he may think advisable, for coin or for other lawful money of the United States, or for any Treasury notes, certificates of indebtedness, or certificates of deposit, or other representatives of value which have been or may be issued under any act of Congress; and may, at his discretion, issue bonds or Treasury notes authorized by this act in payment for any requisitions for materials or supplies which shall have been made by the appropriate department or offices upon the Treasury of the United States, on receiving notice in writing through the department or office making the requisition, that the owner of the claim for which the requisition is issued desires to subscribe for an amount of loan that will cover said requisition, or any part thereof; and all bonds or other obligations issued under this act shall be exempt from taxation by or under State or municipal authority.

SEC. 3. *And be it further enacted*, That all the provisions of the act entitled "An act to provide ways and means for the support of the Government, and for other purposes," approved June 30, 1864, in relation to forms, inscriptions, devices, and the printing, attestation, sealing, signing, and counterfeiting thereof, with such others as are applicable, shall apply to the bonds and other obligations issued under this act; *provided*, that nothing herein contained shall be construed as authorizing the issue of legal tender notes in any form; and a sum, not exceeding one per centum of the amount of bonds and other obligations issued under this act, is hereby appropriated to pay the expense of preparing and issuing the same, and disposing thereof.

STATISTICS OF TRADE AND COMMERCE.

SUGAR.

SHIPMENTS FROM MAURITIUS—TOTAL IMPORTS OF SUGAR INTO EUROPE AND THE UNITED STATES, AND STOCKS ON HAND—THE NEW ORLEANS CROP OF SUGAR.

We have given above the exports of sugar from Cuba, and in connection with those returns, the following will be of interest, showing the shipments of sugar from Mauritius from the beginning to the end of each sugar crop:

COMPARATIVE STATEMENT OF SHIPMENTS OF SUGAR FROM THE MAURITIUS, FROM AUGUST 1 TO JULY 31.

	1861-62.	1862-63.	1863-64.
	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.
United Kingdom—			
London	31,149,167	88,851,733	41,757,591
Liverpool	2,978,594	7,259,903	3,691,055
Falmouth	8,800,932	11,531,795	6,778,679
Plymouth	....	642,014	....
Glasgow	....	....	689,775
Cowes	....	....	2,076,926
Greenock	....	769,057	....
Cork, for orders	40,289,865	61,654,564	63,261,043
	82,718,558	170,709,066	118,255,069
France—			
Havre	8,104,015	4,887,318	2,498,838
Marseilles	11,780,163	20,701,779	6,869,284
Bordeaux	7,617,082	8,669,017	5,508,750
Nantes	13,607,007	1,722,989	....
Belle Isle	8,939,448	5,767,685	15,387,835
St. Nazaire	....	....	2,179,114
Cherbourg	...	....	525,082
	50,047,715	41,248,788	32,968,963
Cape of Good Hope	12,835,521	13,817,204	9,354,230
Australian Colonies—			
Port Adelaide	8,933,825	12,310,567	8,633,294
Hobart Town	2,961,335	2,272,332	1,433,552
Launceston	3,188,350	2,680,736	2,606,103
Sydney	14,341,468	5,556,062	11,613,536
Melbourne	32,943,732	39,660,808	28,523,579
Other ports	2,760,556	1,813,504	2,062,782
New Zealand	2,078,286	5,622,619	4,524,389
	67,207,552	69,916,628	59,397,235
Sundry places	7,607,891	20,630,590	23,457,008
Total to end of each crop	220,417,237	316,322,276	243,432,525

The following table gives the total imports of sugar at the principal European ports, the last three years, and the stock on hand December 31 of each year:

IMPORTS OF SUGAR AT THE PRINCIPAL EUROPEAN PORTS, FOR YEARS ENDING DECEMBER 31 AND STOCK ON HAND.

	Imports.			Stock 31st December.		
	1864.	1863.	1862.	1864.	1863.	1862.
In Holland,*.....tons	108,100	119,600	108,200	10,200	5,500	7,800
Havre,†.....	46,530	52,180	45,920	15,440	7,210	9,210
Antwerp.....	12,070	12,360	14,970	1,160	420	2,530
Hamburg.....	26,500	30 000	28,500	3,450	1,000	5,000
Bremen.....	5,860	11,570	11,320	1,970	....	1,170
Trieste.....	7,700	15,370	22,570	1,490	4,450	6,510
Genoa.....	21,120	22,200	30,860	1,180	1,600	3,850
Leghorn.....	9,650	10,820	11,360	440	790	1,330
Continent.....	237,530	274,100	273,700	35,330	20,970	37,400
Great Britain	518,570	492,970	461,990	201.390	148,060	122,800
Total.....	756,100	767,070	735,690	236,720	169,030	160,200

Below we give the total imports of sugar into the United States, and also all other receipts, and the consumption for the past two years:

IMPORTS AND CONSUMPTION OF FOREIGN SUGAR IN THE UNITED STATES.

At New York, direct.....Tons of 2,240 lbs.				139,127	164,205
Boston	do	do	do	28,185	28,370
Philadelphia,	do	do	do	24,140	27,670
Baltimore	do	do	do	14,401	16,562
New Orleans,	do	do	do	726	214
Other ports,	do	do	do	7,570	6,116
Total receipts.....				214,099	243,137
Add stock at all the Ports, January 1, 1864.....				27,967	21,735
Total supply.....				242,066	264,872
Deduct exports and shipments inland to Canada, from all the Ports, in 1864.....				20,920	5,597
				221,146	259,275
Deduct stock at all the Ports, January 1, 1865.....				28,486	27,967
Total consumption of foreign in 1864.....				192,660	231,308
Consumption of foreign in 1864, as above..... ...				192,660	
Consumption of foreign in 1863.....				231,308	
Decrease in 1864..... ..... tons				38,648	

The amount of the receipts during the year, and consumption of sugar, from Louisiana is estimated at 28,000 tons in 1864, and 53,000 tons in 1863, making the total consumption in the United States during 1864, 220,660 tons, and in 1863, 284,308 tons.

The following figures show the leading ports from whence the supplies received at New York were derived in the last two years:

* Stock in first hands alone; all others in first and second hands.

† Exclusive of Beet-root sugar.

IMPORTS OF SUGAR AT NEW YORK IN 1863 AND 1864.

	1863.	1864.
From Cuba.....tons	137,232	123,420
Porto Rico.....	9,646	6,420
Brazil.....	4,671	1,796
Manilla	3,119	5,001
Demerara.....	1,931	940
Jamaica and English Islands.....	1,424	292
Martinique.....	2,385	208
Total, including minor ports.....	163,120	139,127
Add imports from Texas, Louisiana, and other coastwise ports	37,720	16,594
Total receipts.....	200,840	155,721

The total consumption of foreign and domestic sugar in the United States, the last seven years, has been as follows:

CONSUMPTION OF FOREIGN AND DOMESTIC IN UNITED STATES.

Year ending	Foreign.	Domestic.	Total.
December 31, 1864.....tons	192,660	28,000	220,660
do 1863	231,308	53,000	284,308
do 1862	241,411	184,600	432,411
do 1861	241,420	122,399	363,819
do 1860	296,950	118,331	415,281
do 1859	239,034	192,150	431,184
do 1858	244,758	143,634	388,492

SUGAR CROP OF LOUISIANA.

The New Orleans Price Current has prepared a statement of the quantity of sugar made this season, on the comparatively limited number of plantations that were put under cultivation. It seems that the whole number of plantations cultivated, or rather where cultivation this season was attempted, is 174, and that the number of hogsheads of sugar made, computing each hogshead at 1100 pounds nett, is some 6668, being an average of only about 38 hogsheads to each plantation, while for the season of 1861-62, the average was about 356 hogsheads. The past has been one of the worst of sugar seasons in Louisiana, and this fact, in conjunction with other most important considerations which it is unnecessary now to discuss, must account for the smallness of the crop. A good many planters finding their cane so inferior in quality as to not fully justify the expense of grinding preserved the whole of it for seed, so that it is hoped there will be a a greater breadth of land put under cultivation the approaching than there was the past season. Still there will be a great want of seed cane, and this must continue to be the case for many years to come, it matters not what system may be adopted to increase its cultivation. Ordinarily it requires one hundred acres of cane to plant a field of three hundred acres.

To ascertain the crop of molasses, it has been the custom to allow seventy gallons of molasses for every thousand pounds of sugar, but this season the proportion will be considerably greater, as on a good many plantations molasses only was made. Possibly the production may reach to 15,000 to 16,000 barrels.

The total number of plantations under cultivation within the limits of Louisiana before the war, according to Mr. CHAMPONIER'S valuable work, was 1291,

and of these the grinding on 1027 was performed by steam power, and on the remaining 264 by horse power. Below is the statement of the product this season, on the limited number of plantations cultivated, compared with the product for 1861-62:

CROP OF SUGAR MADE WITHIN THE FOLLOWING PARISHES OF LOUISIANA.

	1864-65. Hhds.	1861-62. Hhds.
Parish of Orleans	26	1,790
do. St. Bernard	361	6,640
do. Plaquemine	2,301	22,433
do. Terrebonne	426	28,839
do. Assumption	963	37,766
do. Lafourche	118	29,781
do. St. Charles	73	19,101
do. St. John the Baptist	43	18,848
do. St. James	267	34,224
do. Ascension	1,285	30,722
do. Iberville	429	41,921
do. Jefferson	303	11,086
do. St. Mary	61	48,779
do. Point Coupee	4	22,565
do. West Baton Rouge	35	24,697
do. East " "	60	10,949
Total	6,668	389,541

The total crop of sugar in the twenty-four parishes into which the cultivation of the sugar cane had been extended in Louisiana was, in the season of 1861-62, 459,410 hogsheads.

THE LUMBER TRADE.

ALBANY—BANGOR—TOLEDO.

ALBANY LUMBER TRADE.

THERE was on hand, as estimated on January 1, 1864, 30,000,000 feet of lumber of the various kinds, and it was pretty well assorted. Gold then stood at 150.

By the fore part of April, gold had risen to 170, and the spring sales were made at an advance of about 10 per cent on the closing prices of 1863.

With gold still advancing, prices by the 1st of July had reached five per cent higher. The rise in gold on that day to 285, caused a still farther advance in lumber, making prices an average of fully 30 per cent over the closing prices of 1863.

These prices were obtained until about the 1st of October, when, gold falling to 190, lumber receded, and a panicky feeling began to be observed in the market. Buyers became timid, lumber accumulated, and dealers found it impossible to advance lumber to correspond with gold, which, with many variations, reached

230 at the close of the season. Indeed, many dealers, anxious to reduce their stock, sold at less than the cost of production and exchange, and the market was more or less unsettled till the close of navigation, when prices were but about 20 per cent over the corresponding time in 1863, while the advance in gold was 54 per cent.

A greater proportion than usual of the pine received in 1864 came from Canada, the supply from southern New York having been largely decreased by the want of snow for logging last winter, and that from Michigan by the high rates of lake and canal freights, with the increased toll charged by the State.

The following table shows the official receipts by the canals at Albany during the years named:

RECEIPTS OF LUMBER AT ALBANY.

Years.	Boards and scanting, Feet.	Shingles, M.	Timber, Cubic Feet.	Staves, Pounds.
1850	216,791,890	34,246	28,832	150,515,280
1851	260,238,003	34,136	110,200	115,(87,299
1852	317,135,620	31,636	294,714	107,961,280
1853	393,726,073	27,586	19,916	118,666,750
1854	314,571,151	24,003	28,909	135,805,091
1855	245,921,654	57,210	24,104	140,225,285
1856	223,345,545	36,899	14,532	102,548,402
1857	180,097,629	71,004	85,104	153,264,629
1858	267,406,411	31,823	119,497	135,011,817
1859	291,771,762	48,756	70,381	114,070,503
1860	301,022,600	41,522	46,888	148,785,369
1861	162,952,500	31,782	44,754	143,784,500
1862	228,899,100	32,622	148,217	210,212,100
1863	243,611,500	21,223	307,700	146,746,300
1864	255,418,130	24,004	314,995	86,789,493

The following table shows the official receipts by the canals, at tide-water, during the years named:

RECEIPTS OF LUMBER AT TIDE-WATER.

Years.	Board and scanting, feet.	Shingles, M.	Timber, Cubic feet.	Staves, pounds.
1850	425,095,400	1,868,100	1,666,800	202,225,000
1851	427,088,600	47,900	4,287,800	155,304,000
1852	542,428,800	62,300	4,003,900	145,503,700
1853	667,516,900	38,200	5,234,300	158,163,100
1854	304,791,600	32,800	3,244,300	178,868,000
1855	242,068,200	67,600	2,494,500	199,018,000
1856	206,431,200	61,800	2,967,600	162,856,000
1857	189,648,000	86,900	1,801,600	251,783,000
1858	238,637,400	54,600	1,269,400	202,244,000
1859	352,329,600	177,000	1,454,200	260,926,000
1860	377,688,600	63,400	1,299,800	282,910,000
1861	301,607,000	45,200	1,190,000	264,228,000
1862	412,105,800	49,800	2,506,800	357,030,000
1863	466,804,600	36,100	5,560,600	282,478,000
1864	495,287,400	30,832	4,121,000	286,250,000

The following table shows the prices current, at the principal yards, at the close of the seasons of 1861 and 1864:

PRICES OF LUMBER AT ALBANY FOR 1861 AND 1864.

	Dec. 31, 1861.	Dec. 31, 1864.
Pine, clear, per M	$28 00 a $30 00	$57 00 a $60 00
Pine, fourth quality, per M	19 00 a 20 00	52 00 a 55 00
Pine, select box, per M	17 00 a 18 00	47 00 a 50 00
Pine, good box, per M	15 00 a 16 00	32 00 a 36 00
Pine, common box, per M	12 00 a 13 00	23 00 a 30 00
Pine, common box, ⅛, per M	9 00 a 10 00	19 00 a 21 00
Pine, clap board strips, per M	15 00 a 20 00	55 00 a 60 00
Pine, tally boards, good, each	15 a 16	30 a 32
Pine, tally boards, 2d quality, each	14 a 15	27 a 29
Pine, tally boards, culls, each	9 a 10	00 a 00
Spruce, boards, each	10½ a 11	23 a 24
Spruce, plank, 1½ inch, each	12½ a 13	27 a 30
Spruce, plank, 2 inch, each	18 a 20	38 a 40
Hemlock, boards, each	8½ a 08	00 a 16
Hemlock, joist, 3 x 4, each	8 a 09	19 a 20
Hemlock, joist, 4 x 6, each	16 a 17	36 a 40
Hemlock, wall strips, 2 x 4, each	06 a 06½	00 a 15
Ash, good, per M	22 00 a 25 00	45 00 a 50 00
Ash, 2d quality, per M	15 00 a 18 00	30 00 a 35 00
Oak, per M	25 00 a 30 00	40 00 a 50 00
Maple, per M	15 00 a 14 00	30 00 a 35 00
Black walnut, good, per M	35 00 a 38 00	75 00 a 80 00
Black walnut, 2d quality, per M	18 00 a 22 00	40 00 a 45 00
Black walnut, ⅛, per M	33 00 a 38 00	70 00 a 75 00
Cherry, good, per M	35 00 a 40 00	50 00 a 55 00
Cherry, 2d quality, per M	20 00 a 30 00	35 00 a 40 00
Sycamore, inch, per M	16 00 a 18 00	00 a 00
Sycamore, ⅛, per M	12 00 a 15 00	00 a 00
White wood, chair plank, per M	33 00 a 35 00	75 00 a 80 00
White wood, inch, per M	20 00 a 22 00	45 00 a 50 00
White wood, ⅛, per M	13 00 a 15 00	35 00 a 40 00
Shingles, 1st quality, shaved pine, p. M	5 50 a 5 75	8 00 a 8 50
Shingles, 2d quality, shaved pine, p. M.	4 00 a 4 50	6 50 a 7 50
Shingles, common, shaved pine, p. M.	2 00 a 3 00	3 00 a 4 00
Shingles, 1st quality, sawed pine, p. M.	00 a 4 00	7 00 a 7 25
Shingles, 2d quality, sawed pine, p. M.	00 a 3 50	6 00 a 6 50
Shingles, common, sawed pine, p. M.	2 00 a 2 25	2 50 a 4 00
Shingles, sawed hemlock, per M	2 00 a 2 50	3 50 a 4 00

BANGOR LUMBER TRADE.

The following is a statement of the amount of lumber surveyed at Bangor from January 1 to December 1, 1864, compared with the amount surveyed during the same period in 1862 and 1863:

	1862.	1863.	1864.
Green pine	49,288,178	49,788,162	41,788,379
Dry pine	11,732,569	12,806,974	11,557,327
Spruce	90,135,783	108,904,447	105,650,850
Hemlock, &c.	7,421,392	16,623,364	12,814,830
	158,577,922	188,122,047	171,820,386

TOLEDO LUMBER TRADE.

The receipts of pine lumber, lath, and shingles by lake, at Toledo, have been as follows for the last seven years:

RECEIPTS OF PINE LUMBER, ETC., BY CANAL.

	Lumber.	Lath.	Shingles.
Total, 1864	55,799,200	15,235,000	18,149,000
" 1863	38,833,884	10,765,000	23,173,000
" 1862	35,562,113	9,564,750	16,653,000
" 1861	24,426,877	7,150,700	13,891,925
" 1860	37,868,536	9,398,712	15,861,788
" 1859	22,216,968	8,659,700	12,998,000
" 1858	19,614,780	5,558,359	9,950,127

The Toledo *Blade* gives the following as the receipts of lumber—principally black walnut—by railroad and canal the last two years:

RECEIPTS OF BLACK WALNUT LUMBER BY CANAL.

	1864.	1863.
By Michigan Southern Railroad.....feet	13,639,125	7,085,000
Toledo and Wabash Railway.....	2,356,901	989,975
Dayton and Michigan Railroad	2,526,200	3,068,000
Canal.....	6,306,360	2,648,101
Total .....feet	24,828,586	13,791,076

The shipments of black walnut lumber by lake were—

SHIPMENTS OF BLACK WALNUT BY LAKE.

To Buffalo.....feet	23,428,423
Ogdensburg.....	2,833,300
Boston, Mass., (direct).....	230,000
New York City, (direct).....	132,000
Sandusky.....	110,000
Kingston, C. W.....	17,000
Total .....feet	26,750,723

CUBA.—PRODUCTIONS AND TRADE.

THE past year has been a prosperous one for Cuba. Her sugars have commanded a high price, affording ample remuneration, yet still exciting but little of that speculative feeling which in other times has proved so pernicious to that market. The prospects the coming season are good, and it is supposed that the yield will be equal to the last crop, although the cane in some localities suffered by the long draught. We avail ourselves of the annual review of the trade of the island by Mr. S. S. SPENCER of Havana, for the purpose of preparing the following comparative statements.

The exports and destination of sugar from the principal ports of Cuba, the last two years, have been as follows:

EXPORTS OF SUGAR FROM THE PRINCIPAL PORTS OF CUBA.

From	Boxes. 1863.	Boxes. 1864.	Hhds. 1863.	Hhds. 1864.
Havana	979,538	1,109,917	10,994	16,804
Matanzas	253,554	250,342	55,052	52,755
Cardenas	26,087	24,963	57,303	52,742
Lagua	837	2,230	61,306	69,957
Remedios	30	....	22,007	30,734
Nuevitas	1	8	13,895	15,916

t. Jago.....	4,595	1,490	32,855	40,829
Trinidad.....	13,864	16,810	27,305	30,976
Cienfuegos.....	6,326	6,496	72,060	73,994
Total..... ..	1,284,832	1,406,251	352,777	384,707

DESTINATION OF SUGAR EXPORTED FROM CUBA.

	Boxes.		Hhds.	
	1863.	1864.	1863.	1864.
United States.....	224,179	160,926	238,361	248,735
Great Britain	496,040	622,508	95,256	109,149
North of Europe.....	79,228	58,304	2,866	3,028
France.....	174,370	242,226	1,350	4,724
South of Europe.....	277,385	288,762	1,384	2,626
Other parts.....	33,630	33,525	13,560	16,445
Total.....	1,284,832	1,406,251	352,777	384,707
Total tons.....	244,118	267,188	217,840	237,557

EXPORTS OF SUGAR FROM CUBA.

We thus see that the total exports from Cuba of sugar, in tons, was in the—

Year.	Tons.
1863.....	461,958
1864.....	504,745

We have also prepared the following table showing the exports and destination of molasses the past two years:

EXPORTS AND DESTINATION OF MOLASSES FROM PRINCIPAL PORTS OF CUBA.

Exports.			*Destination.*		
From	1863.	1864.	To	1863.	1864.
Havana.....	10,756	13,699	United States ..	185,381	205,557
Matanzas	80,350	83,950	Great Britain...	47,213	29,641
Cardenas	89,261	75,307	North of Europe	162	817
Lagua.....	19,157	23,235	France	6,954	1,032
Remedios.....	12,492	11,844	South of Europe	530	216
Nuevitas.....	6,889	10,011	Other parts	21,985	25,492
St. Jago.....	....	51			
Trinidad.....	13,179	11,685			
Cienfuegos	30,641	33,493			
Total .....hhds.	262,225	262,775		262,225	262,775
Total tons.....				170,446	170,804

Below are the imports at Havana for the past ten years:

IMPORTS AT HAVANA.

	Codfish.—Quintals.				Flour.—Barrels.		
Years.	Br. prov.	U. States.	Europe.	Total.	Spain.	U. States.	Total.
1855.	46,705	40,886	17,726	105,267	162,593	971	163,564
1856.	62,443	42,707	25,030	130,180	159,478	6,835	166,313
1857.	41,628	11,908	36,246	89,782	191,228	22,356	213,584
1858.	62,791	39,173	26,561	128,525	243,132	6,478	249,610
1859.	47,270	15,524	33,675	96,469	200,937	1,747	202,684
1860.	40,476	5,186	36,469	82,131	194,024	2,579	196,603
1861.	42,001	4,792	36,360	75,153	247,931	40	247,971
1862.	39,256	4,274	5,956	42,486	231,108	..	231,108
1863.	28,349	9,237	34,448	72,034	210,253	1,180	211,433
1864.	32,159	2,468	42,455	77,082	230,117	1,578	231,695
Av...	42,808	17,610	29,493	89,911	207,080	4,376	211,456

	Jerked beef.	Rice.—Quintals—				Lard.	Wine.
	S. Amer.	Carolina.	Spain.	E. Indies.	Total.	Quintals. U. States.	Pipes. Spain.
1855.	218,669	102,542	99,049	41,052	242,643	80,975	32,854
1856.	238,572	84,620	70,100	77,495	232,215	68,823	31,065
1857.	369,602	79,444	70,899	140,472	290,815	63,514	25,347
1858.	158,737	86,951	73,499	129,647	290,097	87,043	44,758
1859.	353,161	89,313	39,930	123,231	252,474	117,726	43,743
1860.	421,333	98,234	60,097	210,601	377,932	99,569	51,659
1861.	226,802	47,549	52,838	261,615	362,002	162,554	49,718
1862.	364,177	675	94,268	331,415	426,358	171,804	44,947
1863.	278,891	....	57,503	198,266	255,769	113,342	48,979
1864.	299,268	....	105,224	319,874	425,098	129,361	64,025
Av...	292,621	58,933	72,341	184,267	315,541	109,421	44,710

	Boards. M. feet. N. Amer.	Box Shooks. U. S. & N. A.	Hhds. Shooks. U. S. & N. A.	Coals. Tons. E. & A.	Olive oil. Jars. Spain.	Coal oil. Qtls. U. States.	Whale oil. Qtls. U. States.
1855.	14,743	680,148	109,742	63,718	517,987	....	9,424
1856.	15,732	465,747	97,358	45,989	587,869	....	9,546
1857.	21,567	475,633	86,674	62,798	273,645	....	11,203
1858.	24,084	434,983	51,908	80,473	672,698	....	10,224
1859.	28,567	427,061	74,253	61,422	502,647	....	4,447
1860.	28,375	476,256	52,269	94,291	369,838	680	3,545
1861.	15,747	468,247	47,436	138,872	479,740	3,704	2,167
1862.	10,551	452,903	48,330	178,679	475,192	7,658	2,309
1863.	8,152	368,075	69,659	110,759	350,522	20,242	2,085
1864.	11,185	569,080	45,552	148,884	322,172	25,699	2,103
Av...	17,870	481,813	68,318	98,588	455,231	11,597	5,715

The following shows the number and tonnage of the American, Spanish, British, and French vessels engaged in the Havana trade the last five years:

ENTRIES AT THE PORT OF HAVANA DURING FIVE YEARS.

	1864.		1863.		1862.		1861.		1860.	
	No.	Ton.	No.	Ton.	No.	Ton.	No.	Ton.	No.	Ton.
American	410	201,814	467	177,210	630	176,478	919	282,600	1,175	468,210
Spanish...	790	215,805	636	159,819	728	200,127	649	161,685	724	174,471
British....	598	180,523	537	131,667	358	127,046	275	98,093	161	63,666
French ..	77	29,277	64	22,287	68	24,647	131	45,057	58	20,359

Besides the above there have been, each year, about two hundred and twenty-five vessels under other flags engaged in this trade. Last year (1864) the total number of other vessels was two hundred and twenty-four.

TRADE OF GREAT BRITAIN AND FRANCE FOR 1864.

GREAT BRITAIN.

THE value of the shipments of British goods and produce during the past three years has been as follows:

EXPORTS OF BRITISH AND IRISH PRODUCE AND MANUFACTURES FROM GREAT BRITAIN.

1862.....	£123,992,264
1863.....	146,602,342
1864.....	160,436,302

From the above figures it will be seen that the increase in exports during 1864, compared with 1863, amounted to £13,833,960, and with 1862 to £36,444,038.

The following arrangement of the exports and imports of Great Britain for the past four years was prepared by the editor of the *Journal of the Statistical Society* of London. We give in the first table the declared real value at port of shipment of articles of British and Irish produce and manufactures exported, and in the second table the computed real value (ex duty) at port of entry, (and, therefore, including freight and importers profit,) of articles of foreign and colonial merchandise imported into the United Kingdom:

VALUE OF EXPORTS OF BRITISH AND IRISH PRODUCE AND MANUFACTURES.

British produce, etc.	1864.	1863.	1862.
Manufactures—Textile—			
Cotton Manufactures	£45,760,000	£39,424,000	£30,569,000
Cotton yarn	9,096,000	8,020,000	6,208,000
Woolen manufactures	18,566,000	15,519,000	13,147,000
Woolen yarn	5,422,000	5,065,000	3,854,000
Silk manufactures	2,018,000	1,959,000	2,015,000
Silk yarn	297,000	270,000	346,000
Linen manufactures	8,158,000	6,510,000	5,131,000
Linen yarn	3,010,000	2,536,000	1,852,000
	92,327,000	79,303,000	63,117,000
Manufactures—Sewed—			
Apparel	2,584,000	2,808,000	2,556,000
Haberdashery and millinery	4,787,000	4,362,000	3,592,000
	7,371,000	7,170,000	6,148,000
Metals—			
Hardware	4,159,000	3,827,000	3,346,000
Machinery	4,854,000	4,365,000	4,097,000
Iron	13,214,000	13,111,000	11,302,000
Copper and brass	3,911,000	4,233,000	2,822,000
Lead and tin	2,786,000	2,863,000	2,729,000
Coals and culm	4,162,000	3,708,000	3,750,000
	33,086,000	32,107,000	28,047,000
Ceramic manufactures—			
Earthenware and glass	2,179,600	2,090,000	1,863,000
Indigenous manufactures—			
Beer and ale	1,823,000	1,777,000	1,594,000
Butter	328,000	472,000	379,000
Cheese	148,000	156,000	127,000
Candles	142,000	190,000	226,000
Salt	281,000	287,000	321,000
Spirits	508,000	454,000	511,000
Soda	917,000	868,000	886,000
	4,142,000	4,204,000	4,044,000
Various manufactures—			
Books, printed	466,000	457,000	416,000
Furniture	259,000	302,000	276,000
Leather manufactures	2,404,000	2,318,000	2,565,000
Soap	231,000	256,000	227,000
Plate and watches	427,000	463,000	505,000
Stationery	354,000	345,000	286,000
	4.141,000	4,141,000	4,275,000
Remainder of enumerated articles	9,648,000	8,669,000	8,839,000
Unenumerated articles	7,542,000	8,805,000	7,805,000
Total exports	160,436,000	146,486,000	124,138,000

VALUE OF IMPORTS OF ARTICLES OF FOREIGN AND COLONIAL MERCHANDISE.

Foreign articles imported.	1864.	1863.	1862.
Raw materials—Textile—			
Cotton wool	£73,081,000	£56,278,000	£31,093,000
Wool (sheeps')	15,959,000	12,290,000	12,109,000
Silk	12,081,000	15,248,000	15,897,000
Flax	5,283,000	4,271,000	5,206,000
Hemp	3,955,000	3,451,000	2,645,000
Indigo	2,316,000	2,398,000	2,446,000
	112,675,000	93,936,000	69,396,000
Raw materials—Various—			
Hides	2,751,000	3,217,000	3,188,000
Oils	3,149,000	4,075,000	3,951,000
Metals	4,273,000	4,087,000	4,604,000
Tallow	1,512,000	2,439,000	2,508,000
Timber	10,866,000	10,754,000	9,293,000
	22,551,000	24,572,000	23,544,000
Raw materials—Agricultural—			
Guano	1,217,000	2,659,000	1,635,000
Seeds	3,548,000	3,372,000	3,211,000
	4,765,000	6,031,000	4,846,000
Tropical, &c.—Produce—			
Tea	8,226,000	10,666,000	9,176,000
Coffee	3,615,000	4,155,000	3,803,000
Sugar and molasses	16,827,000	12,367,000	12,019,000
Tobacco	2,676,000	3,017,000	2,351,000
Rice	1,375,000	1,866,000	2,400,000
Fruits	911,000	1,562,000	1,228,000
Wine	5,110,000	4,497,000	3,649,000
Spirits	2,056,000	1,706,000	1,692,000
	40,796,000	39,836,000	35,818,000
Food—			
Grain and flour	20,291,000	25,886,000	37,748,000
Provisions	8,928,000	8,789,000	8,564,000
	29,219,000	34,675,000	46,312,000
Remainder of enumerated articles	5,891,000	4,776,000	4,213,000
Total enumerated imports	215,897,000	203,826,000	184,129,000
Add for unenumerated imports (say)	53,349,000	45,154,000	42,473,000
Total imports	269,246,000	248,980,000	226,602,000

Below are the exports of gold and silver from Great Britain. We gave the exports of gold and silver from France in our last number:

EXPORTS OF GOLD AND SILVER, IN MILLIONS STERLING, FROM THE UNITED KINGDOM.

[Unit 000's omitted—thus £3,321 — £3,321,000.]

	Gold.				Silver.			
Exported to	1864. Mlns. £.	1863. Mlns. £.	1862. Mlns. £.	1861. Mlns. £.	1864. Mlns. £.	1863. Mlns. £.	1862. Mlns. £.	1861. Mlns. £.
France	7,775,	3,502,	6,356,	998,	2,146,	1,258,	850,	1,052,
Hanse Towns, Russia, Holland, & Belgium	81,	3,812,	2,146,	21,	1,001,	791,	711,	854,
Portugal, Spain, and Gibraltar	1,589,	1,746,	2,464,	1,037,	30,	4,	8,	3,
	9,445,	9,060,	10,966,	2,056,	3,177,	2,053,	1,569,	1,909,

China (via Egypt)....	....	....	....	....	1,698,	2,586,	3,806,	1,021,
India (via Egypt)....	....	....	....	....	4,610,	6,229,	6,903,	6,187,
United States	185,	40,	86,	7,297,	....	14,	.....	84,
Brazil	927,	1,681,	409,	20,	142,	50,	43,	150,
Turkey.....	....	35,	1,124,	1,	.....	....	905,	....
Egypt.....	2,060,	3,473,	1,919,	796,	.....	....	.....	....
	12,617,	14,289,	14,454,	10,170,	9,627,	10,932,	13,226,	9,422,
All other countries....	662,	1,012,	1,557,	68,	249,	356,	88,	151,
Total	13,279,	15,301,	16,011,	11,238,	9,876,	11,288,	13,314,	9,573,

The following are the imports of gold and silver:

IMPORTS OF GOLD AND SILVER, IN MILLIONS STERLING, INTO THE UNITED KINGDOM.

[Unit 000's omitted—thus £6,050 — £6,050,000.]

	Gold.				Silver.			
	1864. Mlns. £.	1863. Mlns. £.	1862. Mlns. £.	1861. Mlns. £.	1864. Mlns. £.	1863. Mlns. £.	1862. Mlns. £.	1861. Mlns. £.
Australia	2,656,	5,995,	6,704,	6,331,	....	....	....	....
British Columbia and British N. America.	123,	47,	61,	55,	12,	59,	19,	8,
Mexico, S. America, and West Indies ..	5,240,	3,960,	1,631,	935,	7,002,	6,750,	6,242,	5,047,
United States.....	7,480,	7,520,	9,731,	38,	155,	626,	332,	28,
Russia	50,	904,	756,	557,	3,	8,	7,	....
	15,549,	18,426,	18,884,	7,916,	7,172,	7,443,	6,600,	5,083,
France	574,	187,	91,	2,504,	1,115,	1,256,	2,202,	690,
Hanse Towns, Holland, and Belgium..	220,	316,	430,	885,	2,272,	2,062,	2,707,	524,
Portugal, Spain, and Gibraltar.....	133,	16,	26,	42,	92,	80,	120,	160,
Malta, Turkey, and Egypt.....	80,	115,	8,	51,	....	3,	13,	31,
West coast of Africa	96,	69,	100,	78,	24,	8,	6,	2,
	16,652,	19,129,	19,539,	11,476,	10,675,	10,852,	11,648,	6,496,
All other countries.	245,	4,	364,	687,	157,	31,	104,	87,
Total	16,897,	19,133,	19,903,	12,163,	10,732,	10,883,	11,752,	6,583,

The import table shows a large arrival of gold from the West Indies, caused by the extensive shipments made from California direct to Great Britain on New York account.

The total import of gold and silver last year was £27,621,000, against £29,870,000; and the total export £23,155,000 against £26,461,000 in 1863.

The large shipments of gold to France, last year, were made, in a considerable degree, for the purpose of buying silver for transmission to the East to pay for cotton. The shipments of silver from Marseilles by the steamers of the Messageries Imperiales amounted to £3,043,300, or about one million and a-half sterling in excess of 1863; consequently, as a good proportion of this amount was shipped on English account, the actual decrease in the export of silver to the East for the past year shows but a moderate decrease, when compared with the preceding twelve months. The official statement showing the export of silver from the United Kingdom to India and China shows a diminution in 1864, as compared with 1863, of about £2,300,000.

The following table shows the increase and decrease in exports to various countries in 1864, compared with 1863:

EXPORTS FROM GREAT BRITAIN TO VARIOUS COUNTRIES.

Countries.	1863.	1864.	Increase.	Decrease.
Russia	£2,695,276	£2,854,898	£159,622	.....
Sweden	606,987	731,980	124,993	.....
Norway	556,979	771,728	214,749	.....
Denmark, including Iceland	1,004,904	1,290,609	285,705	.....
Prussia	1,917,345	1,136,416	.....	£780,729
Hanover	568,337	689,904	121,567	.....
Hanse towns	10,806,092	13,373,131	2,567,039	.....
Holland	6,324,696	6,895,463	560,767	.....
Belgium	2,107,332	2,305,521	298,189	.....
France	8,673,309	8,200,760	.....	472,549
Portugal Proper	2,225,777	2,084,073	.....	141,704
Spain	3,508,556	3,088,123	.....	420,433
Italy	5,901,112	5,601,345	.....	299,767
Illyria, Croatia, and Dalmatio	864,736	792,280	.....	72,546
Turkey, European	4,427,886	4,872,837	444,951	.....
Natolia or Asia Minor	1,044,668	1,069,853	25,785	.....
Syria and Palestine	1,026,562	1,365,949	339,387	.....
Egypt	4,406,295	6,070,221	1,663,926	.....
Western Africa (foreign)	656,407	571,306	.....	85,101
Dutch pos. in India (Java, &c.)	650,424	796,582	146,158	.....
Philppine Islands	556,863	765,764	208,901	.....
China (exclusive of Hong Kong)	2,416,705	3,093,865	677,160	.....
Cuba and Porto Rico	2,131,087	2,997,720	866,633	.....
Other foreign West Indies(including Hayti and San Domingo)	1,365,706	1,371,548	5,842	.....
United States	15,344,392	16,704,080	1,359,698	.....
Mexico	1,678,572	1,808,743	130,171	.....
New Granada	1,558,188	2,029,344	471,156	.....
Peru	1,027,343	1,334,875	307,532	.....
Chili	1,431,814	1,691,410	259,604	.....
Brazil	3,964,261	6,258,906	2,294,645	.....
Uruguay	534,973	993,259	458,286	.....
Argentine Confederation	1,330,959	1,758,085	427,126	.....
Channel Islands	867,776	1,016,171	148,395	.....
Gibraltar	1,267,900	1,206,206	.....	61,794
Malta and Gozo	622,608	746,385	123,777	.....
Cape of Good Hope	1,280,089	1,814,877	584,788	.....
Mauritius	511,813	658,258	146,445	.....
India	20,002,241	19,895,145	.....	107,096
Singapore and Eastern Straits	1,486,774	1,185,680	.....	301,094
Ceylon	1,075,927	828,368	.....	247,559
Hong Kong	1,473,222	1,610,957	137,735	.....
Australia	12,498,534	11,858,679	.....	639,855
British North America	4,818,482	5,611,276	797,794	.....
Bermudas	607,443	656,777	49,334	.....
British West India Islands	2,623,847	2,659,778	35,931	.....
British Guiana	512,391	803,503	291,112	.....

The increase and decrease in the shipments of various articles in 1864 thus compares with the previous year:

EXPORTS OF CERTAIN ARTICLES FROM GREAT BRITAIN.

Articles.	1863.	1864.	Increase.	Decrease.
Alkali	£866,715	£917,262	£50,547	.....
Apparel, &c	2,808,968	2,583,653	.....	£225,315
Arms (small fire)	856,009	344,476	.....	511,533

Articles.	1863.	1864.	Increase.	Decrease.
Bags, empty	555,282	749,454	194,172	.....
Beer and ale	1,746,238	1,823,162	76,924	.....
Coals, &c.	3,713,798	4,161,338	447,540	.....
Cotton yarn	8,063,128	9,096,209	1,033,081	.. ...
Manufactures—Piece goods ..	37,633,535	43,887,387	6,253,852	.....
Thread	746,470	787,697	41,227	.....
Earthenware and porcelain	1,341,069	1,422,130	81,061	.....
Fish—Herrings	501,032	501,954	922	.....
Haberdashery and millinery	4,359,659	4,786,899	427,240	.....
Hardware and cutlery	3,833,149	4,159,107	325,958	.....
Leather, wrought, boots & shoes	1,405,819	1,482,631	76,812	.....
Linen yarn	2,530,404	6,010,109	479,705	.....
Linen manufactures—Piece goods	5,920,859	7,591,535	1,670,676	.....
Thread	527,105	494,312	.....	32,793
Machinery—Steam engines	1,595,036	1,626,342	31,306	.....
Other sorts	2,772,976	3,227,848	454,872	.....
Metals—Iron, pig and puddled .	1,287,968	1,411,513	123,545	.....
Bar, &c	2,568,034	2,559,009	.....	9,025
Railroad	3,278,304	3,260,781	.....	17,523
Castings	740,310	656,085	.....	84,225
Hoop, sheet, &c.	1,720,881	1,780,359	59,474	.....
Wrought	2,152,754	2,237,038	84,284	.....
Steel, unwrought	935,517	881,503	.....	54,014
Copper, unwrought	1,188,713	588,305	.....	600,358
Wrought	2,727,085	2,920,592	193,507	.....
Lead, pig	773,864	761,673	.....	12,191
Tin, unwrought	513,877	483,098	.....	30,779
Plates	1,309,673	1,264,100	.....	45,573
Oil, seed	999,077	1,255,961	256,884	.....
Paper	548,257	550,092	1,835	.....
Silk—Thrown	541,278	558,419	17,141	.....
Manufactures	1,421,261	1,460,014	38,753	.....
Spirits (British)	454,328	503,357	49,029	.....
Wool, sheep and lambs	688,300	695,302	7,002	.....
Woolen and worsted yarn	5,087,293	5,422,162	334,869	.....
Manufactures—Cloths, &c.	3,964,910	4,546,054	581,144	.....
Flannels	503,984	554,613	50,629	.....
Blankets	792,134	796,144	4,010	.....
Carpets and druggets	810,783	872,598	61,815	.....
Worsted stuffs of wool only, and of wool mixed with other materials	8,336,957	10,801,854	2,464,897	.....

The annexed returns shows the increase and decrease in the real value of the principal articles imported in 1864 compared with 1863:-

IMPORTS OF CERTAIN ARTICLES INTO GREAT BRITAIN.

Articles.	1863.	1864.	Increase.	Decrease.
Coffee, raw	£4,155,029	£3,615,759	.....	£539,270
Wheat	12,015,006	10,673,226	.....	1,341,780
Barley	2,823,544	1,624,291	.....	1,199,253
Oats	2,215,676	1,827,990	.....	387,680
Peas	516,957	428,076	.....	88,880
Beans	749,074	344,908	.....	404,166
Indian corn or maize	4,042,908	1,977,955	.....	2,064,953
Wheatmeal and flour	3,522,931	2,832,200	.....	690,731
Cotton, raw	56,277,953	78,203,729	£21,925,776	.....
Cotton manufac. not made up	1,084,904	833,629	.....	210,275
Flax	4,271,059	5,323,053	1,051,994	.....

Articles.	1863.	1864.	Increase.	Decrease.
Fruit—Currants	981,137	719,680	.....	261,457
Raisins	580,548	452,394	.....	128,154
Guano	2,658,856	1,463,012	.....	1,195,844
Hemp	1,880,253	1,745,353	.....	134,900
Jute	1,575,882	2,230,236	654,444	.....
Hides	2,784,622	2,667,811	.....	116,811
Metals—Copper	2,000,473	2,051,374	50,901	.....
Provisions	8,789,760	9,740,243	950,483	.....
Rice	1,866,109	1,809,103	.....	57,006
Seeds—Flax and linseed	3,372,432	3,947,221	574,789	.....
Silk—Raw	9,380,758	6,350,241	.....	3,030,517
Thrown	93,939	123,281	29,342	.....
Broadstuffs	3,683,752	4,493,507	809,755	.....
Silk or satin ribbons	1,859,883	1,805,962	.....	53,921
Velvet or plush	594,378	531,994	.....	62,384
Spirits—Rum	581,039	484,973	.....	96,066
Brandy	1,124,824	1,505,382	380,558	.....
Sugar—Unrefined	11,520,242	14,408,838	2,878,596	.....
Refined or sugar candy	500,307	1,668,768	1,168,461	.....
Tallow	2,438,613	2,077,726	.....	360,887
Tea	10,666,017	9,438,760	.....	1,227,257
Timber—Deals, battens, &c.	5,766,003	6,010,341	244,338	.....
Not sawn or split	4,988,235	4,936,176	.....	52,059
Tobacco—Unstemmed	1,722,571	1,952,409	229,838	.....
Wine	4,497,343	5,002,884	505,541	.....
Wool	11,465,257	15,162,694	3,697,437	.....
Woolen manufactures	1,596,081	1,669,347	73,266	.....

FRANCE.

The official returns have now been made up showing the quantities and value of the imports and exports of France the past year. It seems that the total value of the imports taken for consumption in the year 1864, was 2,480,214,000f.; in 1863, 2,426,379,000f.; in 1862, 2,198,555,000f.; and 1861, 2,442,328,000f. The total value of the exports of French productions was, in 1864, 2,909,429,000f; in 1863, 2,642,559,000f.; in 1862, 2,242,681,000f.; and in 1861, 1,926,260,000f. In the imports, the principal articles were hides, skins, and furs, silk, wool, sugar, timber, cotton, coal. Of cotton, the value was 315,606,000f. in 1864, which was 53,000,000f. more than in 1863, and 189,000,000f. more than in 1862. In exports, the principal articles were silk, wool, and cotton tissues; articles in skin and leather; turnery, mercery, and buttons; ready-made clothes and linen, wines and brandies.

As to the precious metals, which are not included in the preceding totals, the value of them (comprising a small sum for copper and platina coin) was in imports, in 1864, 733,500,000f.; in 1863, 532,603,000f.; 1862, 536,418,000f.; and 1861, 491,586,000f.; and the exports were, in 1864, 655,406,000f.; in 1863, 587,818,000f.; 1862, 455,910,000f.; and 1861, 502,480,000f.

We gave last month (March number, 1865, page 211,) the full returns of the movements of the precious metals, with the countries from which the imports came and to which the exports went. It is unnecessary to repeat those tables now, but below will be found in detail the value of the principal imports and exports of French production for the last three years:

VALUE OF THE PRINCIPAL IMPORTS OF FRENCH PRODUCTION.

	1864. francs.	1863. francs.	1862. francs.
Horses	10,543,000	10,293,000	9,084,000
Cattle	84,162,000	77,136,000	60,983,000
Hides	106,861,000	111,088,000	69,271,000
Wool	222,249,000	223,730,000	185,134,000
Silk	246,818,000	291,905,000	235,958,000
Tallow	29,170,000	44,540,000	40,134,000
Guano and manure	25,148,000	24,264,000	16,990,000
Rice	11,104,000	12,408,000	12,796,000
Table fruits	16,026,000	16,766,000	17,250,000
Oleaginous fruits	18,365,000	19,554,000	18,281,000
Oleaginous seeds	55,047,000	39,976,000	49,251,000
Seeds for sowing	16,913,000	16,529,000	15,519,000
Olive oil	30,125,000	24,549,000	32,490,000
Sugar	132,248,000	147,419,000	130,922,000
Cocoa	8,551,000	8,270,000	6,630,000
Coffee	80,967,000	79,792,000	75,974,000
Pepper	4,472,000	3,427,000	4,251,000
Tea	1,513,000	1,489,000	1,520,000
Tobacco	21,935,000	19,203,000	16,929,000
Timber	107,343,000	104,842,000	89,411,000
Staves	18,248,000	20,233,000	23,970,000
Jute	8,311,000	4,559,000	3,780,000
Hemp	9,846,000	4,110,000	5,879,000
Flax	76,809,000	50,551,000	35,808,000
Cotton	315,606,000	261,836,000	126,159,000
Hops	4,698,000	4,792,000	3,839,000
Rags	4,492,000	985,000	3,631,000
Coal	109,366,000	100,014,000	102,167,000
Pig iron	3,971,000	17,690,000	22,207,000
Iron	1,413,000	4,194,000	22,889,000
Copper	44,166,000	39,878,000	34,832,000
Lead	9,567,000	9,505,000	9,285,000
Tin	13,779,000	9,913,000	11,385,000
Zinc	14,098,000	12,996,000	14,172,000
Steel	1,374,000	1,909,000	2,646,000
Indigo	17,827,000	2,005,000	25,035,000
Linen, hemp, and jute yarn	4,726,000	7,702,000	5,830,000
Cotton yarn	6,987,000	7,631,000	12,942,000
Woolen yarn	10,572,000	10,234,000	7,493,000
Goats' hair yarn	5,109,000	4,348,000	4,933,000
Linen and hemp tissues	18,049,000	12,470,000	18,483,000
Hair tissues	5,145,000	5,411,000	7,235,000
Silk tissues	6,685,000	4 729,000	4,624,000
Woolen tissues	31,935,000	33,373,000	40,961,000
Cotton tissues	9,073,000	8,560,000	14 805,000
Machinery	11,312,000	10,551,000	10,770,000
Needles	1,407,000	1,323,000	1,354,000
Cutlery	224,000	234,000	369,000
Corn and flour	29,091,000	53,020,000	157,509,000

VALUE OF THE PRINCIPAL EXPORTS OF FRENCH PRODUCTION.

	1864. francs.	1863. francs.	1862. francs.
Silk tissues	384,521,000	370,293,000	363,151,000
Woolen tissues	351,949,000	293,583,000	221,691,000
Cotton tissues	84,063,000	98,179,000	63,294,000
Linen and hemp tissues	22,692,000	18,952,000	14,467,000
Woolen yarn	19,479,000	15,223,000	12,539,000
Cotton yarn	2,895,000	1,881,000	1,694,000

	1864. francs.	1863. francs.	1862. francs.
Linen and hemp yarn	28,403,000	26,615,000	3,127,000
Prepared skins	61,763,000	51,928,000	38,866,000
Felt hats	10,088,000	7,882,000	5,474,000
Machinery	9,520,000	7,535,000	8,332,000
Cutlery	2,391,000	2,371,000	2,232,000
Arms	7,198,000	11,361,000	15,080,000
Tools and other articles in metal.	44,869,000	43,714,000	41,877,000
Turnery, toys, buttons	174,752,000	146,732,000	130,559,000
Millinery and artificial flowers	18,189,000	12,261,000	7,623,000
Furniture	20,461,000	13,603,000	10,830,000
Ready-made clothes and linen	111,640,000	82,654,000	94,712,000
Parisian articles	4,892,000	3,767,000	2,723,000
Books, engravings, &c.	20,190,000	19,096,000	18,468,000
Paper and pasteboard	18,557,000	17,799,000	14,774,000
Pottery and porcelain	11,348,000	10,723.000	9,591,000
Looking glasses	4,797,000	3,762,000	3,102,000
Glass and crystal	16,184,000	13,887,000	12,299,000
Wines	252,904,000	229,738,000	210,000,000
Spirits	79,856,000	66,832,000	59,327,000
Perfumery	15,529,000	14,656,000	12,952,000
Soap	7,930,000	8,304,000	6,089,000
Refined sugar	67,126,000	76,552,000	50,635,000
Beet-root raw sugar	6,238,000	7,297,000	5,443,000
Copper	7,694,000	4,331,000	3,184,000
Coal	4,360,000	3,680,000	3,021,000
Hops	1,099,000	4,090,000	2,443,000
Rags	10,810,000	9,041,000	2,289,000
Cotton*	57,357,000	52,168,000	41,262,000
Rosin	36,078,000	36,040,000	20,564,000
Butter	40,550,000	32,382,000	28,969,000
Wool	53,866,000	48,156,000	45,103,000
Silk	89,014,000	96,166,000	49,786,000
Horses	15,189,000	7,876,000	5,938,000
Cattle	23,325,000	18,887,000	18,076,000
Corn and wheat	56,850,000	48,486,000	41,768,000
Articles in leather and skin	91,459,000	78,545,000	65,801,000

* This article is here counted as a French production because import duty was paid on it.

CONTENTS OF MAY NUMBER.

ART.		PAGE
1.	Biographical Sketch: Abraham Lincoln. By Matthew Hale Smith	329
2.	Physical Features of the Oil Regions. By Professor E. W. Evans, Marietta College	336
3.	Railway Accidents	343
4.	Coal Fever. The Price and Prospects of Anthracite Coal. By C. B. Conant	349
5.	The House of Hapsburg in America. By Professor Andrew Ten Brook	364
6.	Commercial Law.—No. 21. The Law of Place Where Contract is Made	374
7.	Commercial Chronicle and Review	379
8.	Journal of Banking, Currency, and Finance	385
9.	Amendment to the National Currency Law	389
10.	The Loan Act of March, 1865	390
11.	Statistics of Trade and Commerce	392

THE

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE

AND

COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

JUNE, 1865.

JACOB LITTLE.

By Matthew Hale Smith.

Heated, throbbing, excited New York found time to stop one half our and adopt resolutions to the memory of Jacob Little. Perhaps it ay find time to profit by the lessons that life teaches. A few years ago Ir. Little was the autocrat of Wall Street. He was king of the Stock oard. Men took off their hats as he passed. They would have bowed own to him if he had desired it, as the faithful did to the golden image n the Plain of Dura. He originated the bold and dashing style of busiess by which fortunes are made and lost in a day. He was known as ie *Ursa Major*, the Great Bear of Wall Street. He held on to it till led him to an untold fortune, and hurled him down at the last, as it as hurled down before many a strong man. No one has brought to that ne of business more ability; no one has followed it with different reults.

MR. LITTLE'S EARLY HOME.

Newburyport, in the State of Massachusetts, was the birth-place of acob Little. He descended from the line founded by George Little, who in 1640 came from England and cast his lot with the infant colony of Newbury, and who obtained a grant of land which still remains in the amily. Members of the household in a direct line have ploughed, sowed, nd reaped the same hardy soil till the present time. The old homestead n which Jacob Little was born is still standing. Here resides the only emaining member of the family, Miss Hannah Little, a lady noted n her circle for her intellectual culture and her religious worth. Thrift, forecast, and industry distinguished the ancestry of Mr. Little. The archives of the family are stored with precious relics of the patriotism of the founders of the line. Among the bravest and truest of those who offered treasure and blood to give America a place among the nations, the Little's were found. The times demanded courage, sacrifice, and

lofty patriotism. The inmates of the Newbury homestead responded to the call, and laid all that they held dear on the national altar. Those able to bear arms fought at Lexington, Bunker Hill, Trenton, and Princeton. The velvet coat worn at the battle of Bunker Hill, June, '75, sprinkled with the blood of the wounded and dying in that terrible struggle, is preserved in the family to this day.

JACOB LITTLE was born in the year 1797. His father, JACOB LITTLE, was a man of large wealth and distinction. But disaster, that comes sooner or later to nearly every mercantile house, swept away his property, and the war of 1812 nearly completed his financial ruin. JACOB inherited from his ancestry a sound constitution, good principles, and indomitable energy. His native place was too limited a field for his enterprise, and he looked abroad for some spot on which he could plant himself and make his mark.

THE GREAT CITY.

The old adage that "God made the country and man made the town," is as false as it is trite. The city no less than the country was made by the Almighty. The talent, the wealth, and the ability of the nation concentrates in the city. The fountains of benevolence and religion that send out their blessed streams to fertilize the arid plains and cause the wilderness to blossom as the rose, are located among the habitations of men, "whose merchants are princes, whose traffickers are the honorable of the earth." The most elegant churches, richest congregations, learned and eloquent preachers, the ablest lawyers, shrewed, energetic, far-seeing, and talented merchants, are attracted to the city, and find scope for their ability. A city is bad only because men are bad. Evil men bring their talent and ability to the city, and find scope and security in the multitude of its people. The larger the city the more desperate is crime. In it, it locates its head-quarters, and reduces vice to a system,—marshals its talent and sends out its ramifications to all parts of the land and over the seas. The crime of England is concentrated in London. Barracades in Paris touch public security and personal safety in the remotest provinces of France. Crime committed in Turkey, and in distant islands of the sea, often has its origin in the dark recesses and hidden chambers of London or New York. But no man need be ruined in the city any more than in the country. All depends upon one's self—on the motives that bring him to the city—the style of business he chooses to adopt—and the spirit that distinguishes him in his calling. Take the case of a young man, who is the son of a New England farmer. The great lesson of his life has been, that idleness is a sin, and that the chief end of man is hard work. The maxims of FRANKLIN that "time is money," that he "must either hold or drive the plough," that "a pin a day is a groat a year," has been drilled into him from his earliest slumbers. He has known toil and seen toil from his earliest childhood. All flowers, paintings, recreations, were driven from the homestead like famine. His father bent his back to daily toil like a beast of burden. His mother drudged her life away like a galley slave. His sisters were hewers of wood and drawers of water. The only prospect before him was the long dreary and beaten path of toil, till he should reach the turn when the weary are at rest. Such an one is visited by a country cousin from the city, who with his fine clothes and brass

jewelry, white hands and glib tongue, quite unsettles the plough boy—disgusts him with farming—haunts his sleep with the gain to be had in a city—makes him resolve that he will delve no longer, but will seek his fortune amid the attractions of the city; and, having secured wealth, will return, buy the old homestead, give his father and mother a green old age, and make them glad that one child had enterprise enough to lift the mortgage from the farm and the burden from their backs. One of the most touching incidents in the life of Mr. WEBSTER is the conversation between him and his father, held in the hay field south of the old homestead at Salsbury. DANIEL and his father were getting in the crop of hay. While at work, a well dressed man on horseback rode into the field and held some conversation with DANIEL'S father. On his departure, Mr. WEBSTER said to his son, "DANIEL, that man was once a hard-working farmer. He is now a member of Congress. If I had been educated, as he has been, I should have gone to Congress in his place, and been saved this hard work. You shall have an education. We are poor, my son, but your mother and I have decided to mortgage our farm and send you to college. We shall never be the poorer for it, and you and EZEKIEL will take care of us when we are old." That touching sacrifice was never forgotten. Nobly did the boys repay that confidence in after years.

It was not to escape toil that Mr. LITTLE sought the great city of New York. He knew something of the city. His father as a merchant had transacted business with the leading men of New York. He was well acquainted with the renowned JACOB BARKER, then one of the leading merchants of the city, and it was easy for him to put his son in connection with the great merchant. In the year 1817 JACOB took leave of his native town and entered the counting house of JACOB BARKER on South Street, where his business career commenced. He at once became a favorite with that shrewd and successful merchant. Under his vigilant eye, Mr. LITTLE laid well and truly the foundation of his great career. He was shrewd, intelligent, industrious, energetic, and honest. He had great tact, and the quick eye of Mr. BARKER detected and brought out his talent and aptitude for business. His home culture, and the tuition under Mr. BARKER, enabled him to escape the two great sources of commercial ruin—an insane haste to be rich, and the mistake in the selection of business. Many shipwreck their prospects by the notion that they have a fortune to make, and must be about it. They look upon the few who have been made suddenly rich, and heed not the thousands who have missed the prize, who, like petrified LOT'S wives, stud the pathway along which the eager runners press toward the goal. By such, business is selected for immediate gain. To one seeking a fortune in the city, two kinds of business are presented, the bad and the good. The one pays well at the start, the other pays nothing. It is difficult to get into a bank or insurance office—into a first-class mercantile or mechanical house. If an opening exists, the pay is small; perhaps a bonus is demanded for the position. One must enter, if he enters at all, as a menial. Do the low and servile work, climb up the narrow and dusty height with struggle and toil, working hard on small pay, with a hope, at some future time, of taking a place among the merchants of the land. On the other hand, bad, disreputable, doubtful business is open to a frank, honest lad. Pay is immediate and generous, and if he has a dash of piety it is all the better. If one goes into a city to

obtain reputation and character he will select the business that will be permanent, and give him enduring success. But if he has a fortune to make and must be about it, if he takes the first thing that offers until something better turns up, he will find himself tainted for life. He has touched pitch and is defiled. Neither the dazzling glitter of sudden fortune, nor the temptation of wayward business led Mr. LITTLE astray. He entered as a subordinate into the office of Mr. BARKER, and remained five years in his service. The heart of his employer confided in him. He made himself master of the business in all its detail, gained the confidence of the community, and by his integrity and ability laid the foundation for his permanent success.

MR. LITTLE AS A BROKER.

Having completed his financial education with Mr. BARKER, in 1822, he selected a small basement office in Wall Street, and commenced business on his own account as an exchange specie broker. Caution, industry, and self-reliance were his characteristics. Those who look at Mr. LITTLE as the great speculator—walking as king on change, and rolling up a fortune counted by hundreds of thousands, and even millions—overlook the years of patient toil and endurance through which he passed to obtain his great elevation and make his name famous in the land. They omit the twelve years of devotion to business, when unknown to fame he struggled for a foremost place in the mercantile world—working eighteen hours a day in his little office—devoting his evenings to the purchase from retail houses of uncurrent money which they could spare—earning the reputation of an energetic, honest, business man—promptly and shrewdly executing all orders—carrying on a correspondence reaching from Boston to New Orleans—and by indomitable industry and talent rising gradually to be the great rival of the leading financiers of Wall Street.

Mr. LITTLE's career is another illustration of the truth that permanent business success attends only on indomitable industry and unswerving integrity. Our national and mercantile character has been molded on these two principles joined with religion. Men who barter the solid ground for the mirage, substantial business for the glittering morass, are men who allow the hands on the dial plate to stand still while they grasp at shadows. WASHINGTON the surveyor, HANCOCK the successful merchant, SHERMAN the shoemaker, HAMILTON and ADAMS the lawyers, and FRANKLIN the printer, came from honest and successful business to mould the nation. And those who would take the places of the fathers must catch their spirit. Early in life usually, the bent of a lad will be seen. In a family of several boys the taste and talent will develop themselves. If a boy is shrewd in trading knives and marbles, he is regarded as fit to be a merchant. If he is sharp, and outwits his playmates, he is sent to the bar. If he is restless and hard to control, he will probably run away and go to sea. If he is good, and not available for anything else, he will be sent to college and make a minister. In a country like ours, it is hard to keep a boy of energy down. WEST, in a family of Quakers, who considered the fine arts a sin, became an artist, taking his brush from the tail of a favorite cat, his paint from the soot of the chimney, and, drawing like life the baby gem of the family, extorted a kiss of praise from his Quaker mother. FERGUSON mapped out the heavens on a side of leather,

on which he was working, with his awl. A small tray, a watch glass, a pair of cheap balances, and a blow pipe was the laboratory in which commenced the labors of the great philosopher Dr. WOOLSTON. A barn-door and a stick were the canvas and brush which laid the foundation of the great fame of WILKIE. A kite, a bit of thread, two sticks and a silk handkerchief enabled FRANKLIN to make a discovery which has since given us the telegraph. WATTS blew up his mother's silver tea-kettle, on the table, in his attempts to make a miniature steam-engine, and an old syringe was his first steam-boiler.

No man can doubt that Mr. LITTLE made the right selection when he commenced his business as a financier. His success was due no less to his integrity than to his talent. He did not adopt the motto that "all is fair in trade," or that he was as "honest as the times will allow." Had he done so, he would long ago have been bankrupt in fortune and character. The morality of such maxims I will not discuss. All history shows that they are fatal to success. A man might as well steer his bark in a dark and stormy night, in a dangerous and treacherous sea, by a lantern on his bowsprit, as to guide his commercial bark by anything but the unerring index of integrity, or the fixed lighthouse of commercial principle. I do not deny a measure of success to men who take their chances in business without regard to character or principle. But permanent success attends only on high moral principle. Shysters and knaves at the bar are not trusted with the lucrative practice of the profession. Quack doctors, with few exceptions, and men whose "sands of life are almost run out," dwell in portions of the city where reputable people do not choose to call. Men who have reached the age of thirty years can count on their fingers successful names which have outrode the commercial disasters for a quarter of a century. The few permanent houses are as well distinguished for their honor as for mercantile success. The man who began business in a little shanty on Broadway, and lived in chambers on Hudson Street, has risen to be the autocrat of merchants, and to count his fortune at the high figure of thirty million. The simple rule he adopted was to attend personally to his own business, and to give the purchaser the exact article that he bought. If he paid for a first rate or a second rate article he would find the exact purchase upon getting home. Around the business portions of New York, on any fair day, can be seen a man doing a little brokerage, who once represented the most respectable house in the country, and whose social and financial position was unequalled. He inherited the name and fortune of a house which America delighted to honor. That house was founded by two lads, who left their country home with their worldly effects tied in a handkerchief, but with the rich boon of a mother's blessing and prayers on their heads. They began business in the smallest way. They laid deep the foundation of commercial integrity. They rose slowly but surely on that solid foundation, till their names were known and honored in all portions of the civilized world, and their credit was as extensive as our commerce. They poured out their wealth in donations large as the seas. Education, humanity, and religion blessed them for their munificence. The poor and lowly were never turned empty away. They died, leaving a colossal fortune, and a name without a stain. They died and left their repute and wealth to another who accepted the legacy, but did not heed the principles on which it had been

gathered. In a short period he stained the name that for fifty years had been untarnished. He fled from his home under an assumed name. He dragged down the innocent with him in his fall. He skulked about from place to place, till at length he ventured back. Men were too kind to harm him. Those whom he had befriended in the days of his prosperity help him in the little brokerage that gives him bread. It is a sad sight to see the wreck of a man in the prime of life. But it teaches the lesson that integrity and success, like mercy and truth, walk hand in hand.

A granite store was built in Boston and filled with goods from the cellar to the rafters. It had a strong fair show—was full of valuable merchandise, and the builder said it "would stand if filled with pig lead." One day, in the midst of business, the floors gave way, carrying everything down into the cellar, the inmates barely escaping with their lives. Deep down among the foundations, under an important pillar, an unfaithful workman had put an imperfect stone. The exact pressure came; it gave way; and the wreck was complete. So it is with character. No matter how fair the outside, if the foundations are not strong, the exact temptation will come, and ruin will follow. No man understood this better than Mr. LITTLE. He was an honest man. Integrity was the polar star of his business life, quickening him while he acted, cheering him in his decline, leaving an inheritance better than rubies to those who shall bear, or cherish, his name.

SUCCESS AS A FINANCIER.

In 1834, Mr. LITTLE stood at the head of the leading financiers and bankers of the city. His office was in the old Exchange Building in Wall Street. His reputation as an honest, energetic, and successful broker was firmly established. For more than a quarter of a century, in stocks and money, his tread was that of a king. He could sway and agitate the whole street at his pleasure. His dealings were rapid, prompt, and made with good judgment. He devoted more hours to his business than any other man in the city. His gains at times were vast, reaching in some years the high point of two hundred thousand dollars. He moved steadily on to a position among the millionaires. He controlled large amounts of stock and money, and was known as the "NAPOLEON of the Board." His foresight induced him early to turn his attention to railroads. The capitalists of the city did not at that time comprehend the raising of funds for their construction. He placed himself at the head of the railroad movement. Fortune attended him, and he was known as the "Railway King." When this business was overdone, he was among the first to discover it, and changed his course. One incident will illustrate his tact. The Erie Railroad stock was a favorite investment, and, at that time, was selling at par. He threw himself against the street. He contracted to sell short a large amount of Erie to be delivered at a future day. The brokers and bankers, envious at Mr. LITTLE'S success, determined to floor him. They entered into a combination. They took all the contracts he offered, and, by compact, agreed not to sell a share. All the loose stock was tied up by the conspirators and out of his reach. His ruin seemed inevitable. His enemies had both his contracts and the stock. Mr. LITTLE saw the plot and his way out of it. He kept his own secrets. The day of delivery arrived, and before two o'clock he must deliver or break. His

dilemma was generally known, and the public waited anxiously for the results. He came down to his office on that morning apparently more self-reliant and calm than usual. His aspect was cool. His greetings pleasant. One hour before the fatal two o'clock arrived, Mr. LITTLE presented himself at the office of the Erie Railroad Company, holding in his hands certain certificates of indebtedness issued by the corporation. He demanded the new stock which by those certificates they had covenanted to issue in exchange. The covenant was unequivocal. The scrip was made out—the stock delivered in due time—the conspiritors overwhelmed, and Mr. LITTLE triumphed.

BUSINESS REVERSES.

Nothing is more striking or more sad than the commercial reverses that are so common in the great marts of trade. Reverses and failures come like tempests and hail storms which threaten every man's home, and cut down the harvest ready for the sickle. One mercantile house in this city is a sort of hospital for reduced merchants. Over twenty men are employed as salesmen on a salary, who a few years ago commanded a fortune —whose families lived in style, and gave law to fashion. The treacherous sea of mercantile life engulfed their vessels with the richly laden freights, they escaping by the masts and spars thrown to them by more fortunate adventurers. One of the rocks on which men strike is joining outside speculation with legitimate business. Because a man is successful as a dry goods merchant, he imagines that he can be equally successful in stocks. One is at the head of the bar, he aspires to lead the stock board. A broker dabbles a little in real estate. Hundreds of men who have made a fortune by tact, diligence, and shrewdness, not content to go along well, have dashed into speculation and became penniless. However wise or prudent, shrewd or gifted with forecast, a man may be, however large his fortune or well invested, if he is a speculator he cannot be sure that commercial disaster will not overtake him. In the staid and careful city of Boston it is estimated, on good authority, that ninety-nine out of every hundred fail wholly, or suspend business. It is said that property there has never, or rarely ever, descended to the third generation. Mr. LITTLE did not escape. Many times, before reverse overtook him, or his credit was in any manner shaken, he could have retired a millionaire. He could have enjoyed the honor of having been the architect of his own fortune, and of raising himself from a penniless boy to be a prince among monied men. By observing the law of success he had reached the high pinnacle on which he stood. He ventured all on the treacherous sea of speculation, and more than once all was swept away. To gain wealth is one thing; to keep it is another. A man may climb to the main truck, who cannot keep his footing after he has gained that giddy elevation. Many a ship, through the skilfulness of her pilots, has weathered the gale, and then rolled her masts overboard in a calm. Travelers have returned, unscathed, from the home of the plague, and, by imprudence, have died amid the bracing air of their mountain home. If one would see how fortunes are lost in New York, let him walk down where bankers and brokers most do congregate, and look at the wild, desperate, and reckless spirit that marks the transactions in stocks and gold. Once this business was in the hands of the most reputable and substantial of our citizens.

The present mode of doing things has thrown to the surface a new set of men, who know no hours and no rules—who fill up the streets till it is impassable for teams. Who yell and scream like mad men, and can be heard for blocks. A reckless style of living, extravagance, and dissipation is the handmaid of wild speculation. No gamblers are more desperate than many dealers in stocks, or more suddenly destroyed. Romance cannot equal the reality of reverses in New York. One afternoon, Mr. LITTLE was walking through Union Square. He casually remarked: "I have lost money enough to-day to buy this whole Square. Yes," he added, "and half the people in it." He gained hundreds of thousands, and then lost hundreds of thousands in a day. It is no uncommon thing for a millionaire to leave his palatial home in the morning, and return at night crushed and ruined. His elegant equipage, in which his bejeweled wife and proud daughters whirled the dust of the Park in the eyes of well-to-do citizens, is sold. The lordly mansion is abandoned to a more fortunate speculator. The gay family disappear from the fashionable soiree. The lofty merchant with a fallen crest appears on the outskirts of the Curbstone Board, and borrows a few dollars to commence anew the struggle for position and fortune. Men who sow to the wind must reap the whirlwind. Thrice Mr. LITTLE was carried down, but he never was dishonored. He recovered himself, paid up his contracts to the full, so that it was a common saying among monied men that "JACOB LITTLE'S suspended paper was better than the checks of most merchants." He closed his long career without a stain upon his mercantile reputation.

MR. LITTLE AND THE TELEGRAPH.

In 1847, Prof. MORSE sought to form a stock company, and to open a telegraph line between New York and Boston. Few capitalists had confidence in the new system. Mr. LITTLE was asked to take stock, as the telegraph lines would soon become the great opposition to the United States mail. Not a dollar would Mr. LITTLE invest, though he offered a donation of a $100. It is not singular that he had so little confidence in the telegraph. When the line between Baltimore and Washington was in working order, a gentleman from New York called upon Mr. SPENCER, the Secretary of the Treasury. In speaking of the new system of communication, Mr. SPENCER asked the gentleman "how large a bundle could be sent over the wires to Baltimore." Intimating that if successful the mail would be sent on that line. The intelligent Secretary not having the least idea of the manner in which the messages were sent from one point to another. Many years after the application to invest had been refused by Mr. LITTLE, he admitted that had he accepted the proposition he would have owned nearly all the telegraph lines of the country.

PERSONAL HABITS.

Mr. LITTLE was married in 1844. His home was peculiarly happy. However the storm might beat without, he found a warm welcome and genial spirits at his own fireside. His personal appearance was commanding. He was tall, with a clear, expressive eye, a genial expression, with a face that indicated talent, and inspired confidence. He was reserved in his manner, but it was the reserve of strength and not of diffidence. As a creditor he was most liberal. His settlements were generous. If a man

could not meet his contracts, and Mr. LITTLE was satisfied of his honesty, he discharged the debt. With himself he was severe. On his first suspension, though legally free from liability, he disbursed nearly a million of dollars—paying every creditor in full with interest. His charities were discriminating and large, though unostentatious. He was a true patriot. The Southern rebellion swept away much of his fortune. Yet, without a murmur, he laid it on the altar of his country. He loved the home of his childhood, and wished to close his eyes amid the scenes so familiar to his youth. In private life he was social and hospitable. He had a humane and liberal heart. A devout member of the Episcopal Church, his Christian charity was bounded by the limits of no sect.

HIS DEATH.

His last hours were characterized by a gentle and patient spirit. His sufferings were severe. No murmur or complaint escaped his lips. He cast himself on God, and waited patiently for the great change. He retained his cheerfulness and consciousness to the last. An hour before his death he took an affectionate leave of those he loved best on earth—threw up his hands exclaiming, "I am going up, who will go with me?" He closed his eyes. He fell gently asleep to awake not till the heavens be no more. The news of his death startled the great city. He had been long one of its most remarkable men. Merchants congregated to do him honor. Resolutions of enduring respect were adopted, and the Stock Board adjourned to attend his funeral. He was borne to his burial with all honor. The solemn cermonies of the Episcopal Church were performed over his body. The noblest men of our city honored his memory with their presence. After the services at Grace Church, while the pealing organ sent forth the plaintive strains of the Dead March in Saul, the body was conveyed to the hearse, thence to Greenwood, where it was committed to the tomb—"Earth to earth, ashes to ashes, dust to dust—to repose till death shall be swallowed up in victory."

NATIONAL DEBT AND RESOURCES.

BY T. M.

The mighty struggle which our people have maintained for four years, for the re-establishment of the Union, having gloriously ended in complete success, the time has come when we may safely relax that absorbing attention to the actual conflict which has so long kept us from watching, with sufficient care, the question of ways and means connected with it. Hitherto it has mattered very little how things went, so long as the issue of the war was in the least degree doubtful. Every consideration of prudence was held of little value, so long as the Union was imperilled. But the great blow has been struck; the bogus Confederacy is no more; our soldiers are marching homeward; and as it was our duty to provide for them while in the field, so now it is our duty to pay regard to their welfare when they have returned home.

If during the progress of the struggle, there were hearts which felt faint at the prospect of success, if there were doubters who saw in the many petty checks we met, auguries of ultimate defeat, and if to make success doubly assured, even such pecuniary aid as they could contribute was desirable; then to throw upon the question of public finance such a *coleur de rose* that the Treasury might be always kept filled, and the public expenditures always promptly met, were but a venial fault. The most severe casuist will admit that to encourage the hopeless, by over estimating their ability to conquer difficulties, is a sin which may well be pardoned. The fallibility of human confidence in ultimate results excuses its commission. It is characteristic of the non-mechanical nature of our impulses that they should find their main-spring less in reason than in hope.

But a time must arrive when the excuse no longer holds good; when the struggle, having ended, it becomes a duty to know how much it has cost, and what train of consequences it has evoked. In regard to the struggle in which we have been engaged, this time has arrived. The fight is done: it now becomes our duty to scrutinize with every possible severity, not only what it has cost, but what it may yet cost. In regard to the social and political changes occasioned by the war, and which may yet grow out of the war, we have nothing here to say. We propose to occupy ourselves solely with the question of ways and means.

CAN THE WAR DEBT BE PAID?

First of all is the question of the war debt. People fancy that the war debt is a sum representing an expenditure which it is in our power either to pay now or to saddle upon posterity. The war debt *is* paid. The Government owes nothing for the war. The entire cost of the war has been defrayed; just as much so as when, having paid for this volume with a bank note, the cost of the volume has been defrayed, provided the seller is satisfied with the note when he takes it, no matter if afterwards the bank note should prove to be good or bad. In plain words, the entire waste occasioned by the war, the material destroyed, the Government clothing,

and the Government food consumed by the soldiers and sailors, the bounties and wages paid to them, even to the cities burned, the vessels destroyed, and the farms trodden down—all this has already come out of the public capital of the whole country, which was saved up before the war, and never can come out of it again. And it could not be otherwise. No war can be supported any longer than this capital lasts, (unless through international loans,) and when this capital is exhausted, war must stop.

But as this capital, in our case, has not been contributed in equal proportions by every member of the community—as some, for instance, contributed more than others—the result is that a large number of our people are in debt; not in debt to the Government, but in debt to those who contributed *more* than their due share of the waste occasioned by war. To say that this debt cannot be paid is absurd. Unless through international loans, which are now-a-days happily in little repute, no people can possibly contract a debt which they cannot pay, any more than any number of parts can aggregate more than the whole from which they were taken.

IN FREEDOM DO WE FIND SECURITY.

But to pay a national debt it is necessary, first, that the nation should hold together; and, next, that those who owe the debt shall be compelled to pay it to those to whom it is owing. It is the interest of the creditor class to maintain both a united government and a strong government; and, as we shall presently see, the best way to attain these ends is to remove restriction and promote the greatest amount of freedom.

HOW THE DEBT MAY BE PAID.

The debt may be paid either at once, or by instalments, or by means of a perpetual annuity. The first plan would necessitate the immediate and entire impoverishment of every person of moderate means in the country. The amount of money, merchandise, lands, and even food and clothing, which would have to be paid alike by every one, would fall but lightly upon those who had plenty to spare, but would plunge the poor, who form the large majority of the people, into instant and severe distress. This plan is, therefore, clearly impracticable. To pay by instalments would be almost as bad, provided the last instalment fell within any reasonable period of time, because not only the instalments, but interest too, would have to be regularly met. If we regard the social consequences which flow from interminable indebtedness, to pay by instalments would seem to be the best plan after all. But we are here merely looking at the question of ways and means.

To pay by means of a perpetual annuity is the easiest way of all, and this is the shape in which the Government has seen fit to place the debt. The whole people are required to pay every year so much per head in the form of taxes. These yearly taxes are then paid over to the creditor class as yearly instalments of the perpetual aunuity due to them. Next year, and so on following, the same plan is pursued over and over. Thus, by paying a little in the shape of taxes every year, the debtors escape paying the principal of the debt to the creditors, and the latter enjoy what to them is even more desirable than the payment of the principal—namely,

a yearly income; in other words, an interest annuity, which is due once a year for ever.

HOW MUCH IS THE DEBT?

So much by way of preliminary. We have seen what a national debt is—that it is a sum which, if engendered by war, represents more or less the amount of material destroyed, and which material was contributed by a creditor class, who by means of taxation are to be repaid by a debtor class. The sum of this debt is, in our case, represented in a statement lately made by Mr. JAY COOKE, to be altogether about $3,000,000,000. Assuming this statement to be correct, let us see what Mr. COOKE says about it.

SHALL THE DEBTORS PAY SEVEN PER CENT PER ANNUM TO THE CREDITORS!

Mr. COOKE, after assuming that the entire debt is $3,000,000,000, which sum, he believes, covers all the diminution of the national capital occasioned by the war, contends that the national capital, through the profits made since 1860, is greater now then it was then. Consequently, the debtor class can fully afford to pay the debt to the creditor class; and not only this, but that they can afford to pay at the rate of seven per cent per annum. And to support this view, he adduces column upon column of figures representing resources of taxation, comparative wealth, yearly profits, etc., etc.

If those whose toil and sweat will in future years have to yield the taxes from which this seven per cent per annum is to be raised, could come forward and subscribe to the seven-thirty loan to an extent which would counterbalance their share of the general indebtedness, we should cordially second Mr. COOKE's efforts to place the loan; and, indeed, we do so to the extent that it falls into the hands of the people, and trust that the masses will take all of it that they can afford to take without unduly cramping their scanty resources. But we fear that the right to demand sufficient of the annual produce of this country to pay seven-thirty per cent per annum on the six or seven hundred millions of dollars lately thrown on the market, will be monopolized by the rich, by shoddy contractors, by purveyors and suttlers, and army followers, and the legion of knaves who have suddenly grown rich by the war, and fattened upon the general distress which it entailed. For this reason we oppose a high rate of interest, and favor a low one. If Mr. COOKE's figures were correct, it would matter very little what rate of interest we paid, since, according to his showing, we are abundantly able to pay almost any rate of interest; but we think that he has rested his case too much upon mere figures, and that he has lost sight of the true foundation upon which rests the accumulation of national wealth. Consequently, though by his figures he shows that we are netting profits enough every year not only to pay the high rate of interest he names, but to pay even a higher one, we still think that this is not the case, and shall proceed to expose what we deem to be his error.

HOW WE STOOD BEFORE THE WAR.

In 1850, according to the census figures, the total capital employed in this country was $7,135,780,228. In 1860 it was $16,159,616,068. The

increase in ten years was therefore $8,925,481,101, or 126$\frac{45}{100}$ per cent. This is equal to about 8½ per cent per annum, compounded. If this capital had remained untouched, and the same rate of profit continued to be earned, the following would have been the aggregate capital remaining in the country in 1900. The figures are roughly calculated:

Year.	Rate of decennial increase.	Capital.
1860	126 45 per cent	$16,159,816,068
1870	" "	36,000,000,000
1880	" "	85,000,000,000
1890	" "	200,000,000,000
1900	" "	550,000,000,000

HAS THE CAPITAL REMAINED UNTOUCHED.

But the capital has *not* remained untouched. In the first place, $6,000,000,000 has been sunk by the war. Thus:

The amount of our debt, according to official estimates, is	$3,000,000,000
Of this, probably not over two-thirds represents capital destroyed or put into unproductive shape, as into arms, cannon, men-of-war, etc. —the remainder has only changed owners, therefore deduct ⅓, or,	1,000,000,000
Total destruction of capital in the North	$2,000,000,000
Say an equal amount in the South	$2,000,000,000
Add for cities, ships, and other improvements burned or otherwise destroyed by act of war, an equal amount, or	2,000,000,000
We thus have a grand total decrease of capital from the figures of 1860 of	$6,000,000,000

This is only our private estimate, it is true, and we wish, to satisfy the reader, that it could be verified by official figures, but this is at least, for the present, impossible. We consider the estimate low—very low; but every reader must judge for himself. The havoc that four years of continued warfare has produced in this country, can only be appreciated when the evidences of it which yet remain can be seen with the observer's own eyes. This sum of $6,000,000,000 of capital, taken from the capital invested in this country in 1860, would leave but $10,150,616,068, but as it was not taken in 1860, but was taken from time to time during the four years and a-half following, we are disposed to believe that another thousand millions would be but fair as representing the saving which resulted from a gradual, instead of an immediate, destruction of the $6,000,000,000. This would leave, as a basis of calculation, a capital in 1860 of $11,159,616,068.

FOREIGN CAPITAL WITHDRAWN.

But how much of this has remained in the country during the war? A large portion of it was owned abroad, and when the war broke out, an enormous mass of wealth was sent to the rich countries of Europe, the capitalists of which owned it, and who, being fearful of its security, withdrew it. The withdrawal of this capital was manifested in the large exports from this country of gold and merchandise, the return of stocks, bonds, mortgages, notes, bills of exchange, and other evidences of indebtedness, and the great depreciation of the latter as well as of merchandise

and every description of property in our own markets. Precisely the same thing occurred in the South. The entire railways of the country are largely owned in England.

To what extent, then, was foreign capital withdrawn from the whole country? This question it is impossible to answer. Did we know the exact imports and exports of the whole country during the war, it were an easy task to do so; but this is unfortunately not the case. We are ignorant of the facts; we are also ignorant of the foreign business transacted at the South both on private and government account. Finally, we are ignorant of the value of the importations made even at the North on government account. The Government has no more seen fit to vouchsafe us that information, than the rebel government has seen fit to do the same thing at the South. Therefore, all answer to this important question is, at least for the present, left entirely in the dark.

FOREIGN CAPITAL ADDED.

It is undoubtedly the fact that enormous amounts of foreign capital were withdrawn in the first dark and trying days of 1861 and 1862. But it is no less the fact that in the latter part of 1863, and in 1864 and 1865, other amounts equally, perhaps more enormous, have been added. Some $500,000,000 to $800,000,000 in United States bonds are now held by European capital, and, in addition to this, large amounts are invested in railway, bank, canal, insurance, telegraph, steamship, and manufacturing and mining companies' stocks, or granted by way of commercial credit. It is utterly impossible for any one to say what the aggregate is—so we shall not make the attempt, but it must be something enormous.

A THEOREM COOLY SOLVED.

Mr. JAY COOKE is, therefore, not quite correct when he assumes that "we have for June, 1865, a wealth of $16,112,000,000."

HAS THE SAME RATE OF PROFIT CONTINUED?

The annual net profits during the decade ending in 1860, were, as we have seen, about 8½ per cent per annum. Has this rate continued the same? Mr. COOKE assumes that it has, and that it will continue the same, with slight diminution, until the year 1881, and perhaps even longer. But this calculation is as entirely unwarranted as the other. The rate of profit depends upon the competition of capital, and this again depends upon freedom and security. Why does so much British capital come here for investment? Because it brings more profit here than in England. But why does it not all flow to Turkey, to China, to Africa, to South America, where the rate of profit is even higher than it is here? Because, under the governments prevailing in those countries, it is not so secure; and under the tyranny of despotic rulers, or that of anarchy, its freedom of action is circumscribed. Insecurity and restriction, therefore, drive it towards a lower rate of interest, and it comes to the United States. So sensitive is capital to the action of restrictive laws, that the least change in governmental measures will cause it, like the sensitive plant, either to expand or contract in a moment. If the rate of profit in this country, previous to the war, was 8½ per cent per annum, it is very easy to ascertain

what it has been since that date, by comparing the amount of political and commercial freedom and security which prevailed then, and that which has prevailed since. If we have enjoyed the same freedom as before, then the rate has remained the same. If we have enjoyed less, the rate has increased. But it should be remembered that an increased rate of accumulation is incompatible with new accessions of capital. Either no foreign capital must be added to our capital, or the estimated future rate of accumulation to our capital must be lowered.

Mr. JAY COOKE'S statements concerning the rate of profit are, therefore, not quite reliable, and we shall not be worth $550,000,000,000 in the year 1900.

A GUESS.

But some people like figures. They are better satisfied with a column of figures, even though they are told that the figures may be quite hypothetical, than they are with an argument well based. Reduced to figures, arguments are convincing because they are short. Let us, therefore, take a hint from Mr. COOKE, and see what figures will come of an argument based upon due consideration of all the facts in the case, as compared with those which he has adduced from the contemplation, a mere isolated phenomenon. Let us premise that but a very short time, say three years, will suffice for the people of this country to discover the real nature and bearing of the odious restrictions now placed upon finance and commerce, the insecurity of property occasioned by over-legislation, and the shackels placed upon enterprise by the many forms of monopoly which now prevail. From the time of making this discovery, let us suppose it takes twenty years of continued peace to effect the work of reform, and that there shall be, during that time, no marked change in the legislation of other countries. On this basis we may venture to make a rough guess as to the resources of the whole Union; not of the Northern States alone, as Mr. COOKE has done.

In 1860, the entire capital in the country was $16,000,000,000, of which say $2,000,000,000 was in slaves. The previous rate of increase was about 6 per cent per annum, reckoning the slaves as free men, or 8½ per cent, *reckoning them*, as Mr. JAY COOKE does, *as merchandise*. Counting the slaves free, this leaves the aggregate capital, in 1860, at $14,000,000,000. In that year, foreign capital began to take alarm and disappear from the country at a gradually accelerating rate, which culminated in 1863. Then it began to decrease until 1864, when it stopped. By the beginning of the present year, the movement was strongly the other way, and is still in progress. Its culminating point is difficult to determine, but if it has not already been reached, it probably soon will be, under the prevailing state of affairs. The rate of profit has meanwhile been larger than ever. During the early part of the war, it was probably as high as 10 or 12 per cent. It is now not over six. From 1861, to the present time, the war has continued to sink capital at the rate of about $1,250,000,000 per annum. Taking into consideration the deduction for the slave valuation of 1860, the double movement of capital, the sinking of capital by the war, and the varying rate of profit, we conclude that the entire capital invested in the thirty-five United States is, to-day, about $14,000,000,000, or precisely what it was in 1860, less the slave valuation.

RESOURCES OF THE UNITED STATES, NO. 1.

[All the following sums are stated in millions, except the per centages.]

Period.	Capital.	Average yearly accession of foreign capital.	Average yearly rate of net accumulation.	Increase of capital and profit at end of period.	Remarks.
1865-68....	14,000	2 per cent.	6 per cent.	3,630	Over Legislation.
1868-78....	17,630	3 "	5 "	22,130	Reform
1878-88....	39,760	3 "	4 "	39,240	Continued reform.
1888-98....	79,000	2 "	3 "	52,600	Stationary state of freedom and security, same being a little more perfect than elsewhere.
1898-1900..	131,600	1 "	2 "	43,866	
1900.....	175,466				

In the year 1900 the amount of capital invested in this country would thus be $175,466,000,000, or a sum so large that the payment of the interest on the national debt, by the debtor class to the creditor class, would be an insignificant bagatelle.

But we are here presuming upon many things which may not come to happen.

The tempest of over-legislation which is now upturning the very foundations of security in this country, the rage for protection, for oppressive taxes, for class priviledges, for confiscation, for power—all this may *not* blow over by the time we have calculated—namely, 1868.

Reform may *not* be inaugurated. And, if inaugurated, it may be a feeble and spasmodic species of reform, which would take longer than ten years to bring us up to, and enable us to overtake, that condition of freedom and security which the foremost nations of the world have meanwhile attained.

Let us reverse the picture. Let us say that the condition of affairs to-day *is* continued; that men with a minimum allowance of brains are continued to be appointed to public office; that passion and injustice shall rule the country; that five-and-thirty years hence our form of government, no matter what it may be in name, shall be as strong and as despotic as that of Turkey; that the very name of free trade shall be abhorred; and that commercial intercourse between this and Albany shall be as thoroughly tied up and *protected* as that between this and Europe now is. What then will be our condition?

Though California should yield mountains of pure gold, though petroleum should spout up from the earth in volumes that would shame Niagara itself, though coined money rained from the clouds as manna rained upon the Hebrews, though wealth of every kind sprang up upon every side to feast the greedy eye and water the longing lip, the nation will grow poorer and poorer, and finally lapse into a state, which, if compared to the progress made by other nations in the meantime, will closely resemble that which we now call barbarism.

Mr. JAY COOKE, before inserting in his statement a long account of the gold mines in California, and the petroleum wells in Pennsylvania, should have remembered that there are gold mines in Mexico and petroleum wells in India. Both these sources of wealth have been worked for hundreds of years; in the latter case for thousands. Yet are Mexico and India rich and powerful countries? Oh! Mr. COOKE, something more is wanted besides wealth to make men rich, and that something is freedom—freedom from injustice, freedom from restriction, and freedom from Government! But to the figures.

RESOURCES OF THE UNITED STATES, NO. 2.

[All the following sums are stated in millions, except the per centages.]

Period.	Capital.	Average yearly accession of foreign capital.	Average yearly rate of net accumulation.	Increase of capital and profit at end of period.	Remarks.
1865-68..	14,000	2 per cent.	6 per cent.	3,680	Over Legislation.
1868-78..	17,630	None.	7 „	17,000	Continued do.
1878-88..	35,000	Capital yearly sent abroad. 5 per cent.	8 „	12,000	Worse and worse.
				Decrease.	
1888-98..	47,000	10 „	9 „	12,000	Insecurity.
1898-1900	35,000	15 „	10 „	24,000	War, &c.
1900	11,000.				

Thus, in the year 1900, the amount of capital invested in the country would only be $11,000,000,000, or $3,000,000,000 less than it amounts to at the present time, and in spite of an increasing rate of net accumulation for every decade.

Alongside of the two statements, which are based respectively upon increased freedom and increased restraint, let us place Mr. JAY COOKE'S statement, which takes no account of these little inducements to the accretion of national wealth, or its contrary condition of dispersion towards countries where its use and possession is more unrestricted and more secure. Mr. COOKE bases his figures upon the assumption that capital has been, during the last five years, and is now, employed in this country with the same security—no more, no less—and the same freedom—no more, no less—that existed from 1850 to 1860, and that it will continue to enjoy the same security and freedom up to the year 1870. No allowance is made for the four years of war through which we have passed; of the present condition of the Southern States; of the terrorism which has prevailed in the North from time to time, and frightened capital to such an extent that gun-boats had to be stationed at the foot of Wall Street to protect the banks of this city; of the expatriation, voluntary and involuntary, of American citizens, from both North and South, and the removal of their wealth to other countries; of the many odious forms of monopoly generated by the legislation which has been introduced under the color of war necessity; and of the tabooing of capital from competition in the manufacture of wood screws, horse shoes, cut nails, cutlery, ironmongery, cotton textures, wooden ware, prepared food, spirits, cigars, and a thousand other departments of industry. No mention is made of those things, but the affairs of the country are figured up as though they went by clockwork, and the clock always pointed to just the time wanted.

MR. JAY COOKE'S STATEMENT.

[All the figures of the table express millions of dollars, except the column of dates and that of per centages.]

Year.	Wealth.	Annual product.	Annual Interest.	Annual Revenue required.	An. Peace expenditures.	Per cent of annual Revenue to annual Product.
1865....	16,112	4,318	126	325	199	7.55 per cent.
1866....	17,428	4,635	148	348	200	7.42 per cent.
1867....	18,909	5,067	165	365	200	7.23 per cent.
1868....	20,516	5,498	165	365	200	6.63 per cent.
1869....	22,260	5,965	165	365	200	6.11 per cent.
1870....	24,226	6,492	165	365	200	5.62 per cent.

Further comment upon these figures is useless. They bear about as much relation to truth as the day of the month does to the Chinese budget.

But from these various estimates the calculating reader will draw a conclusion which, more than any other, would appear to concern him most. Whether Mr. COOKE be right or wrong, whether the people of this country enjoy increasing freedom or suffer increasing restraint, it appears to be conceded in any event, unless war or some other unforseen calamity happens during the next ten years, that at least, for that period, the debtor class will be in a condition to pay the creditor class—in other words, that the National debt will be paid. True; but as to the value of this conclusion to the reader, much depends upon whether he belongs to the creditor or the debtor class. If to the former, the country may become another Turkey for all he cares, so long as he gets his seven-thirty per cent; if to the latter, he will be careful to reckon up the difference between the interest at seven-thirty on the one or two hundred dollar bond he is hoarding up, and the overplus which he will have to pay, in the shape of taxes, for ten years, in order to gratify the present inordinate whim of Government to pay seven-thirty per cent when any amount of money can be borrowed at six.

CONCLUSION.

As an evidence that the possible evils we have foreshadowed are not only not entirely groundless, but are, on the contrary, imminently threatening, we present our readers with two extracts, one from the Constitution of the United States (the bond of agreement between the governors and the governed), and the other from the very statement of Mr. COOKE which we have had under review.

Says the Constitution, Art. I., sec. ix., clause 5: "No tax or duty shall be laid on articles exported from *any* State."

Says Mr. COOKE: "*Additional Sources of Revenue—Export Duties.—An export duty upon the cotton, tobacco, and other staples of the reconstructed Union, for which we have the command of the world's markets, is not only an ultimate reliance but a near probability, and can be made to pay from* $60,000,000 *to* $100,000,000 *a year, without detriment to any American interest.*"

THE RECIPROCITY QUESTION.

TRADE BETWEEN CANADA AND THE UNITED STATES.

By William J. Patterson, Secretary of the Board of Trade, etc., of Montreal.*

The intent of the Reciprocity Treaty was not to increase the revenue of governments, on one side or another; as expressed in the preamble, the objects were, to settle a "misunderstanding" in regard to the extent of the right of fishing on the coasts of British North America, and to regulate trade and commerce, so as to be reciprocally beneficial and satisfactory. The terms of the Treaty are clear and specific. Vague generalities have been indulged in, about the unequal and invidious working of the measure. On the merits of the case, however, the argument of the Finance Minister (Hon. A. T. Galt,) published three years ago, is, in our opinion, unanswerable.

A table given on page 13 of the "Report of the Trade and Commerce of Montreal for 1863," showed that the business between Canada and the United States increased from $24,182,103 in 1854, to $40,236,887 in 1862, or 66⅔ per cent in eight years. In 1854, 38⅓ per cent of the whole imports of Canada were from the United States; the proportion having increased to 51¼ per cent in 1862. In 1862, Canada purchased goods valued at $25,173,157 from the United States; while the purchases by the United States from this Province amounted to only $15,063,730—turning the so-called "balance of trade" against Canada to the extent of $10,109,427. In that year, the United States bought $774,761 worth of dutiable goods from Canada; while Canada bought $6,128,783 worth of dutiable goods from the United States—a plain indication of the relative liberality of the tariffs of the two countries.

A table is given below, which shows that the average annual value of imports into Canada from the United States, during fourteen and a-half years, was 47¼ per cent of the entire imports into the Province from all parts of the world; the rate for nine years and a-half being 51¼ per cent.

But, to be more explicit. The following table shows the values of free goods purchased in the markets of the United States and imported into Canada, during fourteen years and a-half—the figures for 1864 being for first six months of that year. The last column indicates the proportion made free by the Reciprocity Treaty:

Calendar years.	Produce of United States.	Produce of other countries.	Totals.	Free, under Reciprocity Treaty.
1850.....	.....	.....	$791,129	.....
1851.....	.....	.....	1,384,030	.....
1852.....	.....	.....	864,690	.....
1853.....	.....	.....	1,125,565	.....
1854.....	$2,043,717	$40,040	2,083,757	.....
1855.....	8,829,472	549,732	9,379,204	$7,725,572
1856.....	10,190,336	131,591	10,321,935	8,082,821

* We received this article previous to its appearance in the Report of the Board of Trade of Montreal, but was unable to make room for it before.—Ed. *Hunt's Merchants' Magazine.*

1857.....	10,231,013	27,219	10,258,220	8,642,044
1858.....	6,920,259	212,797	7,133,036	5,564,615
1859.....	8,040,225	516,320	8,556,545	7,106,116
1860.....	8,197,374	549,425	8,746,799	7,069,093
1861.....	*11,052,718	806,729	*11,859,447	9,980,957
1862.....	*15,630,701	883,376	*16,514,077	14,430,626
1863.....	*13,517,876	965,911	*14,483,287	12,339,317
1864(½-year).....	*5,393,236	385,231	*5,778,467	4,875,630
			$109,280,188	$85,816,824

In this table, the items with an asterisk (*) prefixed do not include the coin and bullion imported; the amounts of which were: in 1861, $863,308; in 1862, $2,530,297; in 1863, $4,651,679; in first six months of 1864, $2,474,171.

The subjoined table gives the values of dutiable goods purchased in the markets of the United States, and imported into Canada, during fourteen and a-half years. The last column shows the value of dutiable goods coming into the Province through the United States, *in bond;* the amounts are not, of course, included in the column of totals:

Calendar years.	Produce of United States.	Produce of other countries.	Totals.	Passing through United States in bond.
1850.....	.....	.....	$5,803,732	.....
1851.....	.....	.....	6,981,735	.....
1852.....	.....	.....	7,613,000	.....
1853.....	.....	.....	10,656,582	.....
1854.....	$9,298,385	$4,150,956	13,449,341	$5,347,081
1855.....	7,438,428	4,017,044	11,449,472	4,463,774
1856.....	7,981,284	4,987,520	12,968,804	4,926,922
1857.....	6,203,313	3,763,118	9,966,431	5,562,644
1858.....	4,524,503	3,634,865	8,473,607	2,057,024
1859.....	4,200,826	4,835,545	9,036,371	4,546,491
1860.....	4,431,315	4,101,229	8,532,544	3,041,577
1861.....	4,225,400	4,121,223	8,346,633	5,688,952
1862.....	2,967,079	3,161,704	6,128,783	5,508,427
1863.....	2,118,706	1,855,690	3,974,396	6,172,483
1864(½-year).....	1,073,136	1,103,867	2,177,003	7,925,177
			$125,558,433	

The two preceding tables were collated from the trade and navigation reports of the Province, and show to how great an extent Canada has been a consumer of United States' goods.

An assertion has been made, that the effect of the Reciprocity Treaty has been to diminish the general volume of domestic exports from the United States to Canada. The importation into this Province of dutiable and free goods, the produce and manufacture of the United States, since the treaty came into operation, was as follows:

Calendar years.	Free goods.	Dutiable goods.	Total.
1855	$8,829,472	$7,438,428	$16,267,900
1856	10,190,336	7,981,284	18,171,620
1857	10,231,013	6,203,313	16,434,326
1858	6,920,239	4,524,503	11,444,742
1859	8,040,225	4,200,826	12,241,051
1860	8,197,374	4,431,315	12,628,689
1861	11,052,718	4,225,400	15,278,118
1862	15,630,701	2,967,079	18,597,780
1863	13,517,876	2,118,706	15,636,982
1864[half-year].....	7,867,407	1,070,067	8,937,474

Any person who looks candidly into these figures cannot fail to perceive the sudden decrease in 1858, and to attribute it to its real cause—the financial crisis of 1857; this view of the matter being confirmed by the fact that in 1858 the value of dutiable goods brought into Canada in bond through the United States, showed a decrease of 63 per cent as contrasted with the year preceding. The influence of that disastrous period was being recovered from, when civil war broke out in the United States—after and in consequence of which, an average increase in the importation of bonded goods into Canada commenced, stimulated by high tariffs and internal revenue imposts, which had become a necessity in the United States to meet its enormous war expenditure. It would, however, be most unreasonable to expect the trade of this Province with the United States to continue to be as great as heretofore, in view of this increased taxation, which has necessarily enhanced the prices of all commodities; the natural consequence has been to constrain Canadian merchants, for a time, to seek other, because cheaper, markets.

The following table is compiled from Canadian Trade and Navigation Reports,* and indicates the entire volume of trade between the two countries, specifying dutiable and free goods, and including coin and bullion in 1861 to 1864, omitted in a preceding table. It may be stated also, that the exports, both dutiable and free, were the produce and manufacture of Canada—the official returns not including grain or flour, the growth or produce of the United States:

Calendar years.	Duty-paying goods.		Free goods.	
	Imported from United States.	Exported to United States.	Imported from United States.	Exported to United States.
1850	$5,803,732	$3,950,401	$791,129	$1,000,758
1851	6,981,735	3,316,986	1,384,030	754,559
1852	7,613,000	5,222,203	864,690	1,062,319
1853	10,656,582	7,620,172	1,125,565	1,316,210
1854	13,449,341	489,802	2,083,757	3,159,200
1855	11,449,472	327,710	9,379,204	16,409,567
1856	12,968,804	575,564	10,321,935	17,404,190
1857	9,966,431	639,714	10,258,220	12,566,722
1858	8,473,607	466,191	7,133,036	11,463,903
1859	9,036,371	651,725	8,556,545	13,270,589
1860	8,532,544	574,959	8,746,799	17,853,009
1861	8,346,633	519,517	12,722,755	13,866,910
1862	6,128,783	774,761	19,044,874	14,288,989
1863	3,974,396	1,393,171	19,134,966	18,657,261
1864[½-year].....	2,177,003	389,507	8,252,638	7,332,890
	$125,558,434	$26,912,383	$119,799,648	$155,407,056

The whole trade of these fourteen and a-half years between the two countries may be thus summarised:

Canada imported dutiable goods from United States..	$125,558,434
United States imported dutiable goods from Canada..	26,912,383
Excess of dutiable importations by Canada.....	$98,646,051

* The *exports* in the provincial reports here referred to, are not separated into *free* and *dutiable*. The figures in the two columns of exports in the following table, therefore, are approximates. The aggregates—*i. e.*, dutiable and free exports added together—are, however, precisely those of the Canadian official returns.

United States imported free goods from Canada.....	$155,407,056
Canada imported free goods from United States.	119,799,643
Excess of free importations by United States.....	$35,607,413
Balance against Canada, in fourteen and a-half years.....	$63,038,638

According to the figures in the foregoing table, the volume of trade between Canada and the United States, from 1850 to first half of 1864 inclusive, amounted in value to $427,677,516—Canada paying 14¾ per cent of the whole amount in cash ($63,038,638;) the value of her exports being $182,319,439, against $245,358,077, the value of dutiable and free goods imported by her.

If the analysis of the table be limited to the time the Reciprocity Treaty has been in operation, the volume of trade between the United States and Canada is shown to have amounted in value to $344 031,345—this Province paying 13⅛ per cent of the whole amount in cash, ($45,177,687,) the value of her exports being $149,426,829, against $194,604,516, the value of goods imported.

This view of the case is sustained by a statement reported to have been made to the United States Congress in February, 1864, by Hon. Mr. CHASE, then Secretary of the Treasury, showing, that during ten years ending in 1863, the exports from the United States to Canada amounted to $170,635,000; while the imports from Canada were $18,584,000 less, namely, $152,051,000.

But there is much stronger confirmation to be found in a special report, entitled "Statistics of the Foreign and Domestic Commerce of the United States," presented by Mr. CHASE to the United States Senate, under date June 25th, 1864. It is shown, on page 92 of that document, that, in 1855, Canada took from the United States dutiable goods valued at over $11,000,000—the amount having decreased, in 1862, to about $6,000,000. On the other hand, in 1854, the United States took from Canada dutiable goods valued at over $5,300,000—the amount, in 1862, having fallen as low as $227,000. The tables here referred to are for eight years, 1855 to 1863, and may be thus concisely stated:

United States goods paying duty in Canada [average of 8 years]..p. annum	$8,401,481
Canadian goods paying duty in U. States [average of 8 years]..p. annum	467,238
Average annual over-importation by Canada.....	$7,934,243

Upon which, Mr. CHASE remarks: "Under the Reciprocity Treaty, therefore, duty is paid on goods of the United States entering Canada of the average annual value of $7,934,243 more than the values of duty-paying goods entering the United States from Canada." This shows that, so far as dutiable goods are concerned, Canada imported to the extent of $63,473,944 more than she exported in eight years; the figures from provincial documents showing a difference, in fourteen years and a-half, of $98,646,051.*

* That this reference to the report of Mr. CHASE, the late Secretary of the Treasury, may be better understood, we publish the following extract from pages 92 and 93 of the report—Ed. *Hunt's Merchants' Magazine*:

The imports from Canada show an average value of $16,643,825 for the last eight fiscal years, of which an average of $467,238 only paid duty on entering the United

The Secretary of the United States Treasury goes on to show, at page 93, that the "Reciprocity imports into Canada from the United States," in eight years, 1856 to 1863, inclusive, were $42,333,257 less than the "Reciprocity imports into the United States from Canada." The Canadian returns, however, indicate that "other free goods" (which seem for a moment to have escaped the notice of Mr. CHASE) reduce that particular difference by $16,310,354—making a balance, so far as free goods are con-

---

States. The average sum of $16,176,337 entered free of duty, of which $14,443,000 was under the Reciprocity Treaty, and $1,732,725 was free under other laws. The following are the values admitted free to each country, respectively, contrasted for each year:

PAYING DUTY IN CANADA.

Calendar years.	Amount.	Calendar years.	Amount.
1855.....	$11,449,472	1861.....	$8,338,620
1856.....	12,770,923	1862.....	6,128,783
1857.....	9,966,430	1863.....	3,974,396
1858.....	8,473,607		
1859.....	9,032,861	Average of 8 years..	$8,401,481
1860.....	8,526,230		

PAYING DUTY IN THE UNITED STATES.

Fiscal years.	Amount.	Fiscal years.	Amount.
1854-55.....	$5,305,818	1860-61.....	358,240
1855-56.....	640,375	1861-62.....	227,059
1856-57.....	691,097	1862-63.....	567,677
1857-58	313,953		
1858-59.....	504,969	Average of 8 years...	$467,238
1859-60.....	434,532		

Under the Reciprocity Treaty, therefore, duty is paid on goods of the United States entering Canada of the average annual value of $7,934,241 more than the values of duty-paying goods entering the United States from Canada.

The respective values made free by the Reciprocity Treaty were, from 1856 to 1861, nearly twice as great from Canada, or of Canadian produce, as from the United States, or of United States produce. In 1862 and 1863, in consequence of the enormous increase in the shipments of wheat, flour, and grain nominally to Canada, but really through Canada to other markets, the values became nearly equal.

RECIPROCITY IMPORTS INTO CANADA FROM THE UNITED STATES.

Calendar years.	Amount.	Calendar years.	Amount.
1856.....	$8,082,820	1861.	$9,980,937
1857.....	8,642,044	1862.....	14,430,626
1858.....	5,564,615	1863.....	12,339,367
1859.....	7,106,116		
1860.....	7,069,098	Total, 8 years.....	$73,215,623

RECIPROCITY IMPORTS INTO THE UNITED STATES FROM CANADA.

Fiscal years.	Amount.	Fiscal years.	Amount.
1855-56.....	$15,959,550	1860-61.....	$16,327,824
1856-57.....	16,731,984	1861-62..... ...	14,295,562
1857-58.	10,900,168	1862-63.....	12,807,354
1858-59.....	12,307,371		
1859-60.	16,218,767	Total, 8 years	$115,543,880

The treaty has, therefore, released from duty a total sum of $42,333,257 in value of goods of Canada more than of goods the produce of the United States. The decline in value of American and foreign goods paying duty on entering Canada from the United States, in 1862 and 1863, is due to the decline of trade in all fabrics and manufactures not to any change in the proportions of free and dutiable, through which our exports are relieved from taxation.—Report on Foreign and Domestic Commerce of the United States, 1864. Pages 92 and 93.

cerned, against the United States of only $26,022,903. Assuming, however, for a moment, that his figures fully and fairly represent the state of the case, (which they certainly do not,) he still shows that, taking dutiable and free goods together, Canada had over-imported in the period to the extent of $21,140,687—or, by suggested correction, $37,451,041.

Mr. CHASE asserts, on page 104, that the decline in dutiable goods exported from the United States to Canada is wholly due to the levying of *ad valorem* duties in this Province. He declares that kind of taxation to be a practical discrimination against purchasing in United States markets; for, in consequence of increase in price of fabrics caused by enhanced tariffs, and by internal duties levied, "a duty of 20 per cent on invoices made in England, can scarcely fail now to amount to two such per-centages when the same or similar goods are purchased in the United States, simply through the duplication of prices attained here. Efforts have been made in Canada to obviate the difficulty in some measure by admitting United States invoices at a reduction to gold values, but nothing has been settled on." To this most extraordinary averment, there is a very brief reply: An order of the Governor General in council, issued on 31st October, 1862, provided for the levying of duties on all goods imported from the United States according to their value in gold; this regulation was therefore in force nearly two years prior to the date of Mr. CHASE's report, and has continued ever since to be acted upon by the Canadian customs' authorities.

On page 91 of his report, Mr. CHASE gives certain totals, showing a decline in the "foreign exports" of the United States; and remarks: "It is obvious, that the Canadian supply of foreign goods is no longer purchased in the importing cities of the United States, as before the treaty; and the statistics of goods entering Canada, through the United States, under bond, show that to be the mode of receipt substituted for the former." His allegation about the effect of *ad valorem* duties is set up to account for the decline of trade, from what it is supposed to have been before 1855. A table, and some remarks, given on page 32, establish that the decrease in dutiable goods was not coincident with the Reciprocity Treaty, and, when it did occur, was the effect of other causes. In addition to what was there stated, it is shown by the following table, that the effect of the treaty was to *increase* importations from the United States into Canada, and very materially to *decrease* importations from Great Britain. The proportions of the yearly values of imports into Canada from the United States, to the imports from all parts of the world, (the annual importations from Great Britain being also shown,) during a period of fourteen years and a-half, were as follows:

Calendar years.	Imports from Great Britain.	Imports from United States.	Imports from all parts of the world.	Per centage from U. States
1850.....	$9,681,921	$6,594,861	$16,982,069	39
1851.....	12,048,133	8,365,765	21,434,791	40
1852.....	10,671,133	8,477,693	20,286,493	41¼
1853.....	18,489,121	11,782,747	31,981,436	36¾
1854.....	22,963,330	15,533,101	40,529,325	38¼
1855.....	13,303,460	20,828,676	36,036,169	57¾
1856.....	18,212,934	22,704,601	43,584,387	52
1857.....	17,559,025	20,224,651	39,430,598	51¼
1858.....	12,287,053	15,635,565	29,078,527	53¾

1859..... ...	14,786,084	17,592,916	33,555,161	52½
1860.....	15,859,980	17,273,029	34,447,935	50½
1861.....	20,386,937	21,069,388	43,054,836	49
1862..... ...	21,179,312	25,173,157	48,600,633	51¾
1863.....	20,177,572	23,109,362	45,964,493	50½
1864[¼-year].....	11,880,240	10,426,572	23,882,216	43¾
	$239,436,235	$244,791,484	$508,899,069	

The averages give a mean of 47¼ per cent, as the proportion of imports annually, during the whole period, from the United States—the mean from 1855 being 51¼ per cent, or an average increase of four per cent, attributable to the treaty. The aggregate value of imports from Great Britain was less by $5,355,249 than the total from the United States. Reckoning from 1855, the value of imports from Great Britain was $165,632,597; from the United States, $194,037,917; a difference of $28,405,320, or 17⅛ per cent. The importations from the two countries, during the first five years referred to in the table, speak for themselves.

The foregoing glance at the current of trade between the neighboring Republic and this Province should be satisfactory to the most fastidious protectionist in the United States. Had the conclusions been of an opposite character, the so-called "balance of trade" being reversed, it would not therefore have followed, that the people of the United States had not been greatly benefited by their excessive importations from the British North American Provinces. The people of these Provinces buy so much more from the United States than they sell to them, simply because it is profitable so to do; and the people of the United States will buy more in the provincial markets than they do at present just as soon as their tariff and taxation are modified, so as to make the transactions remunerative. If the Reciprocity Treaty were abrogated, and discriminative duties against Canada imposed in its stead, neither the Government nor the people of the United States would be advantaged. Take an illustration from a report on the subject by the Detroit Board of Trade:

"In 1863, we imported at Detroit 800,000 bushels of Canadian white wheat, on which we received the following sums for labor, freight, insurance, elevating charges, and commission:

Elevating and shipping charge on 800,000 bushels, 2c.....	$6,000 00
Fire insurance on value here, $450,000, ¼c.....	1,125 00
Freight to Buffalo on 300,000 bushels, 6c.....	18,000 00
Transfer at Buffalo, 1c	3,000 00
Canal freight to New York, 20c.....	60,000 00
Measuring at New York, 1c.....	3,000 00
Lake insurance on $584,250, at ¼ per cent premium	2,921 25
Commission on value at New York, at $1 90 per bushel, $584,250, 2½ per cent premium.....	14,250 00
Total charge paid citizens of the United States.....	$108,296 25

"With the revenue law, as it stands at present, the Government would have received directly, as its portion of the benefit, the following sums:

On canal and lake freight, $78,000, at 2½ per cent.....	$1,950 00
On gross sales, $584,250, at one-eighth of 1 per cent.	730 30
On stamps for time drafts for $400,000, at 50 cents per $1,000	200 00

Assuming that all parties interested netted the moderate sum of $10,000 on this property, it added just that amount to the net in-

comes of the various parties interested; so that, with a five per cent income tax, the Government would get another sum out of the transaction, of	500 00
Amount paid the Treasury.....	$3,880 30

"Here we have the sum of $111,676 55 paid to the Government and people on one lot of 300,000 bushels of white wheat. Every transaction of the same nature resulted more or less in the same way. It will take a great deal of argument, prejudice, and sophistry to prove that the United States were deeply wronged by the above and kindred transactions. The opponents of the treaty say that this wheat would have come in under a twenty per cent *ad valorem* duty, and that we should have had all these profits, and the duty besides. To this, we reply: we would not have received one single bushel of the wheat with a twenty per cent duty; for the simple reason, that the amount of this tax would have paid the freight charges, insurance, and commission from the point or way-port, from which the grain started in Canada, to Montreal—where it would have sold for a larger sum than it would have done in Detroit."

It must not be overlooked that Mr. CHASE's Report speaks of the trade in breadstuffs between Canada and the United States as, to a great extent, merely a transit business; and figures are given on pages 80 and 81 to illustrate that view of the case—hence the allegation that "the volume imported at all parts of the border does not differ much from the volume exported." The *quantities* in the examples differ materially; exports in three years from United States to Canada are shown to be equal to 15,657,244 bushels, while imports from Canada to United States are only equal to 11,308,515 bushels, the difference being about 27½ per cent. The wheat and flour forming these imports, as before remarked, were the produce or manufacture of this Province. The *values*, too, when closely examined, make the connection between the premises and the conclusion much less obvious than at first sight it appears to be.

The facts of the case are these. The bulk of the flour imported into Canada from the Western States and Oswego, for a number of years past, has been for local consumption and for export to Great Britain—very little indeed finding its way back to the United States. A great proportion of the wheat imported into the Province from the West is manufactured on the Welland Canal and in Montreal. The flour is largely consumed at Quebec and in the lower provinces; shipments being also made to England. This flour could not be sent into the United States in any considerable quantity, in consequence of the customs' regulations; for, notwithstanding Mr. CHASE's affirmation that such flour finds *free* entrance into the United States, the experience of merchants and millers in the Province is that it *does not*, there being a special Treasury order in force which contradicts the allegation. Moreover, that description of flour could not compete in the Eastern market with the kind produced by the millers of Oswego and Rochester. On the other hand, the demand in the United States for Canadian flour is for a high-classed quality from white wheat—the spring wheat of this Province also yielding a strong flour, which is much inquired for. The trade in breadstuffs, therefore, is not merely a transit trade, but a reciprocal and mutually beneficial one. In illustration of this view, it may be further stated that the receipts of flour by lake at

Oswego, "foreign and coastwise," in 1864, were 51,650 barrels—of which, 39,999 barrels (or 77½ per cent) were Canadian. The receipts of wheat by lake at that port, in the same year, were 5,657,778 bushels—of which 1,004,917 (or 17¾ per cent) were Canadian.

THE "UNILATERAL" HYPOTHESIS.

One of the opponents of the Reciprocity Treaty, (Hon. CHARLES SUMNER.) has made an effort to show that it is "unilateral" in its operation, and very disadvantageous to his country's commerce. A leading commercial newspaper, however, proved that his theory was fallacious—and it is believed that the figures in the foregoing pages destroy his conclusions. But they do more than this; for, from the protectionist standpoint, they demonstrate that the treaty *is* one-sided in the very opposite sense from that in which he views it. This will be further evident, when it is stated that the Reciprocity Treaty conferred no special advantages upon the British North American Provinces in general, or Canada in particular—the goods admitted free into the United States from the Provinces (under Article III. of the Treaty,) *being also admitted free from all other countries.* Further, the navigation of the River St. Lawrence and of the provincial canals was secured to United States' craft on the same terms as provincial vessels; Canadian craft being excluded from the canals of the United States, notwithstanding the third clause of Article IV. of the treaty.

TRADE OF THE UNITED STATES WITH THE LOWER PROVINCES.

The Reciprocity Treaty has been frequently spoken of as if the parties to it were—Canada exclusively on the one hand, and the United States on the other. It is worthy of remark, however, that United States authorities point to the existence of a very extensive trade between that country and Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Newfoundland, and Prince Edward Island—much of which is the direct result of that treaty. The following table shows the value of the trade:

Years ending June 30.	—Exported to lower Provinces by U. S.— Domes. goods.	Foreign goods.	Totals.	—Imported from lower Provinces by U. S.— Free goods.	Dutiable goods.	Totals.
1850	$3,116,340	$501,874	$3,618,214	$161,145	$1,207,847	$1,358,992
1851.	3,224,553	861,230	4,085,783	160,567	1,576,284	1,736,650
1852.	2,650,134	1,141,822	3,791,956	218,718	1,301,612	1,520,330
1853.	3,398,575	1,912,968	5,311,543	238,568	2,034,034	2,272,602
1854.	4,693,771	2,572,883	7,266,154	259,102	1,946,919	2,206,021
1855	5,855,878	3,229,798	9,085,676	1,227,627	1,726,793	2,954,420
1856.	7,519,909	626,199	8,146,108	3 640,875	181,349	3,822,224
1857.	6,911,405	776 182	7,687,587	3,695,815	136,647	3,832,462
1858.	5,975,494	646,979	6,622,473	4,047,169	177,779	4,224,948
1859.	8,329,960	883,422	9,213,382	5,290,088	228,746	5,518,834
1860.	7,502,839	1,120,375	8,623,214	4,758,830	235,878	4,939,708
1861.	7,133,734	1,250,021	8,383,755	4,255,305	162,171	4,417,476
1862.	7,369,905	866,706	8,236,611	3,744,614	302.199	4,046,843
1863.	10,198,505	1,183,807	11,382,312	4,797,814	409,610	5,207,424
			$101,405,218			$48,508,934

According to these figures, (from Mr. CHASE'S Report,) the exports from United States to the maritime Provinces exceeded the value of the imports from the Provinces by $52,896,284. The free and dutiable goods

sold to the Provinces are not particularized; but the quantities of flour, wheat, etc., are noted below:

Years ending June 30.	Flour. Brls.	Wheat. Bush.	Maize. Bush.	Meal (Corn & rye.) Brls.	Total value.
1850	214,934	198,319	96,552	142,882	$1,744,768
1851	200,664	216,971	101,169	92,341	1,521,365
1852	166,117	189,672	141,185	42,121	1,078,001
1853	171,640	204,717	158,885	40,224	1,233,398
1854	145,590	148,882	188,134	95,485	1,699,733
1855	193,122	98,323	160,444	139,795	2,792,427
1856	397,616	147,925	183,372	145,409	4,158,479
1857	436,231	142,568	140,618	101,896	3,572,777
1858	491,802	103,943	109,841	66,255	3,084,730
1859	549,088	74,676	110,692	53,440	3,365,257
1860	578,133	68,621	117,204	52,941	3,427,083
1861	569,356	19,886	61,804	59,789	3,330,686
1862	605,826	13,748	113,077	32,835	3,535,330
1863	732,384	70,894	171,984	74,478	4,948,871
					$39,493,410

The favorable influence of the Reciprocity Treaty upon the trade in breadstuffs will be seen at a glance. The value of the whole "domestic" exports from the United States to the lower Provinces in the period was $83,881,502.

RECAPITULATION.

The foregoing statements clearly show how important and valuable the British North American market is to the United States. They may be briefly recapitulated thus:

Canada over-imported, since 1850, to the extent of.....	$63,038,638
Lower Provinces over-imported, in same period	52,896,294
Paid United States, to balance accounts.....	$115,934,933

These advantages of this profitable traffic which accrue to the United States, are entirely independent of the benefits arising from the free use of the British North American fisheries, the free navigation of the St. Lawrence, etc.

SHOULD THE TREATY BE REPEALED?

Since the foregoing remarks were penned, notice has been given to the Government of Great Britain that the United States Government desire the termination of the present Treaty. It may have been suggested by the American Minister that a new treaty should be negotiated. It is doubtful whether an addition to the schedule of free goods would be considered beneficial to the United States, if the views which appear to be extensively accepted in that country are taken into account. On the other hand, if the people and Government are resolved upon the abrogation of the Treaty, it would be needless for the people of these Provinces to ask for its continuance or even revision; they could only regret that a great nation, whose commercial interests are so identified with their own, should be impelled to such a retrogressive and suicidal policy, and, when the treaty expired, the business community would endeavor to adapt themselves to the altered circumstances.

A CONVENTION OF MERCHANTS.

PROPOSED MEETING AT DETROIT.

The importance of sustaining an efficient Board of Trade or Chamber of Commerce in each of our principal cities has long been acknowledged. Such organizations are of evident use to the community where they exist, and also to the country at large. But could not their usefulness be decidedly increased if there was a central head uniting these different bodies, and making them one in purpose? We now have, for instance, trade reports of many cities, published under the direction of these different boards. Some of them are intelligible, some of them are full, while others are meager and of little use. Could not a report of all the States be made up each year, under the supervision of a central organization, with the assistance of these local bodies, which would possess the greatest value? We are persuaded that a little money spent in thus compiling a volume, would give us a work of rare usefulness.

Then, too, would not an annual convention of delegates from each of these boards be a meeting of decided interest and influence? Commercial questions have assumed far greater importance to us as a nation than formerly. They must be the study of every man. Our prosperity in the future depends upon our wisdom now. At a convention such as we suggest, all commercial questions agitating the country could be fully discussed, and the voice of the convention when expressed would carry far greater weight with it than does the separate action of these different bodies. Besides, the comparing of views held by our leading merchants in different sections of the country would be more likely to lead us to correct conclusions, than where each makes its decision seperately, influenced perhaps by local prejudices.

Last year there was a meeting at Portland of invited delegations from prominent boards of trade at the West, and this year we see that Boston is planing for a similar meeting early in June. The visit at Boston is to extend over three days, and is simply designed to bring New England and the West into more intimate commercial relations. Such assemblages are unobjectionable and of value for the purpose of advancing particular interests, but of no further use. They are not national, but sectional. The Detroit Board of Trade, however, has proposed a convention, out of which good may come if supported with spirit by other similar organizations. We gladly give place to the preliminary letter which has been mailed to each Board of Trade and Chamber of Commerce throughout the country, hoping it may serve to increase the interest felt in the measure. Mr. R. Hawley, of Detroit, in sending us this letter, says:

"It has occurred to me that it would be well if you would publish this preliminary letter, and then, if any board has been inadvertantly overlooked, notice will probably reach it in time for the appointment of the requisite number of delegates. Very many of the Chambers of Commerce have already signified their acceptance of the invitation, not only as to time and place, but as to the subjects to be discussed and acted upon. You will no doubt agree with me that it will be a most important assemblage, and if men of enlarged views and wide experience, who can rise above

narrow prejudices and selfish interests, are generally sent, its influence upon the future well-being of our country cannot well be over-estimated."

The following is a copy of the letter referred to, which has been mailed, as already stated, to each Board of Trade and Chamber of Commerce throughout the country:

"BOARD OF TRADE ROOMS, DETROIT, MICH.,
March 28, 1865.

"At a meeting of this Association, on the 6th inst.—following resolutions, after full discussion, were unanimously adopted:

"*Resolved*, That the President be requested to address circular letters to the presiding officers of the several Boards of Trade in the loyal States and British Provinces, asking the appointment of delegates to attend a convention to be held during the approaching summer, for the consideration of the following subjects, viz: Commerce, Finances, Communications of Transit from the West to the seaboard; Reciprocal Trade between the United States and the British Provinces, and such other business as may come before the Convention, not of a purely local or political character.

"*Resolved*, That Detroit is a central and convenient place for the Convention to meet, and we hereby tender the Board of Trade Rooms for its accommodation.

"In conformity with the foregoing resolutions calling a Convention, the objects being therein stated, I shall simply ask for them your careful consideration, if approved of, that your association will cordially co-operate by sending a suitable number of its members to the proposed Convention, to assist in discussing the various and important commercial questions which may properly come before it.

"It is believed that this is eminently a proper time for the business men of this country, through their several Boards of Trade and Chambers of Commerce, to meet in council, to discuss matters of finance and commerce, and thus give to the people at large the life-long experience of men devoted to commercial affairs. Such discussion cannot produce evil, and may result in material good.

"I would beg leave to name the second Tuesday in July, proximo, for the Convention to meet in Detroit. If any other time or place should be thought more desirable by a majority of the Boards their views will be adopted. When we hear from the several Boards of Trade on the subject this Association will communicate their action to you.

"Hoping to hear from you at your earliest convenience,

"Your obedient servant,

"JOSEPH ASPINALL, President."

We trust that the convention referred to in the above letter will not only meet, but that it will be composed of earnest men alive to their country's true interests; that a permanant organization will be effected, and that hereafter we shall have a regular annual convention of delegates from every Board of Trade in the land, meeting together to discuss and act upon the prominent commercial measures and questions of the day. The voice of our merchants would thus be heard, and exert the influence it should on all matters affecting the great mercantile interests of our country.

This invitation is very properly, we see, extended to the British Provinces. It is not expected, of course, that we shall ask Canada what shall be the commercial policy of the United States, nor that we shall mark

out or dictate what shall be her legislation affecting us. Yet our interests are so similar and dependant, it is well for us to consult together, and endeavor to recommend some policy to our respective governments which shall make us closer and firmer friends.

The relative representation of the different Boards in such a convention might be a matter of some difficulty. In case, however, each Board or Chamber of Commerce was required to vote as a unit, there would be no question of representation. This plan, we presume, will be adopted, as it avoids this difficulty of representation, and is otherwise desirable, in that it would thus be readily seen from whence came the approval of, or opposition to, every measure, and the different organizations preserving their individuality, would carry with their vote their due influence.

COMMERCIAL LAW.—NO. 22.

THE LAW OF SHIPPING.

THE OWNERSHIP AND TRANSFER OF SHIPS.

The law of shipping may be considered under three divisions. First, as to ownership and transfer of ships. Second, as to the employment of ships as carriers of goods, or of passengers, or both. Third, as to the navigation of ships. We begin with the first topic.

Ships are personal property; or, in other words, a ship is a chattel; and yet its ownership and transfer are regulated in this country by rules quite analogous to those which apply to real property.

The Constitution of the United States gives to Congress the power to enact laws for the regulation of commerce. In execution of this power, acts were passed in 1792, and immediately after, which followed substantially (with one important exception, to be hereafter noticed) the Registry and Navigation Laws of England, one of which had been in force about a century and a half. The English laws were intended to secure English commerce to Englishmen and English ships; and it was supposed that the commercial prosperity of England was in a great measure due to them.

To secure the evidence of the American character of a vessel, the statute of 1792 provides for an exact system of registration in the custom house. There is no *requirement* of registration. The law does not say that a ship shall or must be registered, but that certain ships or vessels may be; and if they are registered, they shall have certain privileges. And the disadvantage of being without registry operates as effectually as positive requirement with a heavy penalty could do.

The ships which may be registered are those already registered, 31 December, 1792, under the act of September, 1789; those built within the United States, and owned wholly by citizens thereof; and those captured and condemned as prizes, or adjudged forfeited by violation of law, if at the time of registry they are owned wholly by citizens of this country. No ship can be registered, if an owner or part-owner usually reside abroad,

although he is a citizen, unless he is a consul of the United States, or agent for, and a partner in, a mercantile house established and doing business here; nor if the master be not a citizen of the United States; nor if the owner or part-owner be a naturalized citizen, and reside in the country whence he came more than a year, or in any foreign country more than two years, unless he be consul or public agent of the United States. But a ship which has lost the benefits of registry by the non-residence of an owner, in such a case may be registered anew if she become the property of a resident citizen, by *bona fide* purchase; nor can a ship be registered which has been, at any time, the property of an alien, unless she becomes the property of the original owner or his representative.

Sometimes Congress, by special acts, permits the registration, as an American ship, of a vessel which has become, by purchase, American property. If a registered American ship be sold or transferred, in whole or in part, to an alien, the certificate of registry must be delivered up, or the vessel forfeited; but if, in case of a sale in part, it can be shown that any owner of a part not so sold was ignorant of the sale, his share shall not be subject to such forfeiture. And as soon as a registered vessel arrives from a foreign port, her documents must be deposited with the collector of the port of arrival, and the owner, or, if he does not reside within the district, the master, must make oath that the register contains the names of all persons who are at that time owners of the ship, and at the same time report any transfer of the ship, or of any part, that has been made within his knowledge since the registry; and also declare that no foreigner has any interest in the ship. If a register be issued fraudulently, or with the knowledge of the owners, for a ship not entitled to one, the register is not only void, but the ship is forfeited. If a new register is issued, the old one must be given up; but where there is a sale by process of law, and the former owners withhold the register, the Secretary of the Treasury may authorize the collector to issue a new one. If a ship be transferred while at sea, or abroad, the old register must be given up, and all the requirements of law, as to registry, &c., must be complied with, within three days after her arrival at the home port.

Exclusive privileges have at various times been granted to registered vessels of the United States. By the statute of 1817, it is provided, that no merchandise shall be brought from any foreign country to this, except in American vessels, or in vessels belonging to that country of which the merchandise is the growth. Also, that no merchandise shall be carried from port to port in the United States, by any foreign vessel, unless it formed a part of its original cargo. A ship that is of twenty tons burden, to be employed in the fisheries, or in the coasting trade, need not be registered, but must be enrolled and licensed accordingly. If under twenty tons burden, she need only be licensed. If licensed for the fisheries, she may visit and return from foreign ports, having stated her intention of doing so, and being permitted by the collector. And if registered, she may engage in the coasting trade or fishery, and if licensed and enrolled, she may become a registered ship, subject to the regulations provided for such cases.

A ship that is neither registered nor licensed and enrolled, can sail on no voyage with the privilege or protection of a national character or national papers. If she engages in foreign trade, or the coasting trade, or

fisheries, she is liable to forfeiture; and if she have foreign goods on board, must at all events pay the tonnage duties leviable on foreign ships. In these days, no ship engaged in honest business, and belonging to a civilized people, is met with on the ocean, without having the regular papers which attest her nationality, unless she has lost them by some accident.

THE TRANSFER OF PROPERTY IN A SHIP.

The Statute of Registration provides, that, "in every case of sale or transfer, there shall be some instrument in writing, in the nature of a bill of sale, which shall recite at length the said certificate; otherwise the said ship or vessel shall be incapable of being registered anew." It follows, therefore, that a merely oral transfer, although for valuable consideration, and followed by possession, gives the transferee no right to claim a new register setting forth his ownership. But this is all. There is nothing in this statute to prevent the property from passing to and vesting in such transferee. It is, however, unquestionably a principle of the maritime law generally, that property in a ship should pass by a written instrument. And as this principle seems to be adopted by the statute, the courts have sometimes almost denied the validity of a merely parol transfer. The weight of authority and of reason is, however, undoubtedly in favor of the conclusion stated by Judge STORY, that "the registry acts have not, in any degree, changed the common law as to the manner of transferring this species of property." It would follow, therefore, that such transfer would be valid, and would pass the property.

The English Registry Act provides, that "when the property in any ship, or in any part thereof, shall, after registry, be sold, the same shall be transferred by bill of sale, or other instrument in writing, containing a recital of the certificate of registry, or the principal contents thereof; otherwise, such transfer shall not be valid or effectual for any purpose whatever, either in law or in equity." Our Registry Act contained no such provision. Perhaps this important omission arose from a doubt whether legislating concerning the transfer of ships at home, as property, could be considered as a regulation of commerce; for if not, it was not within their constitutional power.

In 1850, Congress, however, passed an act, "to provide for recording the conveyances of vessels, and for other purposes." By this statute it was provided "that no bill of sale, mortgage, hypothecation, or conveyance of any vessel or part of any vessel of the United States, shall be valid against any person other than the grantor or mortgagor, his heirs and devisees, and persons having actual notice thereof; unless such bill of sale, mortgage, hypothecation, or conveyance be recorded in the office of the collector of the customs where such vessel is registered or enrolled." Then follows an exception in favor of liens by bottomry, and in subsequent sections are provisions for recording by the collector, and giving certificates, &c.

This statute has no effect, that we perceive, upon oral transfers, excepting that, as they cannot be recorded, their operation is limited to the grantors and those who have actual notice. Where the transfer is by bill of sale, the record of this, under the late statute, is, perhaps, notice to all the world. But in most of our States there are already provisions for the record of mortgages of personal property, and it may be a difficult ques-

tion how these are affected by this statute of the United States. For example, if there be such a record as is required by the State law, is this sufficient, without a custom house record, either because it is a public notice, which is the equivalent of actual notice to everybody, or because the State has the right to regulate this matter; or, if there be a record in the custom-house and none which conforms to the State requirements, is this sufficient against all the world? If we suppose this statute to be constitutional, of which we do not, however, feel certain, we should say that it controlled and superseded the State statute, so as to make that unnecessary and ineffectual; and therefore a record in the custom-house only would be sufficient, and a record under the State law would affect only those who had actual knowledge of it.

As a ship is a chattel, a transfer of it should be accompanied by a delivery of possession. Actual delivery is sometimes impossible where a ship is at sea; and perhaps the statute of 1850 makes the record of the transfer equivalent to change of possession. If there be no record, possession should be taken as soon as possible; and prudence would still require the same course, we think, in case of transfer by writing and record.

There have been cases which have been supposed to intimate that, as between two innocent purchasers, he that gets actual possession first completes his title as against the other. We doubt the correctness of this in all cases. We say rather, that if A becomes in good faith the purchaser of a vessel, and has taken *constructive* possession, (as by having a bill of sale indorsed on the register and recorded in the custom-house, and taking an order to the master or other person in possession to deliver her up,) he has no right to delay unnecessarily the taking *actual* possession, for this may deceive and injure other persons. And if B, a second purchaser, in ignorance of the first purchase, during such delay or neglect gets actual possession, he would hold the vessel; unless, indeed, prevented by the record. But if B gets actual possession before A, but while A was so prevented that his want of actual possession cannot be imputed to him as neglect, A will get a better title than B, if he (A) takes actual possession as soon as he can.

By the word "ship," and still more by the phrase "ship and her appurtenances," or "apparel," or "furniture," everything would pass which was distinctly connected with the ship, and is on board of her, and fastened to her if that be usual, and needed for her navigation or for her safety. Kentledge, a valuable kind of permanent ballast, has been held to pass with the ship; so have a rudder and cordage prepared for a vessel, but not yet attached to her, and not quite finished; and so would a boat, anchors, &c., generally. But the answer to the question, What is part of the ship? must always depend somewhat upon the words of the instrument, and upon the circumstances of the case and the intention of the parties.

Sometimes, when a ship is built, she is paid for in instalments. If these are regulated by the progress in building, so that, when so much is done, a sum deemed equivalent to the labor and materials used shall be paid, and when more is done, another sum in due proportion, and so on, it is held that each payment purchases the ship as she lies; and if she be lost after any such payments, the loss is the loss of the purchaser. But if

paid for, so much down, and so much at a certain time, so much at another, &c., without reference to the state of the ship at these times, these are only payments on account, and the ship does not belong to the purchaser until completed and delivered.

A sale by the decree of any regular court of admiralty, with due notice to all parties, and with proper precautions to protect the interests of all, and guard against fraud or precipitancy, would undoubtedly be acknowledged by courts of admiralty of every other nation as transferring the property effectually.

COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW.

OPENING OF THE SOUTHERN PORTS TO TRADE—THE OLD CONDITION OF AFFAIRS BEING RAPIDLY RESTORED—THE PRESIDENT'S PROCLAMATIONS—A REVIVAL OF FOREIGN COMMERCE AT HAND—CAPITAL DESTINED TO FLOW INTO THE COUNTRY IF WISE MEASURES PREVAIL—DECREE OF THE EMPEROR MAXIMILLIAN—COLOSSAL SUBSCRIPTIONS TO THE SEVEN-THIRTY LOAN—MONEY MARKET—PRICES OF MERCHANDISE—CONGRESS OF THE BOARDS OF TRADE TO RESTORE RECIPROCITY TREATY—IMPORTS OF DRY GOODS—SPECIE MOVEMENT—COURSE OF EXCHANGE—PRICES UNITED STATES PAPER—RAILWAY SHARES—IMPORTANT DECISION OF JUDGE NELSON IN THE UNITED STATES CIRCUIT COURT ON CONFISCATION, ETC., ETC.

PRESIDENT JOHNSON appears to be sincerely desirous of pacificating the late insurgent parts of the country, and reopening them to the healing influences of commerce and private enterprise as soon as possible. Various edicts have already emanated from the Government opening the Southern ports to trade, and permitting commercial intercourse to re-establish itself under certain restrictions. None but those who have carefully considered the great part that commerce has always played in burying national animosities, and in ever advancing the true interests of civilization and progress, can fully appreciate the wisdom of these measures at this time. Some of the most interesting indications of the new condition of affairs, which will inevitably flow from renewed traffic with the South, are furnished by the long columns of advertisements which now appear in the daily press concerning lines of steamers to Charleston, Savannah, and other Southern ports, express companies to all points South, railroads once more in running order, and telegraph lines just delivered from military control.

The two proclamations of May 29th, the one extending amnesty to the rank and file of the rebellion, and the other, re establishing civil government in North Carolina, are additional indications that President JOHNSON will go as far as public opinion will permit him in restoring peace and harmony to the ruined South.

A great revival of foreign commerce is also undoubtedly at hand. Steam lines are announced to run between California and China, touching at the Sandwich Islands, California, and Japan; New York and Brazil; and New York and Italy, touching at the port of Cadiz in Spain. But we have woefully impaired our

former means of prosecuting foreign commerce by the restrictions which, still in the form of tariffs and penalties, chain us to that retrogression which the war necessitated. Let these be once removed and peace prevail, and the immense fields for the employment of capital in this vast country will invite accretions of capital from all parts of the world for investment; let them remain, and the hope that now inspires the commercial classes in the United States will flicker and die out, and the activity it has already promoted will be so much wasted effort.

The Emperor MAXMILIAN has published a decree increasing the duty on foreign tobacco, which, in addition to the municipal taxes, will have to pay duty as follows:

Leaf tobacco, gross weight	25	cents	per pound.
Chewing tobacco, "	50	"	"
Snuff tobacco, "	75	"	"
Cigarettes, net weight	75	"	"
Segars, "	150	"	"

Tobacco, entered with a final destination to interior custom-houses, will pay as a counter-registry duty the following rates:

Leaf tobacco, gross	25	cents	per pound.
Chewing tobacco, gross	50	"	"
Snuff tobacco, gross	50	"	"
Cigarettes, net	50	"	"
Segars, net	100	"	"

In leaf tobacco no deduction will be allowed in weight from the original packages. Segars will include the ties, but the boxes will be deducted from the weight. The decree is to take effect in forty days from the date of publication —April 6th.

The great event of the month has been the colossal subscriptions to the seven-thirty loan. With gold oscillating about 130, interest at seven and three-tenths per cent has proved, as might be expected, inviting enough to attract great sums of capital from all parts of the country—indeed, was the true welfare of the people, who will have to pay the interest on these sums in the form of taxes, consulted, it will be seen that the money has been borrowed at altogether too attractive a rate. The withdrawal of so much capital from industrial pursuits is a matter of small regret, because foreign capital will be sure to flow in ultimately and replace it; but the rate of interest is decidedly objectionable.

The steady flow of the immense sums attracted by this loan has had an all-absorbing effect upon the money market and the price of gold. On the 30th of June, 1863, the amount of loans to the Government at 7-30 was $52,725,350. On the 31st October, 1864, it was $76,668,550. But on the 31st March, 1865, it had grown to $300,812,800. Since the latter date the subscriptions to this loan have been incessant, amounting, in one particular day alone, to $40,000,000, and during the month ending May 14, to $300,000,000. Two series of about $300,000,000 having been disposed of, the Government offered a third series of nearly the same amount, but with the option reserved of making the interest six per cent in case specie payments were resumed. This sort of tinkering soon affected the receipts, and they have now subsided to an average of about a million per day. Of course with such movements as these going on, other influences are

scarcely discernable. Yet, as in the end, the regular motion of the tides gradually overcomes the great upheavals occasioned by storms, so the movements of commerce are now gradually making themselves felt where lately nothing but the transactions of the Treasury had any effect whatever. Gold from a premium of 28¼ per cent on May 11th, has gradually made its way up to 38 on May 30th, and with an export movement in full tide may yet strike some level considerably higher. The Treasury, though, in the disposal it sees fit to make of its receipts, whether it pays them all to the soldiers and other Government creditors, or uses them in curtailing the currency, has everything in its own hands, and for some time to come may make the price of gold whatever it pleases.

If we are not mistaken, however, Mr. McCULLOCH belongs to the *laisser faire* school of political economists. Should this surmise be true, Treasury interferences with the National course of events will be less and less frequent in future.

The money market has been kept pretty easy by the Treasury during the pendency of the enormous operations we have noted, the price of money on call having been from 5 to 6 per cent; but towards the end of the month a sharp contraction occurred consequent upon the partial withdrawal of the Treasury deposits in the National Banks, and the rate stands at the end of the month at 6 to 7 per cent.

The prices of general merchandise have not fallen in harmony with gold. This is partially owing to the fact that sufficient time has not yet elapsed for the full effect of the fall, which occurred in April, to be felt; partly because taxes on production have not yet been equalized, and must, in any event, bear heavily on all classes; and partly to the still uncertain condition of the currency.

The following comparative table of the prices of several leading articles of general merchandise will exhibit the present state of the markets:

	March 28.	April 29.	May 27.
Ashes, pots, 1st sort.....	Nominal.	$8 00 a 8 12½	$7 25 a 7 62
Coffee, Rio, prime.....	20½a 21	a 21½	a 23½
Cotton, mid., fair, upland....	55 a 58	a 58	a 54
Flour, State, superfine	9 20 a 9 40	6 90 a 7 10	6 10 a 6 50
Hay, N. R. shipping.....	1 60 a	1 00 a 1 05	1 .. a 1 05
Nails, cut.....	a 7 50	7 00 a	5 75 a 6 ..
Petroleum,crude 40a47 gravity	33 a	39 a 40	.. a 35
Pork, prime mess, new.....	26 00 a 27 00	26 50 a 27 50	17 00 a 18 00
Tobacco, Kentucky lugs.....	8 a 10	8 a 10	6 a 9
Leather, oak (Sl.) light.....	47 a 51	44 a 46	44 a 46
Lumber, spruce, Eastern.....	Nominal.	22 a 25	14 a 18
Corn, white Southern.....	1 70 a 1 80	1 30 a 1 40	0 80 a 0 90
Wheat, white Genessee	2 25 a 2 40	2 20 a 2 35	2 00 a 2 20
Sheetings, brown, standard...	25 a	31 a 32½	37

The Board of Trade of Detroit has issued invitations to the Boards of Trade all over the United States and British America to meet together, in general convention, at Detroit, on the second Tuesday in July. This invitation will be found in another part of this number. The main object of the call is undoubtedly to influence Congress to reconsider its late unwise recession of the Reciprocity Treaty with the British American Provinces.

The following table shows the import of dry goods into the port for the past month:

VALUE OF DRY GOODS ENTERED FOR CONSUMPTION IN MAY, 1865.

	1864.	1865.
May 4	$876,758	$623,337
" 11	880,827	659,797
" 18	508,925	556,925
" 25	517,762	528,882
Total	$2,784,272	$2,368,951

WITHDRAWN FROM WAREHOUSE.

May 4	$529,328	$586,327
" 11	918,076	1,260,631
" 18	914,943	775,803
" 25	582,540	695,867
Total	$2,944,887	$3,318,628

ENTERED FOR WAREHOUSING.

May 4	$101,374	$590,657
" 11	793,617	76,842
" 18	516,187	93,268
" 25	734,465	368,503
Total	$2,143,643	$1,129,270

	1864.	1865.
Total entered for consumption	$2,784,272	$2,368,951
Add withdrawn from warehouse	2,944,887	3,318,628
Total thrown on the market	$5,729,159	$5,687,579
Total entered for warehousing	$2,145,643	$1,129,270
Add entered for consumption	2,784,272	2,368,951
Total entered at the port	$4,929,915	$3,498,221

The specie movement has been as follows:

SPECIE RECEIPTS, SHIPMENTS, &c.

	1864.		1865.			
	Received.	Exported.	Received from California.	Received Foreign.	Exported.	Gold in Bank.
Jan. 2	$254,239	$590,262	$1,147,745	.....	$594,353	$20,152,893
" 9	.....	1,216,204	383,519	$8,171	1,046,251	21,357,603
" 16	279,801	1,985,057	511,088	25,517	329,833	20,211,569
" 23	365,608	1,000,000	.....	5,125	997,136	18,896,085
" 30	324,864	668,747	.....	12,605	.....	.....
Feb. 6	.....	662,616	631,760	19,952	478,777	19,682,308
" 13	363,198	1,219,808	264,822	18,739	370,753	20,297,346
" 20	.....	325,632	448,132	22,900	100,882	20,682,319
" 27	407,067	531,700	794,149	38,696	148,536	20,092,388
March 4	512,358	629,803	.....	48,317	33,393	19,830,182
" 11	.....	465,920	431,163	75,993	181,648	20,737,838
" 18	281,804	83,881	.....	55,221	108,157	22,256,596
" 25	375,101	273,900	.....	50,000	164,440	22,006,524
April 1	273,429	168,912	.....	20,978	79,308	20,584,663
" 8	302,344	345,471	1,463,437	60,769	400,735	20,045,976
" 15	269,522	1,002,384	632,521	31,945	188,900	19,533,734
" 22	.....	3,226,000	.....	71,229	83,922	19,122,288
" 29	282 376	1,271,836	.....	.....	217,192	19,049,913
May 6	282,776	1,174,241	664,281	.....	587,848	20,088,399
" 13	.....	2,452,668	225,876	.....	649,885	23,553,231
" 20	383,423	1,884,195	367,993	.....	3,044,258	23,194,402
" 27	.....	580,820	.....	.....	2,079,215	23,063,929

The rates of exchange have ruled as follows:

RATES OF EXCHANGE IN GOLD.

	London, 60 days.	Paris, 60 days.	Amsterdam.	Frankfort.	Hamburg.	Berlin.
Jan. 7	108¼ a 109⅛	5.18⅛ a 5.15	41⅛ a 41⅛	41⅛ a 41⅛	36⅛ a 36⅜	72 a 72⅛
" 14	108¼ a 109⅛	5.18⅛ a 5.13⅛	41⅛ a 41⅛	41 a 41⅛	36⅛ a 36⅛	72⅛ a 72⅛
" 21	108¼ a 109⅛	5.18⅛ a 5.13⅛	41⅛ a 41⅛	41⅛ a 41⅛	36⅛ a 36⅛	73 a 72⅛
" 28	108¼ a 109⅛	5.20 a 5.13⅛	41 a 41⅛	41 a 41⅛	36⅛ a 36⅛	72 a 72⅛
Feb. 4	108 a 109⅛	5.21½ a 5.15	41 a 41⅛	41 a 41⅛	36 a 36⅛	71⅛ a 72
" 11	108⅛ a 109	5 23⅛ a 5.15	40⅛ a 41⅛	40⅛ a 41⅛	35⅛ a 36⅛	71⅛ a 72⅛
" 18	107 a 108⅛	5.27½ a 5.20	40⅛ a 41⅛	40⅛ a 41	35⅛ a 36⅛	71⅛ a 72
" 25	108 a 108⅛	5.27½ a 5.18⅛	40⅛ a 40⅛	40⅛ a 41	35⅛ a 36⅛	71⅛ a 72
Mch. 4	108 a 108⅛	5.27½ a 5.21½	40⅛ a 41⅛	40⅛ a 40⅞	36⅛ a 36⅛	71⅛ a 71⅛
" 11	107⅛ a 108⅛	5.27½ a 5.22½	40½ a 41⅛	40⅛ a 40⅛	35⅛ a 36⅛	70⅛ a 71⅛
" 18	109⅛ a 109⅛	5 21½ a 5.13⅛	41 a 41⅛	41 a 41⅛	36 a 36⅛	71⅛ a 72
" 25	109 a 109⅛	5 20 a 5.15	41 a 41⅛	40⅛ a 41⅛	36 a 36⅛	71⅛ a 72
April 1	109⅛ a 109⅛	5.20 a 5.15	40⅛ a 41⅛	40⅛ a 41	36 a 36⅛	71⅛ a 71⅛
" 8	108⅛ a 109⅛	5.22½ a 5.15	40⅛ a 41⅛	40⅛ a 41⅞	35⅛ a 36⅛	72⅛ a 71⅛
" 15	108⅞ a 109⅛	5.22½ a 5.16⅛	40⅛ a 41⅛	40⅛ a 41	35⅛ a 36⅛	72 a 71⅛
" 22	109⅛ a 109⅛	5.20 a 5.12½	41 a 41⅛	40⅛ a 41⅛	36⅛ a 36⅛	71⅛ a 72⅛
" 29	109 a 109⅛	5.20 a 5.12½	41 a 41⅛	40⅛ a 41⅛	36 a 36⅛	71⅛ a 72
May 5	108⅛ a 109⅛	5 18⅛ a 5.13⅛	41⅛ a 41⅛	41 a 41⅛	36⅛ a 36⅛	71⅛ a 72⅛
" 12	108⅛ a 109⅛	5.16⅛ a 5.12½	41⅛ a 41⅛	41⅛ a 41⅛	36⅛ a 36⅛	72⅛ a 72⅛
" 19	108⅛ a 109⅛	5.17½ a 5.12½	41⅛ a 41⅛	41 a 41⅛	36⅛ a 36⅛	72 a 72⅛
" 26	108⅛ a 109⅛	5.16⅛ a 5.12½	41⅛ a 41⅛	41⅛ a 41⅛	36⅛ a 36⅞	72⅛ a 72⅛

PRICES OF UNITED STATES PAPER.

	6's, 1881. Reg.	6's, 1881. Coup.	5-20's. Reg.	5-20's. Coup.	10-40's.	1 year certif.	Gold price.
Jan. 7,....	111⅛	111⅛	100	109	102	96⅛	227 a 227⅛
" 14,....	112⅛	112⅛	102	110	102⅛	98	217⅛ a 221
" 21,....	111	110	99	108⅛	101⅛	97⅛	197⅛ a 206
" 28,....	110⅛	109⅛	98⅛	108⅞	100⅞	98	218⅛ a 220
Feb. 4,....	109⅛	109⅛	99⅛	109⅛	101⅛	97⅞	209 a 214⅛
" 11,....	110⅛	110⅛	102	109⅞	102⅛	98⅛	204⅛ a 209
" 18,....	111⅛	111⅛	103	111⅛	102⅛	98⅛	204 a 205⅛
" 25,....	111⅛	111	102	111⅛	102⅛	98⅛	198, a 199⅛
March 1....	111	110⅛	105	110⅛	102⅛	98⅛	199⅛ a 200⅛
" 8,....	111	111⅛	....	110⅛	97⅛	98⅛	196⅛ a 197⅛
" 15,....	110	110	100	109⅛	97	98⅛	174⅛ a 177⅛
" 22,....	105	105	....	105	91⅛	97	156⅛ a 158⅛
" 29,....	105	105	....	105	91⅛	97	151⅛ a 152⅛
April 5,....	106⅛	....	104⅛	107⅛	92	98	148 a 153⅛
" 12,....	107⅛	107⅛	102⅛	108⅛	93⅛	93⅛	145⅛ a 146⅛
" 19,....	....	....	...	....	...	...	No quotations.*
" 26,....	109	108⅞	102⅛	108⅛	97	99⅛	147⅛ a 149
May 3, ...	110⅛	110	105	105⅛	97	..	141⅛ a 141⅞
" 10,....	110⅛	110	105	105⅛	96⅛	99⅛	131⅛ a 135⅛
" 17,....	109⅛	109	103	103⅞	95	99	124⅛ a 131⅛
" 24,....	110	109⅛	103⅛	103⅛	95	99⅛	132⅛ a 135⅛

PRICES OF RAILWAY SHARES.

	March 29.	April 3.	April 27.	May 29.
New York Central	84	101⅛	108	89
Hudson River	96	107	115⅛	97
Erie	45	69⅛	85⅛	72⅛
Reading	89⅛	...	110⅛	91⅛
Mich. So. and N. I.	50	62	74	58
Illinois Central	93⅛	112⅛	117⅛	117
Cleveland and Pittsburg	52	74	83⅛	61
Chicago and N. W.	21⅛	31⅛	34	21⅛
Chicago and R. I.	85⅛	96⅛	105	93⅛
Fort Wayne	76⅛	93⅛	103	92⅛

In the case of the United States *vs.* 1,756 shares of the capital stock of the Great Western Railroad Company, Judge NELSON of the United States Circuit Court rendered a most important decision touching the question of confiscation. The following is a summary:

In this case the shares in question, valued at half a million dollars, were seized and libelled by United States District Attorney SMITH. Their condemnation was claimed as being the property of LEROY M. WILEY, a resident of the South, and who, it was claimed, was an alien enemy. Mr. WILEY put in an answer and prepared to defend the claim. His answer was stricken out by Judge BETTS, on the ground that Mr. WILEY was an enemy, and therefore, had no standing in court, and the property was, therefore, declared forfeited to the United States. An appeal was taken to this court, and the plea was reversed, because, among other things, the property, being stock of an Illinois corporation, was not within the jurisdiction of a court of this district, and because Mr. WILEY, the claimant, even if an "*alien enemy*," had a right to be heard.

JOURNAL OF BANKING, CURRENCY, AND FINANCE.

SURRENDER OF KIRBY SMITH AND THE TRANS-MISSISSIPPI—EMIGRATION OF CAPITAL TO THE SOUTHWEST—GOVERNMENT INTERFERENCE WITH FINANCIAL MATTERS—CERTIFIED CHECKS, ARE THEY MONEY?—RETURNS OF THE BANKS OF NEW YORK—OF THE PHILADELPHIA BANKS—OF THE BANKS OF THE STATE OF NEW YORK—OF THE BOSTON BANKS—OF THE OHIO BANKS—OF THE NATIONAL BANKS—TREASURY CIRCULAR—ESTIMATE OF SPECIE ON DEPOSIT IN UNITED STATES—RETURNS OF BANKS OF ENGLAND AND FRANCE, ETC., ETC.

THE surrender of KIRBY SMITH and the organized insurgent forces west of the Mississippi, consumates the close of the war, and were the vexed questions of reconstruction, negro status, etc., disposed of, and a state of security inaugurated in those regions, nothing could prevent a large emigration of capital to the South and southwest for employment. Some time, however, will necessarily have to elapse before our old relations with these sections of the country can be re-established. Meanwhile a good deal of lawlessness will prevail, and capital will be frightened away. The Texans and Western Louisianians, too, owe considerable sums to Northern merchants, especially in Galveston, Houston, San Antonio, etc., and the latter will be apt to keep themselves on the alert for settlements. New credits, if given at all, will hardly exceed in the aggregate the amounts now due to the North; so that any new movement of capital from the Northern States into those regions, beyond exchanges of credits to and fro, is probably a remote occurrence.

Our greenback currency, though, must make its way there, and supplant the miserable stuff which the Confederate Government once imposed upon them; and to this extent must prevent its redundancy from being felt here. In view of the daily increasing volume of National Bank circulation, this question of redundant currency is destined never to leave its hold upon the interests of the people of

this country until those institutions have stood the test of a panic in United States stocks; and even then it will only be shelved until such a reform is effected in banking legislation, that Government shall have no more power to legislate on the subject of banks than it now has on the subject of insurance companies.

This tendency of our Government to interfere in these matters makes it neglect its most important function—that of the administration of justice. In no country in the world where people are so intelligent and so public-spirited, where, in former times, at least, political freedom was so jealously guarded, where material progress has such a brilliant record, is the rate of interest so high as it is in the United States. And this results solely from the notorious mal-administration of justice which prevails here. Not to speak of the arbitrary code which prevailed during the war, we have Lynch law in all the Western and Southern States, and sometimes within hail of the Circuit Courts in the most populous States. The laws for the collection of debt vary in every State; and are very bad in most of them. Suits, before civil justices even in this State, (where their jurisdiction extends to all cases involving $250 or under,) are decided more through good-fellowship, political affinity, or even worse motives, than by virtue of law and evidence. Suits against corporations are hardly ever to be won in any part of the country, except, perhaps, in New England and the rural parts of the Middle States. Indeed, the dispensation of justice is so wretched, that merchants and bankers are afraid to litigate.

If Government, then, instead of doctoring banking systems and printing bank notes, turned its attention to doctoring the laws, and printing the Statutes at Large, it would find much more useful and profitable employment.

The Commissioner of Internal Revenue has decided that certified checks are money, and has notified the Banks that the amount of these instruments issued by them shall be returned to the department to be taxed as a portion of their circulation. According to the letter of the law the Commissioner is right, for it includes all "certified checks calculated or intended to circulate, or to be used as money." But the writer of the law was evidently in a fog when he framed it, and Congress not on the alert when they passed it; for it is difficult to conceive wherein a certified check differs, in respect to its circulation or use as money, from a check which is not certified. The truth is, neither a check which is certified, nor one which is not certified, is intended to "circulate, or to be used as money," in the common acceptation of the term money. Nor are they. Generally but one and rarely more than two persons use any check before presenting it at Bank for redemption. Scientifically, checks are money; but so are promissary notes and book credits. In the meaning of the law, though, they are not money, and the Commissioner has decided wrongly. The evident intention of the law was to prevent any evasion of the tax on bank notes by the circulation of instruments which might be drawn in the form of certified checks, but which would really constitute circulating bank notes. This trick has, as yet, only been attempted by a Bank in New Brunswick anxious to circulate its paper in this country; but none of our State Banks have resorted to it; and their certified check system could only be disturbed through a most arbitrary construction of the law. But this question will probably be settled by all the State Banks going over to the national system.

The following are the returns of the New York City Banks during the past month:

NEW YORK CITY BANKS.

(*Capital, Jan.*, 1864, $69,494,577; *Jan.*, 1865, $69,658,787; *April*, $76,658,787.)

Date.	Loans.	Specie.	Legal tender.	Circulation.	Net Deposits.	Clearings.
Dec. 24,	$203,512,093	$20,600,441	$.....	$3,383,346	$153,805,909	$593,336,137
" 31,	199,444,969	19,662,211	.....	3,283,832	147,442,071	471,039,253
Jan. 7,	195,044,687	20,152,892	.....	3,183,526	147,821,891	535,055,671
" 14,	189,686,750	21,357,608	.....	3,074,029	148,931,299	538,780,683
" 21,	187,060,586	20,211,569	.....	2,979,851	146,068,855	611,194,907
" 28,	169,502,630	18,174,816	.....	2,906,194	143,842,230	656,828,378
Feb. 4,	185,639,790	19,682,308	.....	2,868,646	152,703,316	663,814,434
" 11,	185,515,904	20,297,346	.....	2,821,996	156,711,166	584,179,409
" 18,	186,365,126	20,682,319	.....	2,855,982	156,150,634	518,305,222
" 25,	183,534,735	20,092,378	.....	2,739,388	153,948,481	481,028,121
Mar. 4,	186,569,665	19,530,183	.....	2,720,666	153,009,583	511,361,337
" 11,	188,120,890	20,737,838	26,713,408	2,741,684	152,134,448	412,302,453
" 18,	211,486,651	22,256,596	33,645,014	4,662,505	174,479,367	635,736,233
" 25,	207,677,503	22,066,524	35,295,156	4,457,162	166,965,508	604,796,725
Apr. 1,	204,458,355	20,584,668	42,989,382	4,888,980	173,350,491	509,148,691
" 8,	204,153,839	20,045,976	46,424,957	4,773,528	174,850,185	488,653,634
" 15,	206,508,095	19,533,734	51,061,462	4,757,862	177,815,945	427,761,675
" 22,	204,728,195	19,122,288	57,954,937	4,700,210	184,244,899	272,740 215
" 29,	204,277,573	19,049,913	66,096,274	4,660,659	196,188,733	359,950,814
May 6,	213,172,277	20,088,899	66,253,849	4,886,937	200,466,735	503,899,215
" 13,	218,502,980	23,553,231	61,052,537	4,889,562	203,869,886	511,914,441
" 20,	219,810,780	23,194,402	55,625,517	5,032,944	203,854,725	510,767,355
" 27,	212,445,121	23,063,929	54,524,078	5,068,693	197,081,017	429,221,799

The deposit and discount lines are seen to have dropped six or seven millions since May 22d. This is due to the withdrawal of Government deposits in such of the institutions as are doing business under the National Banking Law.

The money market has, in consequence, rather tightened up. The rate of interest having advanced, within the last week of the month, from five per cent to 6 a 7 on call loans.

The following are the returns of the Philadelphia banks:

PHILADELPHIA BANKS.

(*Capital, Jan.*, 1863, $11,740,080; 1865, $13,315,720; *Feb.*, 1865, $14,485,450.)

Date. 1865.	Loans.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Legal tenders
Jan. 2,...	$48,059,403	$1,803,583	$2,793,463	$39,845,963	$14,524,175
" 9,...	49,250,629	1,781,108	2,978,085	41,001,803	15,297,223
" 16,...	49,833,799	1,750,669	3,228,785	43,121,208	17 003,905
" 23,...	49,755,716	1,792,891	3,606,051	40,166,513	15,939,593
" 30,...	50,056,584	1,778,266	4,010,192	59,822,860	15,572,993
Feb. 6,...	50,269,473	1,702,776	4,393,173	38,496,337	14,000,352
" 13,...	49,511,683	1,629,957	4,660,697	37,340,531	14,295,547
" 20,...	48,639,886	1,569,223	4,866,771	37,141,900	13,922,954
" 27,...	48,992,272	1,498,644	5,077,436	39,011,100	15,393,502
Mar. 6,...	49,228,540	1,389,264	5,446,021	38,391,622	15,200,287
" 13,...	49,297,223	1,422,736	5,906,791	38,655,903	15,487,335
" 20,...	48,976,280	1,323,274	5,609,276	38,673,804	15,796,753
" 27,...	50,255,294	1,350,968	5,786,660	39,117,258	16,866,146
April 4,...	50,268,729	1,344,223	5,893,626	38,316,847	17,087,645
" 11,...	50,226,821	1,249,282	6,133,397	39,866,445	17,312,697
" 17,...	50,810,519	1,236,333	6,232,343	41,187,764	17,991,294
" 24,...	50,819,031	1,223,798	6,313,889	42,591,060	19,188,676
May 8,...	51,172,347	1,297,558	6,430,742	45,158,284	19,576,916
" 16,...	52,678,146	1,286,404	6,447,961	47,695,971	20,309,8.6
" 23,...	52,978,259	1,261,618	6,585,003	44,831,378	20,919,610

The annexed quarterly statement of the Banks of the State of New York is from the Albany *Evening Journal:*

RESOURCES.

	Dec. 31, 1864.	March 25, 1865.
Loans and discounts	$196,649,246	$159,665,827
Overdrafts	866,154	709,265
Due from banks	22,916,031	18,628,244
Due from directors	9,226,712	8,182,724
Due from brokers	11,042,835	6,897,650
Real estate	8,142,807	7,070,085
Specie	20,239,286	19,490,280
Cash items	92,514,882	89,862,155
Stocks, promissory and U. States 7 3-10 notes and indebtedness certificates	120,459,776	92,038,059
Bonds and mortgages	4,073,797	3,710,775
Bills of solvent banks and U. S. demand notes.	20,261,810	27,957,014
Bills of suspended banks	2,643	2,718
Loss and expense account	2,260,786	1,208,900
Add for cents	877	827
Total	$488,388,125	$420,344,099

LIABILITIES.

Capital	$106,690,761	$90,492,828
Circulation	31,180,546	27,550,203
Profits	28,845,347	22,085,269
Due banks	45,205,682	36,211,772
Due individuals and corporations other than banks and depositors	2,107,764	1,141,628
Due Treasurer State of New York	3,144,210	3,547,917
Due depositors on demand	269,042,097	236,961,586
Due others not included in above heads	2,671,197	2,282,763
Add for cents	521	445
Total	$488,338,125	$420,274,411

Two hundred and eighty-nine banks reported; fourteen banks, which had organized as National Banks, prior to the 25th of March last, did not report. Up to and including the 15th inst., seventy eight banks of the two hundred and eighty-nine reporting, have given notice to the Bank Department of their intention to close their affairs as State Banks. It will be noticed, perhaps, that the liabilities in the above statement exceed the resources by a small amount. This is occasioned by two closing banks, which had also become National Banks, merely reporting the securities in hand in the Department and their outstanding circulation. The fourteen banks which did not report have securities, (according to the books of the Department,) deposited with the Superintendent amounting to $1,807,882, against which is charged—circulation, $1,740,633.

The following are the returns of the banks of Boston, except those which have reorganized under the National Law. They make no returns. Their circulation is, however, included in these figures. With the other National Banks, they number about thirty institutions:

BOSTON BANKS.

BOSTON BANKS. (*Capital, Jan.*, 1863, $38,231,700; *Jan.*, 1865, $22,350,000.)

Date. 1865.	Loans.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.
January 2.....	$46,312,701	$3,424,323	$7,766,888	$23,036,775
" 9.....	38,707,472	2,903,469	7,803,528	16,772,610
" 16.....	38,444,460	2,862,939	7 529,229	15,926,720
" 23.....	38,160,490	2,797,093	7,126,253	16,058,310
" 30.....	38,025,868	2,659,568	6,792,950	16,343,192
February 6.....	25,609,695	2,245,510	6,581,880	12,641,033
" 13.....	23,609,664	2,087,995	6,345,912	11,031,743
" 20.....	23,533,879	2,089,669	5,094,370	10,621,322
" 27.....	22,872,774	1 932,769	6,278,194	9,789,000
March 7.....	22,825,217	1,877,323	5,843,974	9,961,548
" 14.....	21,224,401	1,700,714	5,580,219	9,435,573
" 21.....	21,206,180	1,524,401	5,435,928	9,393,224
" 28. ...	20,952,000	1,426,700	5,279,700	8,958,800
April 3.....	20,749,643	1,385,954	5,099,538	9,264,451
" 10.....	19.047,885	1,258,019	5.898,609	9,036 604
" 17.....	19,222,460	1,178,336	4,738,295	9,185,149
May 23.....	5,929,000	610,000	3,612,000	3,021.000
" 30.....	5,726,428	626,584	2,975,173	2,731,794

From the wholesale change of State Banks into National Banks these returns now scarcely possess any value. The capital of the Banks of Boston is now reduced to $3,100,000 from $22,350,000 in January last. Very soon there will be no State banking institutions in the city.

Quarterly statement of the Banks of Ohio, exhibiting the condition of the several incorporated banking institutions of the State of Ohio, on the first Monday of May, 1865, as shown by their returns made, under oath, to the Auditor of State. The leading items compare with the last report, that of February 1 last, and the 1st of May, 1864, as follows:

	May 1, 1865.	Feb. 1, 1865.	May 1, 1864.
Specie.....	$369,690	$582,870	$1,370,804
Loans.....	5,527,160	8,294.302	11,456,954
Capital.....	2,692,800	3,608,650	4,640,825
Circulation	2,693,912	3,762,918	5,941,679
Individual deposits	7,324,093	8,754,887	11,167,217
Eastern deposits.....	1,577,508	1,375,522	2,648,462

The changes in the capital and run of individual deposits are, in great part, attributable to the transfers to the national system, and these are most prominent in the State Bank.

The following table exhibits the aggregate National Bank circulation:

NATIONAL BANKS.

Number, capital, and circulation quarterly to the end of 1864, and periodically to date in 1865.

Date.	Banks.	Capital.	Circulation.
October, 1863.....	94	$7,184,715	.....
January, 1864.....	137	14,522,721	$29,155
April, 1864.....	357	42,204,474	12,144,650
July, 1864.....	469	75,213,945	25,825,765
October, 1864.....	524	89,339,400	51,394,150
January, 1865.....	681	143,641,400	76,309,890
January 7, 1865.....	685	145,524,560	78,734,520
" 21, ...	736	169,099,296	88,058,200

February	4,	782	179,121,296	87,288,300
"	18,	815	186,041,786	93,666,380
March	4,	855	192,049,736	99,325,600
"	18,	908	202,944,486	104,750,540
April	1,	973	225,246,300	111,634,670
"	8,	993	232,064,150	114,524,000
"	22,	1,041	246,054,170	119,961,800
May	6,	1,116	261,954,170	126,380,330

The following circular has been issued by the Hon. FREEMAN CLARK, for the purpose of adjusting the circulation of the National Banks:

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, OFFICE OF COMPTROLLER OF THE CURRENCY, WASHINGTON, May 6, 1865

SIR: You are requested to make a statement, as indicated in the inclosed form, exhibiting—

First, The amount of your circulation as a State Bank outstanding, at the date of the conversion of your bank to the national system.

Second, The amount of such circulating notes outstanding May 15, 1865. You are also requested to specify, as a separate item, in your regular monthly report, the amount of State Bank circulation outstanding at the date of such statement. This information is necessary in order to determine the amount of national currency that may be issued to your Bank without exceeding the ratio prescribed by the amendment to section 21 of the currency act, passed March 3, 1865. In future it will be requisite, in order to avoid confusion or misunderstanding, to send with each order for national currency, a statement of the amount of notes of your old Bank outstanding at the date of the order.

F. CLARK, Comptroller of Currency.

The following is the estimated stock of gold on deposit in the various banking institutions in the city:

New York banks and Sub Treasury on May 1	$39,897,087
Deduct for exports about	6,500,000
Balance	$33,397,187
Specie in Boston banks	2,500,000
Specie in Philadelphia banks	1,285,000
Specie in Wisconsin banks	1,300,000
Specie in Illinois banks	1,800,000
Specie in other banks in the loyal States	5,900,000
Total	$46,182,187

The following are the returns of the Bank of England:

THE BANK OF ENGLAND RETURNS (IN POUNDS STERLING).

Date. 1865.	Circulation.	Public Deposits.	Private Deposits.	Securities.	Coin and Bullion.	Rate of Discount.
Dec. 7,...	20,118,116	6,468,544	12,666,764	28,726,674	13,840,691	7 per ct.
" 14,...	19,669,832	7,161,719	12,267,474	28,301,608	14,122,711	6 "
" 21,...	19,669,007	7,694,816	12,927,807	29,326,027	14,307,760	6 "
" 28,...	19,810,455	8,601,125	13,040,643	30,708,083	14,100,974	6 "
Jan. 4,...	21,007,215	8,500,269	13,874,977	32,832,904	13,938,592	6 "
" 11,...	21,012,778	4,445,535	16,174,166	30,957,880	14,097,390	5½ "
" 18,...	21,223,648	4,186,614	14,658,015	29,292,273	14,168,227	5½ "
" 25,...	20,614,794	4,836,799	14,553,933	29,173,458	14,317,215	5 "

Feb.	1,...	20,998,478	5,541,452	14,447,994	30,040,983	14,461,224	5 "
"	8,...	20,743,805	6,252,892	13,814,063	29,908,102	14,511,611	5 "
"	15,...	20,899,763	6,572,512	13,969,659	30,007,199	14,553,871	5 "
"	22,...	20,101,978	6,665,364	14,140,885	29,910,491	14,600,233	4½ "
Mar.	1,...	20,381,080	6,854,409	14,158,331	30,424,108	14,801,267	4½ "
"	8,...	20,281,455	7,677,728	13,904,702	30,949,096	14,758,607	4½ "
"	15,...	20,095,563	8,348,481	13,785,825	31,204,694	14,882,285	4½ "
"	22,...	20,028,891	10,198,989	13,551,794	32,384,622	15,308,636	4½ "
"	29,...	20,388,744	9,889,430	13,478,242	32,271,054	15,358,999	4 "
April	5,...	21,352,503	9,331,615	14,172,353	32,723,269	15,255,433	4 "
"	12,...	21,750,643	5,826,354	15,414,509	31,226,403	14,987,379	4 "
"	19,...	21,428,519	6,020,989	14,700,220	30,358,910	14,974,010	4 "
"	26, ..	21,438,377	6,298,382	13,965,270	30,139,409	14,754,795	4 "
May	3,...	22,072,011	6,712,465	14,059,280	31,356,348	14,679,974	4½ "
"	10,...	21,701,380	7,349,114	13,760,032	31,149,978	14,862,102	4½ "

The following are the returns of the Bank of France:

BANK OF FRANCE.

		Loans.	Cash and Bullion.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Interest.
December	8	fr.566,921,053	fr.355,640,597	fr.722,291,475	fr.178,968,028	5
"	15	586,521,733	351,562,024	739,383,125	161,270,492	5
"	22	561,603,376	364,008,378	721,487,475	153,193,515	4½
"	29	597,157,830	359,969,767	726,212,275	171,321,867	.
January	5	690,129,259	330,071,913	790,526,625	190,488,131	4½
"	12	677,690,909	314,771,593	806,325,675	153,188,384	4½
"	19	667,121,414	318,170,064	817,443,275	142,120,960	4½
"	26	642,779,237	322,119,477	808,283,925	139,123,008	4½
February	2	651,375,290	318,454,492	812,425,525	143,480,627	4½
"	9	636,303,905	339,240,543	805,966,575	153,039,752	4
"	16	604,140,057	354,573,163	801,601,175	139 995,788	4
"	23	584,895,098	371,630,873	785,025,125	150,235,834	4
March	2	569,812,574	381,455,854	772,377,175	192,866,298	4
"	9	544,867,920	410,774,986	773,243,825	166,985,971	3½
"	16	514,175,658	424,981,230	777,523,125	153,467,097	3½
"	23	509,473,256	445,864,708	774,556,625	148,899,173	3½
"	30	533,202,250	456,899,812	764,783,125	158,286,600	3½
April	6	520,398,578	454,945,361	786,434,775	167,028,900	3½
"	13	522,800,231	432,776,299	806,557,975	130,834,687	3½
"	20	533,509,141	430,925,270	811,751,175	132,941,333	3½
"	27	532,804,786	422,621,703	808,818,275	151,124,075	3½
May	4	541,445,768	451,698,249	812,077,975	172,371,532	3½
"	11	523,453,076	460,963,977	817,660,875	168,213,664	3½

The Bank of France returns, though favorable in a purely banking point of view, are unfavorable to commerce. They show a constant accretion of coin and bullion, a heaping up of deposits, and a falling off in loans.

STATISTICS OF TRADE AND COMMERCE.

COMMERCE OF THE SANDWICH ISLANDS.

THE annual commercial statistics, prepared by the Collector General of Customs, show that the commerce of the Sandwich Islands has made an enormous stride during the year 1864, having increased about *fifty* per cent. in the foreign imports and *sixty* per cent. in the exports over the previous year. This increase is mainly attributable to the rapid and extraordinary development of the *sugar interests*. It will be remembered that in the November number of last year of the *Merchant's Magazine*, we gave a very able paper on "The Sandwich Islands and their Sugar Crop," showing that there was no reason why the Hawaiian group should not assume in the Pacific Ocean the same relative position to the markets of the Western coast of America, which Cuba bears to those of the Eastern, and Mauritius to Great Britain. We now see that under the stimulus of high prices decided progress is being made, and with fertile soil, cheap land, labor at moderate prices, and a ready sale, we trust that we may be able another year to record even greater progress. The following table, prepared by the editor of the Honolulu *Commercial Advertiser*, will show the comparative exports of sugar and other principal articles the past three years:

EXPORTS OF LEADING ARTICLES FROM SANDWICH ISLANDS.

	1862.	1863.	1864.
Sugar, lbs	3,005,603	5,292,121	10,414,441
Molasses, galls	113,977	89,764	331,922
Rice, lbs	111,008	128,451	319,335
Paddy, lbs	801,699	598,291	105,320
Hides, lbs	582,758	477,422	355,651
Goat skins	53,076	43,646	32,333
Coffee, lbs	146,463	133,171	50,033
Cotton, lbs	None.	3,122	2,518
Pulu, lbs	738,064	425,081	643,437
Tallow, lbs	242,942	282,640	189,700
Fungus, lbs	301,417	279,158	368,335
Wool, lbs	119,927	233,163	196,667

From the above it will be seen that the exports of sugar have doubled the past year, and the total crop, for 1864, is estimated at from eleven to twelve million pounds. The coming year it is thought that it will reach as high as twenty million pounds. Molasses also shows a gain. The cultivation of cotton, however, does not appear to have succeeded. Rice from the Sandwich Islands always commands a high price in California, and, in fact, in all foreign markets it is acknowledged as equal to any offered for sale; the cultivation of it, therefore, must, we think, increase.

The total value of exports, imports, &c., the past three years, are given in the *Commercial Advertiser* of Honolulu, as follows. The figures for previous years

may be found in the April number, 1864, of the *Merchant's Magazine*, page 321, (Vol. 50, page 321).

COMMERCE OF SANDWICH ISLANDS.

Year.	Total Imports.	Total Exports.	Domestic Produce Exported.	Foreign Merchandize Re-exported.	Total Custom House Receipts.
1864..	$1,712,241 61	$1,662,181 49	$1,113,328 81	$548,852 66	$159,116 72
1863..	1,175,493 25	1,025,852 74	744,413 54	281,439 20	122,752 63
1862..	998,289 67	838,424 61	586,541 87	251,882 74	107,490 42

Year.	Oil and Bone Transhipped. Galls. Sperm.	Galls. Whale.	Lbs. Bone.	Number National Vessels.	Merchant Vessels. No.	Tonnage.	Number Entries Whalers	Gallons Spirits Consumed
1864..	33,860	608,502	339,331	9	116	75,339	140	10,237
1863..	56,687	675,344	337,043	7	88	42,080	102	7,362
1862..	12,522	460,407	193,920	7	113	48,637	73	6,940

The figures giving the number of Custom House entries of whalers, at various ports, include all the entries at different ports of any and all whalers. Some of the vessels enter at several different ports during the year, and each entry, is counted in making up the above total. The actual number of different whalers arriving during the Spring of 1864, was fifty vessels, and during the Fall was fifty-seven, making a total of one hundred and seven.

MICHIGAN CENSUS RETURNS OF 1864.

POPULATION AND PRODUCTIONS.

THE State census of Michigan for 1864 is just published, and we are indebted to the Hon. GEO. H. HOUSE, Deputy-Secretary of State, for a copy of the report. There is in population a gain of 54,632 since 1860, the returns for 1860 giving the number at 749,113, and those for 1864 at 803,745; but whether the returns for 1864 include the soldiers now in the army, the published volume does not state.

We give below a table showing the production of grain and wool of each country according to the census of 1864, and the population in 1854, 1860, and 1864:

Counties.	Population. 1864.	1860.	1854.	No. bushels of wheat raised. 1863.	No. bushels of all other kinds grain raised. 1863.	No. lbs. of wool sheared. 1864.
Allegan.....	18,831	16,089	7,804	210,464	79,882	65,515
Alpena.....	674	290	New	.....	.....	.....
Antrim	382	179	Not Or	676	268	.....
Barry	14,483	14,020	7,821	272,306	88,127	130,719
Bay	5,807	3,164	....	1,291	1,591	3[illegible]
Berrien.....	25,856	22,323	13,847	341,363	110,657	53,121
Branch	22,458	20,410	15,724	407,949	69,057	259,917
Calhoun.....	30,488	31,409	22,768	835,583	119,359	448,459
Cass.....	17,776	17,720	13,124	397,741	110,278	114,827
Cheboygan.....	483	517	272	1,261	1,657	.....
Chippewa.....	1,158	1,603	1,962	1,081	4,204	4,980
Clinton	14,739	13,926	7,926	98,903	117,482	123,931

Delta.....	561	1,172	New	15	1,900	.....
Eaton	16,497	15,895	10,965	165,454	108,019	202,488
Emmet.....	1,325	1,149	4,977	750	1,677	8
Genesee	22,776	22,600	15,676	117,826	180,665	289,018
Grand Traverse.	2,017	1,286	517	12,154	4,000	191
Gratiot	5,831	4,042	116	18,871	21,243	11,434
Hillsdale.....	27,324	25,876	19,188	479,869	111,318	366,628
Houghton	8,225	5,599	543	.....	2,470	.....
Huron	3,961	3.165	702	13,784	7,796	1,266
Ingham.....	17,128	17,521	11,222	181,302	110,058	206,540
Ionia.....	17,984	16,682	10,727	214,562	103,443	189,689
Iosco	395	175	New	.....	.....	.....
Isabella.....	1,844	1,443	New	3,261	3,266	366
Jackson.....	25,905	26,671	21,855	733,558	101,912	596,117
Kalamazoo.	25,842	24,651	16,893	682,032	126,585	274,390
Kent.....	33,458	30,721	17,869	336,374	119,210	168,105
Keweenaw	5,180	3,653	2,873	80	900	44
Lapeer	15,247	14,754	9,704	168,715	120,551	176,113
Leelanaw	2,389	2,158	With	2,975	4.495	9
Lenawee.....	40,202	38,582	31,148	477,825	210,622	489,268
Livingston.....	16,174	16,851	14,185	290,734	120,346	358,586
Mackinac	1,335	1,938	1,373	30	685	.....
Macomb	22,404	22,843	18,114	220,732	275,163	300,588
Manistee.....	1,673	975	394	950	737	5
Manitou.....	....	1,043	New	....	...	.....
Marquette.....	3,724	2,821	....	....	6	263
Mason.....	844	831	....	572	1,512	500
Mecosta	1,382	880	New	4 877	7,688	304
Menominee	496	....	....	150	1,100	65
Midland.....	1,244	787	....	2,812	4,851	361
Monroe.....	22,221	21,596	18,122	179,606	132,764	124,596
Montcalm	5,619	3,968	2,060	56,525	19,248	18,653
Muskegon	5,812	3,947	1,355	16,678	10,077	2,175
Newaygo	3,481	2,760	979	19,317	15,596	2,741
Oakland	33,735	31,720	31,884	605,590	349,616	696,987
Oceana	2,379	1,816	....	7,459	2,611	187
Ontonagon	5,406	3,973	3,662	26	1,245	1
Ottawa	15,156	13,215	7,137	87,885	56,207	25,726
Saginaw	19,681	12,693	1,053	20,542	54,204	10,480
Sanilac	8,853	7,599	3,529	39,211	55,187	11,297
Shiawassee.....	13,465	12,359	7,419	109,301	76,236	134,188
St. Clair	27,591	26,750	16,897	102,207	211,464	68,730
St. Joseph.....	21,796	21,108	15,087	517,495	72,612	168,641
Tuscola.....	6,983	4,886	1,504	36,385	27,763	9,735
Van Buren.....	17,830	15,224	8,300	295,135	77,447	56,588
Washtenaw	34,048	35,659	28,836	714,909	259,054	397,509
Wayne	83,326	74,727	65,778	181,145	317,240	196,421
Unorg'd count's	1,195	330	....	1,319	1,398	19
Total.....	805,379	748,645	513,893	9,687,627	4,195,244	7,249,934

SALT.—PROGRESS IN THE MANUFACTURE.

The progress made in the manufacture of salt has been very rapid. This is made particularly evident when compared with the production of the Onondaga and Virginia Salt Springs.

The manufacture of salt was commenced at the Onondaga Salt Springs, in New York, June 20, 1797.

Salt made 1st year			5,095	barrels.
"	20th "	1816	69,733	"
"	40th "	1836	382,572	"
"	41st "	1837	433,455	"
"	66th "	1862	1,810,775	"

At Kanawha, Virginia, salt was manufactured as early as 1804.

Made in 1829	barrels	130,000
" 1860		700,000

SALT MADE IN SAGINAW, MICHIGAN.

1st year, 1860	barrels	4,000
2d " 1861		125,000
3d " 1862		243,000
4th " 1863		466,356
5th " 1864		529,073

The first investment in the salt business on Saginaw River, was by the East Saginaw Salt Manufacturing Company, at East Saginaw, in 1859. Present value of the salt investment in the Saginaw River district, nearly two and a-half million dollars—about the same value it was estimated all the salt works in the Onondaga district would hold at the end of the year 1860. [Report Supt. Onondaga Salt Springs for 1859, p. 15.]

Fifty years of progress in the manufacture of salt in the Kanawha Valley, did not equal the progress made in four years in Saginaw Valley; and forty-two years of progress at the Onondaga Salt Springs, the leading salt producing locality in the United States since 1797, did not equal the progress made there in five years.

SALT BUSINESS OF 1864.

The following is a summary of the salt business in Michigan for the year 1864:

Number of companies in operation	67
" of blocks	118
" of kettles	4,210
" of solar covers	4,949
" of acres land	9,475½
Investment	$2,269,500
Salt made in 1864 barrels	529,073
Men employed	892
Cords of wood consumed	109,348
Aggregate value of wood	$286,545
Value of barrels used	$238,074
Aggregate value of salt at shipping point	$1,190,410

The disproportion between the aggregate value of wood and the number of cords given, is explained by the fact that many works where mill fuel is used, have given the value without any estimate as to number of cords. As at present carried on, the demand for wood for salt manufacture in the Saginaw Valley will require each year the timber off from about 3,000 acres of land.

MANUFACTURES.

We are told in the published report that the State census has always been very incomplete in its returns with respect to its manufactures. Hundreds of

manufactories, of various classes, have either made but partial returns, or none whatever. Additional legislation, and a better appreciation of the importance of correct statistical information, is required to insure full and accurate returns hereafter. We give, however, the following table from the Report:

MANUFACTORIES NOT HEREAFTER ENUMERATED.

	Census of 1854.	Census of 1864.	Aggregate increase.	Per ct. increase.
Steam power	Not returned	303	.....	....
Water power	Not returned	139	.....	....
Persons employed	5,769	8,142	2,373	41.1
Capital invested	$2,832,965	$5,532,619	$2,899,654	84.7
Value of products past year	$3,604,712	$9,326,795	$5,722,083	158.7
FLOURING MILLS.				
Number of mills	254	398	144	56.7
Steam power	25	74	49	196.0
Water power	220	323	103	46.8
Runs of stone	618	975	357	57.8
Persons employed	604	1,040	436	72.2
Barrels of flour past year	998,503	1,319,923	321,420	32.2
Capital invested	$1,828,006	$2,840,925	$1,012,919	55.4
Value of products past year	3,567,978	$6,572,136	$3,004,158	84.2
SAW MILLS.				
Number of mills	922	1,073	151	16.4
Steam power	271	531	260	95.9
Water power	618	521	*95	*15.4
Persons employed	4,579	7,747	3,168	69.2
Feet of lumber sawed past year	392,920,714	621,477,904	228,557,190	58.2
Capital invested	$2,442,578	$6,109,070	$3,666,492	150.1
Value of products past year	$3,273,036	$8,363,550	$5,090,514	155.5
BREWERIES.				
Number of breweries	28	95	67	239.3
Barrels beer made preceding year	36,392	54,926	18,534	50.9
DISTILLERIES.				
Number of distilleries	13	11	*2	15 4
Gallons liquor made preced'g year	260,340	284,334	23,992	9.2
Gallons wine made preceding year	1,216	5,551	4,336	356.9
Barrels cider made preced'g year.	2,830	64,816	61,986	2186.7

* Decrease.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

DECISIONS OF THE COMMISSIONER OF INTERNAL REVENUE.

THE following are official copies of the decisions of the Commissioner of Internal Revenue the past month:

[Circular No. 29.]

REGULATIONS WITH REGARD TO THE DUTIES ON WINES AND MANUFACTURED LIQUORS.

Treasury Department, Office of Internal Revenue,
Washington, April 6, 1865.

The act of June 30, 1864. provides that on wine made of grapes a duty of 5 cents per gallon shall be levied, collected and paid.

On all other wines, or liquors known or denominated as wine, not made from currants, rhubarb, or berries, produced by being rectified or mixed with other spirits, or into which any matter whatever may be infused, to be sold as wine, or by any other name, and not otherwise provided for in this act, a duty of 50 cents per gallon.

Under these provisions, all wines made or produced from grapes, and sold, or removed for consumption or sale, or for delivery to others than agents of the manufacturers or producers, were liable to a duty, under the act of June 30, 1864, of five cents per gallon. All wines made from currants, rhubarb, or berries, without the mixture or infusion of any other spirits, were liable to an ad valorem duty of 5 per centum. All other wines, or liquors known or denominated as wine, whether sold under the name of "wine," or by any other name, were liable to a duty of fifty cents per gallon.

The same regulations for the return, assessment, and collection of the duties on manufactures in general, under the 94th section, were and are applicable to wines made dutiable under said section, and will be observed as though made specially in reference to such wines.

By the act of amendment of March 3, 1865, on and after the first day of April the duty on wine made of grapes will be 6 cents per gallon; on wine made from currants, rhubarb, or berries, &c., 6 per cent ad valorem; and on all other wines, &c., 60 cents per gallon.

Monthly returns will be required by the assessor from the manufacturer or producer of wines, whether the same are the product of the vintage and the garden, or made by any process of mixing, rectifying, or refining, and the taxes must be assessed thereon according to the above rates, and collectors will make the collection of all such duties so assessed upon wines, in all respects, as upon other manufactured products taxable under section 94.

In addition to the distilled spirits, wines, and imitations of wine, especially provided for and taxed under the 55th and 94th sections of the act of June 30, 1864, as amended by the act of March 3, 1865, there is another class of liquors manufactured and sold as imitations of Bourbon whiskey, brandy, gin, &c., for which the law has made no special provisions. These liquors are made from domestic whiskey after the same has been rectified, by leaching through tubs containing charcoal, or by redistillation, and afterwards reducing the proof of the pure spirits, and adding essences, flavoring extracts, and coloring matter. The leaching or redistillation of raw spirits in its ordinary state does not make the product liable to any additional excise tax; but every distiller, rectifier,

brewer, or other person or persons, who, by the processes named, or by any other processes, manufactures liquors for sale under the name of brandy, gin, rum, Bourbon, or any other assumed name, or fancy brand, is liable to pay thereon an ad valorem duty of 6 per centum, under the general provisions of the 94th section, as manufactures not otherwise provided for.

It will be the duty of the assessor to require every distiller, rectifier, brewer, or other person engaged in the manufacture or production of any spirituous liquors, or imitations as above, to make monthly returns in the same manner, and at the same time, as provided for other manufactures taxable under the 94th section.

If it is at any time ascertained that any articles of the character herein described have been heretofore manufactured and sold, or removed for consumption or sale, without being regularly returned for taxation, the assessor will take immediate steps for obtaining the proper returns, or assessing the same; and in case of neglect or refusal, or of fraudulent evasion, will assess the appropriate penalties.

JOSEPH J. LEWIS,
Commissioner.

[Circular No. 30.]

REGULATIONS FOR THE PURCHASE OF SUPPLIES FOR THE USE OF THE UNITED STATES, FREE OF TAX.

Treasury Department, Office of Internal Revenue,
Washington, April 7, 1865.

The following regulations, prescribed by the Secretary of the Treasury, are herewith published for the information of all officers of Internal Revenue.

JOSEPH J. LEWIS,
Commissioner.

Treasury Department, Washington, April 7, 1865.

REGULATIONS.

The seventeenth section of the act of March 3, 1865, provides that the privilege of purchasing supplies of goods imported from foreign countries for the use of the United States, duty free, which now does, or hereafter shall, exist by provision of law, shall be extended, under such regulations as the Secretary of the Treasury may prescribe, to all articles of domestic production which are subject to tax by the provisions of this act. Under this section the following regulations will be observed:

1. *Articles Stored in Bonded Warehouse.*—When any goods which are stored in bonded warehouse are purchased for the use of the United States, under a contract entered into subsequently to the first day of April, A. D. 1865, the officer purchasing the same will, in his official capacity, make a certificate setting forth the fact of such purchase and the date of the same, and embodying a descriptive schedule of the articles, in which they shall be described with sufficient minuteness to allow of their identification and to determine their quantity.

This certificate will be forwarded to the bureau or department on behalf of which the purchase is made; and if the head of such bureau or department shall approve the contract and request a remission of the tax, he will transmit the certificate to the Secretary of the Treasury, with a request for such remission of tax.

If the certificate is found to be in proper form and to set forth the quantity and description of the goods with sufficient clearness to allow of their identification, a permit will be issued for their removal from the warehouse and delivery

to the officer making the purchase. This permit will be delivered to the Collector of Internal Revenue having charge of the warehouse, and will be by him transmitted to the Office of Internal Revenue as his voucher for the cancellation of the warehouse bond under which the goods were stored.

2. *Articles not Stored in Bonded Warehouse.*—When any articles which are subject to an excise tax, and which are not stored in a bonded warehouse, are purchased for the use of the United States directly from the producer or manufacturer of such goods, under a contract entered into subsequently to the first day of April, A. D. 1865, the officer making such purchase will furnish to the manufacturer or producer a certificate similar to that required in the case of bonded articles, but setting forth in addition the price paid under the contract, and the fact that there was a mutual understanding at the time of making the contract that the goods were to be free of tax.

This certificate will be forwarded to the bureau or department on behalf of which the purchase is made; and if the head of such bureau or department shall approve the terms of the purchase, he will transmit the certificate to the Secretary of the Treasury, with a request for the remission of the tax.

If the certificate is found to be in proper form, and to set forth the quantity and description of the goods with sufficient clearness to allow of their identification, a permit will be issued for their delivery to the officer making the purchase without payment of duty. This permit will be accepted by the assessor of the district in which the goods were manufactured, in full discharge of any liability of the manufacturer to an excise tax on account of the manufacture and sale of the articles so purchased for the use of the United States, and in making any assessment against such manufacturer, he will omit the value and quantity of such goods.

H. McCULLOCH,
Secretary of the Treasury.

[Circular No. 31.]

REGULATIONS FOR THE INSPECTION OF TOBACCO, SNUFF AND CIGARS.

Treasury Department, Office of Internal Revenue,
Washington, April 21, 1865.

As it was found that stamps of a suitable character to be used on boxes and packages of cigars could not be conveniently provided prior to the first day of April, it was determined that the alternative mode of marking allowed by the statute should be adopted as a temporary measure. It is now ascertained with reasonable certainty that a sufficient supply of stamps calculated to answer the purposes intended can be had by the first day of June next. It is therefore deemed expedient to apprise revenue officers and manufacturers of cigars that from and after that date these revised regulations, prepared specially in reference to the use of stamps, but adapted to the requirements of the law relating to snuff and tobacco, will take effect, and the regulations heretofore issued, so far as they differ from these, or are inconsistent with them, are to be considered as rescinded. Until the first of June, however, the regulations of the thirtieth of March will continue to be observed.

Tobacco.

Section 91 of the act of June 30, 1864, as amended by the act of March 3, 1865, provides that all manufactured tobacco, snuff, or cigars, whether of domestic manufacture or imported, shall, before the same is used or removed for consumption, be inspected and weighed by an Inspector, who shall mark or affix a stamp upon the box or other package containing such tobacco, snuff or cigars in a manner to be prescribed by the Commissioner of Internal Revenue, denoting

the kind or form of tobacco, and the weight of such package, with the date of inspection and the name of the inspector.

1. By virtue of this section, plug, twist and all other kinds of manufactured tobacco, including cut and granulated tobacco, whether designed for chewing or smoking, snuff and all substitutes for such manufactured tobacco or snuff shall be inspected in the boxes, casks, barrels, bundles or packages in which they are intended to be sold or offered for sale by the manufacturer.

2. Tobacco twisted by hand or reduced from leaf into condition to be consumed without the use of any machine or instrument, and not pressed, sweetened or otherwise prepared will be subject to inspection in the same manner.

3. Where tobacco of any kind is placed in bond it must be presented to the inspector packed in such boxes, barrels or cases as will enable him to brand or mark each box, barrel, or case as required.

4. The inspector will mark with a stencil or branding iron on each box, cask, barrel, bundle or other package of tobacco or snuff inspected by him, the weight and kind of tobacco or snuff contained in each, with the date of the inspection and his name and official designation.

5 The inspector will keep an accurate account of all tobacco and snuff inspected by him, and on the first day of each month return to the assessor of his district a separate and distinct account of the weight and kind of all tobacco and snuff inspected by him during the preceding month, with the dates of such inspections and the names of the persons, firms or companies for whom the same were so inspected.

6 Any Inspector who shall knowingly put upon any box, cask or package, any false or fraudulent mark, is liable to a penalty of three hundred dollars for each box, cask or package so marked. And any person who shall attempt fraudulently to evade the payment of the tax by changing the mark, or who shall purchase or sell any empty box, cask or package, with the Inspector's marks thereon, or who shall fraudulently use the same so marked, shall be subject to a like penalty for each box, cask or package so purchased, sold or used, or upon which the mark was so changed.

Cigars and Cigarrettes.

7. All cigars manufactured, on removal from the place of manufacture, must be packed in boxes by the manufacturer, and all cigars imported must be so packed by the importer; provided that any manufacturer may avail himself of the privilege given him, by the late amendment of section 94, to have cigars counted by the assistant assessor or inspector, and to sell the same unpacked or in bulk in his presence.

8. The inspector will satisfy himself of the number of cigars in each box, and will attach to the box a stamp, or more than one if necessary, expressing in the aggregate the number of cigars and the tax payable thereon, and bearing also his name, official designation and date of inspection.

The requisition for marking the weight does not apply to domestic cigars, but only to those that are imported.

9. The inspector will keep an accurate account of the cigars inspected by him, and on the first day of each month return to the assessor of his district a separate and distinct account of the number of cigars inspected by him during the preceding month, the number of stamps used, the dates of inspections, and the names of the persons, firms or companies, severally for whom the same were so inspected.

10. Under the provisions of the amendatory act in relation to cigarrettes made of tobacco inclosed in a paper wrapper, it is evident that there can be none which can be "valued at not more than five dollars per hundred packages," inasmuch as they must be valued at least at the cost of the tax and making beyond the tax, which is itself five dollars per hundred packages. Cigarrettes therefore made of tobacco inclosed in a paper wrapper, are not subject to inspection as cigarrettes, but subject to duty at the rate of five per cent ad valorem. The

tobacco of which such cigarrettes are made, being a species of manufactured tobacco mentioned in the law, will however be necessarily inspected as manufactured tobacco, and the tax assessed at the rate of thirty five cents per pound.

The term cigarrette, originally the diminutive of cigars, must be confined strictly to its trade meaning which is descriptive of smoking tobacco cut and made fine and inclosed in a paper wrapper. Any so called cigarrette containing any tobacco other than smoking tobacco, cut and made fine or inclosed in any other than a paper wrapper, must be classed and treated as a cigar.

All cigars, cheroots, and cigarrettes, made wholly of tobacco or of any substitutes therefor, are required to be inspected. This will include cigarrettes properly so-called inclosed in tobacco wrappers, and all cigars and cheroots made of tobacco or of any substitutes for tobacco, whether made entirely of tobacco or some substitute therefor, or partly of tobacco and partly of such substitute.

Imported Tobacco, Snuff and Cigars.

11. Imported tobacco, snuff and cigars, are subject to the same rules and regulations relating to inspection, as the same denomination of articles of domestic manufacture, except that the weight of imported cigars is to be marked on the boxes or packages instead of the number.

Bonds of Inspectors.

12. Inspectors are required by the late amendatory act to give bond for the faithful performance of all the duties to which they may be assigned, and to return or account for all stamps which may be put in their hands.

The bonds of inspectors shall be taken by the collectors of the respective districts in such penalties as they may severally require, and with not less than two sureties each, to be approved by the collectors. The collectors shall certify to the sufficiency of the sureties, and transmit the bonds with their certificates to the Commissioner of Internal Revenue for his approval and custody. The Commissioner will, at any time, if he deems the bond of any inspector insufficient in amount or unsatisfactory in any other respect, require other or additional security. Blank bonds in proper form will be furnished by this office.

Fees of Inspectors.

13. The fees of inspectors are in all cases to be paid by the owner of the manufactured tobacco, snuff, or cigars.

They shall be as follows:

For inspection of cigars, twenty-five cents per thousand.

For inspection of tobacco, ten cents per hundred pounds.

For inspection of snuff, one cent for each ten pounds.

For the certificate of cigars sold without inspection, as provided by the amendment to section 94, ten cents per thousand.

For the examination and identification of tobacco received at a bonded warehouse under transportation bond, five cents per hundred pounds.

When this scale shall be found, in any district, to be excessive or inadequate, the scale will be modified upon a report of the circumstances to this office.

Re-Inspection.

14. All manufactured tobacco of any kind which shall be sold or pass out of the hands of the manufacturer, except into a bonded warehouse, without the inspection marks, is liable to seizure and forfeiture. The only exception is that cigars may be sold before inspection under the regulations for that purpose.

But a purchaser of tobacco after inspection may innocently repack the same for sale; although, under the law, the appearance of the tobacco in the market without the inspection marks, is *prima facia* evidence of fraud. In case of repacking, therefore, to avoid suspicion and trouble, such purchasers on application

to the assessor of the district, will be permitted to have such repacked tobacco re-inspected by an Inspector. The inspector shall receive the original boxes, casks, envelopes, or other packages, and destroy the marks or brands thereon; and shall brand or mark the new packages with the word "*re-inspected*," in addition to the words and figures above required; and shall return the amount to the assessor as "re inspected," and not as again taxable.

Stamps.

15. Stamps will be furnished of three denominations, for packages of twenty-five, one hundred, and five hundred cigars each, and representing duties of twenty-five cents, one dollar, and five dollars respectively.

It is supposed that each box will contain twenty-five cigars, or some multiple of that number, agreeably to the present trade custom. But as the inspector cannot control the manufacturer in this, if any manufacturer determine to pack such numbers as cannot be represented by the above stamps, on notice to this office stamps will be provided, and the *fees for inspection will be increased for such lots.*

16. Each Inspector will transmit to the Commissioner of Internal Revenue through the assessor of his district his application for stamps, setting forth his name, his post-office address, his collection district, and the number of each denomination of stamps required by him. This number ought not in general to exceed one month's supply. The application must be endorsed by the assessor of the district, to whom the stamps will thereupon be sent, if the application is approved by the Commissioner. The assessor will deliver them to the inspector, taking his receipt for them in duplicate, one of which he will transmit to this office.

17. If at any time, when an inspector presents his application for a supply of stamps, the assessor shall be of opinion that some other inspector in his district holds more stamps than are needed by him, he will endorse upon such application an order for the transfer of a designated number of stamps; and the inspector receiving such stamps will give a receipt in duplicate in the same manner as provided above, and such receipt will be a sufficient voucher for the inspector delivering such stamps in the settlement of his account.

19. Each of the stamps furnished will bear imprinted upon it a series of months and days, in such manner that the inspector, by a stroke of his brush or pen, under any date, may indicate that as the date of inspection.

Inspectors and Assessors.

20. It will be seen by the foregoing, that it becomes important that assessors and inspectors shall be particularly vigilant that the whole product of each manufactory be returned and accounted for, and that care be exercised in the use and application of stamps, which must also be accounted for.

21. Section 12 of the amendatory act provides that any person required by law to be licensed as a manufacturer of tobacco, snuff or cigars, shall, before said license is issued, give a bond to the United States in such sum as shall be required by the Collector, with one or more sureties, to be approved by the Collector. The amount of such bond should not, in any case, be less than twice the estimated monthly tax to which such manufacturer will be liable. Such bond will be conditioned that the manufacturer will comply with all the requirements of law in regard to any persons, firms, companies or corporations, engaged in the manufacture of tobacco, snuff, or cigars; that he will not manufacture or employ others to manufacture tobacco, snuff, or cigars, without first obtaining the requisite permit therefor; that he will not engage in any attempt by himself or by collusion with others to defraud the government of any duty or tax on any manufacture of tobacco, snuff, or cigars; that he will render truly and correctly all the returns, statements, and inventories prescribed for manufacturers of tobacco, snuff, and cigars, and will pay to the Collector of the district all the duty or

taxes which may or should be assessed and due on any tobacco, snuff, or cigars, so manufactured, and that he will not knowingly sell, purchase, or receive for sale any such tobacco, snuff, or cigars, which has not been inspected, branded, or stamped as required by law, or upon which the tax has not been paid. Collectors will require this bond to be given before any license shall hereafter be issued, and it will be the duty of the manufacturer to prepare and furnish the bond. Forms of such bond will be furnished by this office.

JOSEPH J. LEWIS,
Commissioner.

[No. 153.]

Treasury Department, Office of Internal Revenue,
Washington, April 21, 1865.

DECISION WITH REFERENCE TO THE TAX ON IRON, COPPER, LEAD, SPELTER AND BRASS, AND ARTICLES MANUFACTURED THEREFROM.

Under the several clauses of the 94th section of the act of June 30, 1864, as amended by the act of March 3, 1865, the following rates of duty are imposed on iron, copper, lead, spelter and brass in the different states hereinafter named, accordingly as each metal at different stages is wrought from material which has been previously taxed, or from material on which no tax has been paid.

Whenever a manufacturer reduces iron or other metal from the ore, or advances it from one of the primary forms to a more advanced state, and afterwards uses or consumes the same in the production of manufactured articles, he is liable to pay the same tax thereon as if he removed it for sale.

Applying these provisions to the different metals in question, and the manufactures therefrom, we obtain the following schedule of rates:—

1. Pig-Iron, $2 40.
2. Blooms, slabs and loops from the ore, $3 60.
3. Railroad Iron, $3 60.
4. Do. do., re-rolled, $2 40.
5. Bars, or Rods, $3 60.
   Band, hoop, and sheet, not thinner than No. 18 wire gauge, and plate not less than one-eighth of an inch in thickness, $3 60.
6. Band, hoop, and sheet, thinner than No. 18, and plate less than one-eighth of an inch, $6 00.
   Do. do., from material taxed under No. 5, $2 40.
   Cut nails and spikes made from plate taxed under No. 5 or 6, $2 40.
   [If the manufacturer of the nails or spikes makes the plate from which the nails or spikes are cut, such plate will be taxed under No. 5 or 6, in accordance with the proviso to section 93.]
   Cut nails and spikes made from plate which has not been taxed under No. 5 or 6, $6 00.
   [Axe polls are subject to the same rates of duty and the same provisions as cut nails and spikes.]
7. Castings for bridges or other permanent structures, $3 60.
8. Stoves, and hollow ware, and castings, exceeding ten per cent, $3 60.
9. Rivets exceeding one-fourth of an inch, nuts and washers not less than two ounces each, and bolts exceeding five-sixteenths of an inch, $6 00.
   Rivets, nuts, washers and bolts made from iron taxed under No. 5 or 6, $2 40.
10. Railroad chairs, and railroad, boat, and ship spikes and tubes made from wrought iron, $6 00.
11. Axle bars, or rough forgings for car and wagon axles, car tire, shafting, cranks, anchors, &c., &c., made of blooms, slabs or loops, or of scrap iron, are taxable as bar iron under No. 5.

12. Finished car and wagon axles, car tire, and all manufactured articles from forgings as above, boilers of all kinds, water tanks, sugar tanks, oil stills, shafting, gearing, iron railings, gates, fences, furniture, statuary, and all other manufactures of iron not above enumerated or otherwise provided for, are to be taxed at the rate of six per cent ad valorem.
13. Wrought nails, including annealed nails, finishing nails, tacks, brads, and horse-shoe nails, wrought by hand or machinery, are liable to a duty of six per cent ad valorem.
14. Castings of iron less than ten pounds in weight, and malleable iron castings of all weights, are taxable as manufactures not otherwise provided for, at the rate of six per cent ad valorem.
15. Ingots, pigs, or bars of copper, lead or spelter, 3 6-10 per cent.
    Do. do. of brass made from taxed material, on increased value, 3 6-10 per cent.
    Do. do, do untaxed material, 3 6-10 per cent.
16. Rolled brass, rolled copper, yellow sheathing metal in rods or sheets, copper, zinc and brass nails or rivets, and shot, sheet lead, and lead pipes, made from copper, lead, spelter or brass, upon which a duty has been assessed and paid in the form of ingots, pigs or brass, 3 6-10 per cent.
    Do. do. made from copper, lead, spelter, upon which no duty has been assessed and paid in the form of ingots, pigs or bars, 6 per cent.
17. Zinc or spelter rolled from ingots, pigs or bars, 6 per cent.
18. Castings of copper, spelter, or brass, or of mixtures, or fusions of these metals, are liable, as manufactures not otherwise provided for, to an ad valorem duty of 6 per cent.
19. The law imposes a tax on the finished hull of a ship, steamboat, or other vessel, including cabins, inner and upper works, as a unit or entirety; and in like manner upon engines, locomotives, cars, carriages, and other articles. This does not, however, exempt iron and other materials, castings exceeding ten pounds in weight, which the law regards as a condition of iron, or nails, spikes, rivets, bolts, nuts, washers, spindles, screws, tubes, pipes, springs, axles, tires, cranks, shafts, boilers, &c., &c., which are manufactures of iron or other material, from their appropriate duties, when the same are made and used or consumed by the builder, manufacturer, or producer of any ship, engine, locomotive, car, carriage, or other article. The only exception to this rule is in the case of boilers for engines, for which the law specially provides, that when boilers shall have been once assessed and a duty paid thereon, the amount so paid shall be deducted from the duties on the finished engine.

[Special No. 11.]

RELATING TO THE SALE OF PLAYING CARDS IN THE ORIGINAL PACKAGE.

Treasury Department, Office of Internal Revenue,
Washington, April 5, 1865.

Assessors and Collectors are hereby informed, that, where the manufacturer of Playing Cards shall indicate by a mark upon the outside of the original package in which such Cards are sold, that stamps of a certain denomination are affixed to the respective packs enclosed in such package, in the view of this office it will not be consistent with the late act of Congress to require that any penalty shall be imposed upon jobbers, who may sell such Cards in the original and unbroken package thus marked by the manufacturer: *Provided*, That the price at which the Cards are sold by the jobber is such as is covered by the stamps said to be affixed.

Wherever any such package is broken, and the several packs exposed for sale,

it will be the duty of the holder to affix any additional stamps that may be required by the price at which he offers them for sale.

JOSEPH J. LEWIS,
Commissioner.

[Special No. 14.]

CONCERNING THE POST OFFICE ADDRESS OF TAX PAYERS.

Treasury Department, Office of Internal Revenue,
Washington, April 27, 1865.

Assessors are instructed, in all cases where practicable, to enter the *Post Office address*, as well as the residence, of each tax-payer in their assessment lists.

As soon as the present supply of form 23 is exhausted, a new column will be introduced for this purpose, but for the present the old form will be filled as above directed, and two lines will be used when necessary.

JOSEPH J. LEWIS,
Commissioner.

TRADE WITH THE SOUTH.

RULES AND REGULATIONS CONCERNING COMMERCIAL INTERCOURSE WITH INSURRECTIONARY STATES.

EXECUTIVE ORDER.

Executive Chamber, Washington, April 29.

Being desirous to relieve all loyal citizens and well-disposed persons residing in insurrectionary States from unnecessary commercial restrictions, and to encourage them to return to peaceful pursuits, it is hereby ordered:

First,—That the restrictions upon internal and domestic commercial intercourse be discontinued in such parts of the States of Tennessee, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, and so much of Louisiana as lies east of the Mississippi River as shall be embraced within the lines of national military occupation, excepting only such restrictions as are imposed by acts of Congress, and regulations in pursuance thereof, prescribed by the Secretary of the Treasury, and approved by the President; and excepting also from the effect of this order the following articles contraband of war, to wit: arms, ammunition, and all articles from which ammunition is manufactured, gray uniforms and cloths, locomotives, cars, railroad iron and machinery for operating railroads, telegraph wires, insulators and instruments for operating telegraph lines.

Second,—That all existing military and naval orders in any manner restricting domestic and coastwise commercial intercourse and trade in the localities abovenamed be, and the same are hereby revoked; and that no military or naval officer in any manner interrupt or interfere with the same, or with any boats or other vessels engaged therein under proper authority pursuant to the regulations of the Secretary of the Treasury.

ANDREW JOHNSON.

RULES AND REGULATIONS.

Treasury Department, May 9, 1865.

With a view of carrying out the purposes of the Executive, as expressed in his executive order bearing date of April 29, 1865, "to relieve all loyal citizens and well-disposed persons residing in insurrectionary States from unnecessary commercial restrictions, and to encourage them to return to peaceful pursuits," the following regulations are prescribed, and will hereafter govern commercial intercourse between the States of Tennessee, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, and Louisiana, east of the Mississippi River, heretofore declared in insurrection, and the loyal States.

First,—All commercial transactions under these regulations shall be conducted under the supervision of officers of customs and others acting as officers of customs.

Second,—*Prohibited Articles.*—The following articles are prohibited, and none such will be allowed to be transported to or within any State heretofore declared in insurrection, except on government account, viz.: arms, ammunition, all articles from which ammunition is manufactured, gray uniforms and cloth, locomotives, cars, railroad iron and machinery for operating railroads, telegraph wires, insulators and instruments for operating telegraph lines.

Third,—*Amounts of Products Allowed, and Places to which such may be Transported.*—It having been determined and agreed upon by the proper officers of the War and Treasury Departments, in accordance with the requirements of section 9 of the act of July 2d, 1864, that the amount of goods required to supply the necessities of the loyal persons residing in the insurrectionary States, within the military lines of the United States forces, shall be an amount equal to the aggregate of the applications therefor: and that the places to which such goods may be taken, shall be all places in such lines that may be named in the several applications for transportation thereto: it is therefore directed that clearance shall be granted, on application by any loyal citizen, for all goods not prohibited, in such amounts and to such places, which, under the revenue and collection laws of the United States, have been created ports of entry and delivery in coastwise trade, as the applicant may desire.

Fourth,—*Clearance.*—Before any vessel shall be cleared for any port within the insurrectionary States, or from one port to another therein, or from any such ports to a port in the loyal States, the master of every such vessel shall present to the proper officer of customs a manifest of her cargo, which manifest shall set forth the character of the merchandise composing said cargo, and, if showing no prohibited articles, shall be certified by such officers of customs.

Fifth,—*Arrival and Discharge of a Cargo in an Insurrectionary State.*—On the arrival of any such vessel at the port of destination, it shall be the duty of the master thereof forthwith to present to the proper officer of the customs the certified manifest of her cargo, whereupon the officer shall cause the vessel to be discharged, under his general supervision; and if the cargo is found to correspond with the manifest, a certificate to that effect shall be given to the master. If there shall be found any prohibited articles, they shall be seized and held subject to the orders of the Secretary of the Treasury, and the officer shall forthwith

report to the department all the facts of the case; and any such vessel arriving from any foreign port, or from any domestic port, without a proper clearance, or with contraband articles, shall, with her cargo, be seized and held as subject to confiscation under the laws of the United States.

Sixth,—*Lading within, and Departure from, an Insurrectionary State.*—Vessels in ports within an insurrectionary State, not declared open to the commerce of the world, shall be laden under the supervision of the proper officer of the department, whose duty it shall be to require, before any articles are allowed to be shipped, satisfactory evidence that upon all merchandise the taxes and fees required by law and these regulations have been paid, or secured to be paid, which fact, with the amount so paid, shall be certified upon the manifest. No clearance shall be granted if upon any article so shipped the fees and internal revenue taxes, or either, shall only have been secured to be paid, such fact shall be noted upon the manifest, and the proper officer at the port of destination of such vessel, shall hold the goods till all such taxes and fees shall be paid according to law and these regulations.

Seventh,—*Supply Stores.*—Persons desiring to keep a supply store at any place within an insurrectionary State, shall make application therefor to the nearest officer of the Treasury Department, which application shall set forth that the applicant is loyal to the Government of the United States, and upon being convinced of such loyalty, a license for such supply store shall forthwith be granted, and the person to whom the license is given, shall be authorized to purchase goods at any other supply store within the insurrectionary States, or at any other point, as he may select. The party receiving such license shall pay therefor the license fee presented by the Internal Revenue Law.

Eighth,—*Exempted Articles.*—All articles of local production and consumption, such as fruits, butter, ice, eggs, meat, wood, coal, &c., may, without fee or restriction, be freely transported and sold at such points in an insurrectionary State as the owner may desire.

Ninth,—*Shipments of Products of an Insurrectionary State.*—All cotton not produced by persons with their own labor, or with the labor of freedmen or others employed and paid by them, must, before shipment to any port or place in a loyal State, be sold to and resold by an officer of the government especially appointed for the purpose, under regulations prescribed by the Secretary of the Treasury, and approved by the President; and before allowing any cotton or other product to be shipped, or granting clearance for any vessel, the proper customs officer, or other person acting as such, must require from the purchasing agent, or the internal revenue officer, a certificate that the cotton proposed to be shipped has been resold by him, or that 25 per cent of the value thereof has been paid to such purchasing agent in money, and that the cotton is therefore free from further fee or tax. If the cotton proposed to be shipped is claimed and proved to be the product of a person's own labor, or of freedmen or others employed and paid by them, the officer will require that the shipping fee of three cents per pound shall be paid or secured to be paid thereon. If any product other than cotton is offered for shipment, the certificate of the internal revenue officer that all the internal taxes due thereon have been collected and paid must be produced prior to such product being shipped or cleared, and if there is no

internal revenue officer, then such taxes shall be collected by the customs officer, or he shall cause the same to be secured to be paid as provided in these regulations.

Tenth,—*Inland Transportation.*—The provisions of these regulations, necessarily modified, shall be considered applicable to all shipments inland to or within the insurrectionary States by any means of transportation whatever

Eleventh,—*Charges*—Goods not prohibited may be transported to insurrectionary States free. The charges upon all products shipped or transported from an insurrectionary State other than upon cotton, shall be the charges prescribed by the internal revenue laws. Upon cotton other than that purchased and resold by the government, three cents per pound, which must be credited by the officer collecting, as follows, viz : two cents per pound as the shipping fee. All cotton purchased and resold by the government shall be allowed to be transported free from all fees and taxes whatsoever.

Twelfth,—*Records to be Kept.*—Full and complete accounts and records must be kept by all officers acting under these regulations, of their transactions under them in such manner and form as shall be prescribed by the Commissioner of Customs.

Thirteenth,—*Loyalty a Requisite.*—No goods shall be sold in an insurrectionary State by or to, nor any transaction held with, any person or persons, not loyal to the government of the United States. Proof of loyalty must be the taking and subscribing the following oath or evidence, to be filed, that it, or one similar in purport and meaning, has been taken, viz. :

I, ———, do solemnly swear, in presence of Almighty God, that I will hencefoth faithfully support, protect and defend the Constitution of the United States, and all laws made in pursuance thereof.

Fourteenth,—*Former Regulations Revoked.*—These regulations shall take effect, and be in force on and after the 10th of May, 1865, and shall supersede all other regulations and circulars heretofore prescribed by the Treasury Department concerning commercial intercourse between loyal and insurrectionary States, all of which are hereby rescinded and annulled.

HUGH McCULLOCH,
Secretary of the Treasury.

Executive Chamber, Washington, May 9, 1865.

The foregoing rules and regulations concerning commercial intercourse with and in States and parts of States declared in insurrection, prescribed by the Secretary of the Treasury, in conformity with the acts of Congress relating thereto, having been seen and considered by me, are hereby approved.

ANDREW JOHNSON.

OFFICIAL COPIES OF DECISIONS OF THE SECRETARY OF THE TREASURY UNDER THE TARIFF ACTS.

The following decisions made by the Secretary of the Treasury, of questions arising upon appeals by importers from the decisions of Collectors, relating to

the proper classification, under the Tariff acts, of certain articles of foreign manufacture and production entered at the port of New York, &c., have been sent us by the Secretary of the Treasury for publication:

ALLOWANCE FOR DRAFT.—TEA.

Treasury Department, November 1, 1864.

SIR: Messrs. E. D. MORGAN & Co. have appealed (No. 2,343) from your decision in relation to certain Tea imported by them ex steamship "Atalanta," and claim "that in adding $1,262 excess of invoice value, and levying thereon the 10 per cent ad valorem duty, amounts to $126 20, you have levied this amount unlawfully, and that our entry should be liquidated without this addition of $126 20. We claim that this excess in value is made up by an apparent excess in weight, which arises from the different mode of weighing by the U. S. weighers, who weigh a large number of packages at one draft, whereas the invoice weight is the aggregate of each package weighed separately, with allowance for draft; and consequently the invoice represents the true and legal ad valorem value for the assessment of the 10 per cent discriminating duty laid on Teas and other articles from east of the Cape of Good Hope, when imported from places west of the Cape of Good Hope."

Under existing laws no allowance is made for "draft," and the weight returned by the U. S. weighers determines the number of pounds imported. The value is determined by the appraisers.

In the case of E. D. MORGAN & Co., the weighers found the weight of the Tea per steamer "Atalanta" to be in excess of that stated in the invoice, and the appraisers found the value or price per pound as stated in the invoice to be correct; consequently the specific duty on the increased weight, and the 10 per cent on the value of said increase, both attach.

If it be shown that the usage in a foreign country is, on the purchase of 100 lbs. of Tea, to deliver 105 lbs., the answer is that the tariff levies a duty upon the Tea imported, and the gift or concession for good weight or allowance for draft, &c., &c., is as liable to duty as any five pounds purchased; the price *per pound* being fixed by the invoice, (below which duty cannot be levied,) and the duty must be charged at the actual and not invoice weight.

Your decision is hereby affirmed.

I am, very respectfully,

W. P. FESSENDEN,
Secretary of the Treasury.

To Simeon Draper, Esq.,
Collector, New York.

MANUFACTURES OF CORAL.

Treasury Department, November 2, 1864.

SIR: Messrs. BIGELOW BROTHERS & KENNARD have appealed (No. 2,388) from your decision assessing duty at the rate of 30 per cent ad valorem on certain Manufactures of Coral, imported by them in the steamer "Africa," from Liverpool, August, 1864, and claim that they "should pay a duty of but 25 per cent, being of a similar description of other jewelry set in gold."

Under the 22d section—act March 2, 1861—"coral cut or manufactured" is liable to duty at the rate of 30 per cent ad valorem.

The article in question (samples of which have been examined by the experts of this Department) are invoiced and entered as "coral goods," and are commercially known as such; the fact that they are gold mounted, and are to be used for the adornment of the person—such ornamentation not being sufficiently

material to change their character—do not entitle them to be classified as "jewelry."

Your decision is hereby affirmed.

I am, very respectfully,

W. P. FESSENDEN,
Secretary of the Treasury.

To J. Z. Goodrich,
Collector, Boston, Mass.

STEEL SPECTACLES.

Treasury Department, November 5, 1864.

SIR: Messrs. BECKEL & BROTHERS have appealed (No. 2,401) under date of October 25, 1864, from your assessment of duty at the rate of 45 per cent on certain Spectacles imported per steamer "City of Washington," from Liverpool.

The appellants claim that the frames of the above articles are manufactured of *iron*, and are entitled to entry at the rate of 35 per cent.

The experts of the Customs report, after a thorough examination of the article in question, that they are manufactured of *steel*, and consequently the assessment of duty at 45 per cent was perfectly proper.

Your decision is hereby affirmed.

I am, very respectfully,

W. P. FESSENDEN,
Secretary of the Treasury.

To Simeon Draper, Esq.,
Collector, New York.

TOYS, DOLLS, &C.

Treasury Department, November 12, 1864.

SIR: Messrs. H. F. ALBERTI & Co. have appealed (No. 2,400) from your decision assessing duty at the rate of 50 per cent ad valorem, (under the classification of "wooden and all other toys for children," found in the 12th section of the act approved June 30, 1864,) on certain "Common Marbles," "Magic Lanterns," and "Dolls," imported by them, and claim to enter them at 35 per cent ad valorem.

"Common Marbles" are undoubtedly "toys for children," under the above section, if of such size, material, and general character, as would render them suitable for the play or amusement of children only. If of a description and character to indicate their fitness for philosophical purposes, or for the amusement or instruction of grown persons, they should not be classified as "toys for children," but according to the materials of which they are composed; and as glass forms a part of the article, they should be classified as manufactures of which glass is a component material, not otherwise provided for, at 40 per cent ad valorem, under the concluding clause of section 9, act approved June 30, 1864.

"Dolls" are specifically provided for by name in the 13th section of the act of July 14, 1862, in this connection: "dolls and toys of all kinds;" and I am of the opinion that the language in the 12th section of the act approved June 30, 1864, viz.: "On wooden and all other toys for children," cannot be held to include "Dolls;" and that they are consequently liable to duty under the 13th section of the act of July 14, 1862, at the rate of 35 per cent ad valorem.

You are hereby instructed to adjust the entries of Messrs. H. F. ALBERTI &

Co. accordingly, provided the requirements of the 14th section of the act approved June 30, 1864, have been complied with.

I am, very respectfully,

W. P. FESSENDEN,
Secretary of the Treasury.

To H. W. Hoffman, Esq.,
Collector, Baltimore, Md.

DAMAGE ON IRON AND STEEL.

Treasury Department, November 18, 1864.

SIR: Messrs. PETER WRIGHT & SONS have appealed (No. 2,415) from your decision assessing duty upon certain Iron and Steel recovered from the wreck of the ship "James Smith," wrecked in Delaware Bay, and claim that, although under the law no allowance for damage to Steel and Iron can be made when such articles are damaged by salt water while in ordinary transit, the law should be construed so as not to apply in cases where a ship is actually stranded, and heavy expenses are incurred by the owners in recovering the goods.

The 3d section of the act of July 14, 1862, provides "that no allowance or reduction of duties for partial loss or damage shall be hereafter made in consequence of rust of iron or steel, or upon the manufactures of iron or steel, except on polished Russia sheet iron."

The provision of law is unconditional, and consequently, the assessment of duty on the Iron and Steel in question was perfectly proper; and your decision is hereby affirmed.

I am, very respectfully,

W. P. FESSENDEN,
Secretary of the Treasury.

To Wm. B. Thomas, Esq.,
Collector, Philadelphia, Pa.

WOOL.—ALLEGED MISREPRESENTATION OF QUALITY IN THE INVOICE.

Treasury Department, November 19, 1864.

SIR: Messrs. FITZGERALD, BOOTH & Co. have appealed (No. 2,411) from your decision assessing a duty of six cents per pound on certain Wool imported by them, claiming that "it was found, after a careful examination by experts and wool brokers and merchants, to be of inferior quality, and under a correct and true valuation, that it should only pay the duty of 3 cents per pound."

An examination of the facts in the case discloses that Messrs. FITZGERALD, BOOTH & Co. imported, on or about July 8, 1864, per barque "George & Henry," a quantity of Wool, in bulk; that subsequently an entry was made as per invoice, and the duty finally adjusted and paid, and the Wool passed into the possession of the importers.

Messrs. FITZGERALD, BOOTH, & Co. now allege that a further examination of the Wool proved a less quantity of Wool, upon which a duty of six cents per pound had been paid, was received, and a greater quantity of a commoner grade, upon which three cents per pound had been paid, and claim to have the difference of duty returned to them.

I am of the opinion that the Wool in question, having passed out of the possession of the officers of the Government, thereby rendering an identification of it impossible, coupled with the fact, that the entry was adjusted on the basis of the invoice values, no return of an alleged excess can be made.

I am, very respectfully,

W. P. FESSENDEN,
Secretary of the Treasury.

To H. W. Hoffman, Esq.,
Collector, Baltimore, Md.

CROCHET NEEDLES.

Treasury Department, November 22, 1864.

SIR: KOHLSAAT, BROTHERS have appealed (No. 2,426) from your decision assessing duty at the rate of 45 per cent ad valorem on certain "Crochet Needles" imported by them, and claim that the article is liable to 25 per cent ad valorem only.

Under the 13th section of act July 14, 1862, "Needles, sewing, darning, knitting, and all other descriptions," were liable to 25 per cent ad valorem duty.

Under section 3 of the act approved June 30, 1864, a duty of one dollar per thousand, and, in addition thereto, 35 per centum ad valorem, is imposed on "Needles for knitting or sewing machines."

It thus appears that needles for knitting machines, and needles for sewing machines, are the only description of needles provided for in the act approved June 30, 1864, and I am of the opinion that the "Crochet Needles" imported by Messrs. KOHLSAAT, BROTHERS, being unfit for use in knitting machines, are sufficiently designated in the term "all other descriptions" in the 13th section of act July 14, 1862, and are liable to duty at the rate of 25 per cent ad valorem.

I am, very respectfully,

W. P. FESSENDEN,
Secretary of the Treasury.

To Simeon Draper, Esq.,
Collector, New York.

WORSTEDS.—IN WAREHOUSE JULY 1, 1864.

Treasury Department, November 22, 1864.

Gentlemen: Your appeal (No. 2,428) from the decision of the Collector at New York, assessing duty under the provisions of the act approved June 30, 1864, on certain Worsteds, imported by you per steamer "Persia," in April, 1864, and withdrawn from warehouse November 14, 1864, is received.

You claim "that the additional duty cannot be levied legally upon merchandise imported prior to the passage of the act levying it," &c.

The 19th section of the act approved June 30, 1864, is as follows:

"*And be it further enacted*, That all goods, wares, and merchandise which may be in the public stores or bonded warehouses on the day and year this act shall take effect, shall be subjected to no other duty upon the entry thereof for consumption than if the same were imported respectively after that day," &c.

You will perceive that the action of the Collector was strictly in accordance with the above section, and his decision is hereby affirmed.

I am, very respectfully,

W. P. FESSENDEN,
Secretary of the Treasury.

To Messrs. D. H. & M. Arnold,
New York.

ANILINE COLORS.—PENAL DUTY.

Treasury Department, November 29, 1864.

Gentlemen: Your appeal (No. 2,441) is received from the decision of the Collector at New York, assessing certain duty on five cases Aniline Colors imported by you in September last.

The Collector at New York reports "that the U. S. Appraisers of this district advanced the invoice value of the goods in question *more than* 10 *per cent*, to make market value; and that an appeal was taken by the importers to re-appraisers as provided by law; and that the re-appraisers advanced the invoice

value 30 per cent to make market value. The additional duty and penalty complained of by your appellants were exacted accordingly."

An appraisement thus determined is final under the law, and consequently the action of the Collector is hereby affirmed.

I am, very respectfully,

W. P. FESSENDEN,
Secretary of the Treasury.

To Messrs Lenning & Clemm,
Philadelphia, Pa.

BUTTONS.

Treasury Department, November 30, 1864.

SIR: Messrs. WALMSLEY BROTHERS have appealed (No. 2,418) from your decision assessing duty at the rate of 50, 45, and 40 per cent on certain silk, steel, and other "Buttons," respectively.

By the 22d section of act of March, 1861, "buttons of all kinds" are provided for at 30 per cent ad valorem. By the 2d section of act August, 1861, it is provided that "silk" Buttons shall pay 40 per cent ad valorem.

The subsequent acts of July, 1862, and June 30, 1864, make no other or different provision for *Buttons* of any description; the claim of the appellants to be allowed to enter the silk Buttons at 40 per cent., and all other kind of Buttons at 30 per cent is consequently in accordance with the law and the ruling of this Department.

You are respectfully requested to adjust the entry in conformity herewith.

I am, very respectfully,

W. P. FESSENDEN,
Secretary of the Treasury.

To Luther Haven, Esq.,
Collector, Chicago, Ill.

GREEN TOW YARN, (SO-STYLED.)

Treasury Department, December 2, 1864.

SIR: R. H. BOLSTER, Esq., in behalf of Messrs. J. E. TODHUNTER & Co. has appealed (No. 2,417½) from your decision assessing duty at the rate of 40 per cent ad valorem on eighteen bales of "Green Tow Yarn," imported by them from Dublin per ship "Tonawanda," and claims that two bales thereof, being "No. 8 lea," and valued less than 24 cents per lb., are subject to a duty of only 30 per cent ad valorem, and the other sixteen bales which exceed "No. 8 lea," and also valued at less than 24 cents per lb., are subject to a duty of 35 per cent ad valorem.

Your report corroborates the statement of the appellants as to the character of the Yarn in question, and your opinion is expressed that the claim to enter the two bales "No. 8 lea" at 30 per cent is perfectly proper, that being the rate imposed on such Yarn, for carpets, by the 1st sub-division sec. 7, act June 30, 1864.

You are therefore directed to adjust the entry of the two bales accordingly. The sixteen bales were properly assessed at 40 per cent. as provided in same section, in the clause "all other manufactures of flax or of which flax shall be the chief value, not otherwise provided for."

I am, very respectfully,

W. P. FESSENDEN,
Secretary of the Treasury.

To Wm. B. Thomas, Esq.,
Collector, Philadelphia, Pa.

WOOL CAPS.

Treasury Department, December 3, 1864.

Gentlemen: Your appeal (No. 2,424) from the decision of the Collector at New York assessing a duty of 40 per cent ad valorem and 24 cents per pound on certain "Wool Caps," imported per steamers "Hecla" and "New York," is received.

You submit samples, and "claim that they are knitted and made on a frame exactly in the same manner as wool hosiery is manufactured," and "should pay the same duty of 30 per cent ad valorem and 20 cents per pound." &c.

The article in question is made up from woolen cloth, silk, cotton and leather by the tailor, seamstress, or manufacturer.

In the 2d sub-division of section 5 of the act approved June 30, 1864, there is a provision for "clothing, ready made, and wearing apparel of every description, composed wholly or in part of wool, made up or manufactured wholly or in part by the tailor seamstress, or manufacturer, except hosiery," and a duty of 40 per cent ad valorem and 24 cents per pound is imposed thereon.

Under this provision of law the Collector assessed the duty on the Caps in question, and his decision is hereby affirmed.

By order. I am, very respectfully,

GEO. HARRINGTON,
Assistant Secretary of the Treasury.

To Messrs S. Wolff & Co.,
No. 53 Broadway, New York.

CHAMPAGNE WINE.

Treasury Department, December 13, 1864.

Gentlemen: Your appeal (No. 2,443) in behalf of Messrs. STEHN & WULFING, from the decision of the Collector at New York, assessing penal duty on certain Champagne Wine imported by them per "Notre Dame des Victoires," is received.

You claim, firstly, that "said Champagne being chargeable with duty at the rates specified in section 2, of the act of Congress approved June 30, 1864, to wit: at the rate of six dollars per dozen bottles, and two cents for each bottle, is not by law subject to the payment of the additional or penal duty demanded."

Secondly, "because said Champagne being subject to the payment of specific duties, the provisions of section 23, of the act of Congress approved June 30, 1864, levying in certain cases additional duty of twenty per centum, do not apply.

The 1st sub-division of the 2d section of the act approved June 30, 1864, imposes "on wines of all kinds, valued at not over fifty cents per gallon, twenty cents per gallon, and twenty-five per centum ad valorem; valued at over fifty cents and not over one dollar per gallon, fifty cents per gallon, and twenty five per centum ad valorem; valued at one dollar per gallon, one dollar per gallon and twenty-five per centum ad valorem. *Provided*, That no Champagne or Sparkling Wines, in bottles, shall pay a less rate of duty than six dollars per dozen bottles, each bottle containing not more than one quart and more than one pint, or six dollars per two dozen bottles, each bottle containing not more than one pint." On the entry of the Wine in question a duty of six dollars per dozen bottles, and two cents on each bottle was paid, under the 1st sub-division of section 2, of the act approved June 30, 1864, as above quoted.

The value of the Wines was subsequently appraised, and it was found to exceed by ten per centum or more the entered value, and the additional (or penal) duty of twenty per centum ad valorem was exacted.

The duty on "Champagne or Sparkling Wines, in bottles," is not exclusively specific; the same schedule which governs "all other wines," as provided for in section 2, above quoted, governs "Champagne or Sparkling Wines, in

bottles," but a provision of the law directs that said wines shall not pay a *less rate of duty* than six dollars per dozen bottles, &c., &c. Unquestionably, if the value justifies it, they must pay *more*.

It will be seen, therefore, that the duty depends, to a certain extent, upon the value, and hence "Champagne and Sparkling Wines, in bottles," are clearly articles upon which the appraisers must pass judgment. If they decide that the dutiable value exceeds the entered value by 10 per centum or more, it is quite immaterial whether or not the regular duty be increased by the advance. I am of the opinion the additional or penal duty properly attaches.

The decision of the Collector is hereby affirmed.

I am, very respectfully,

W. P. FESSENDEN, Secretary of the Treasury.

To Messrs. Webster & Craig,
Attorneys for Messrs. Stehn & Wulfing, New York.

BONE KAMP BITTERS, &C.

Treasury Department, December 29, 1864.

SIR: Messrs. VAN PRAAG & Co. have appealed (No. 2,464) from your decision assessing duty at the rate of 100 per cent ad valorem on certain "Bone Kamp of Maag Bitters" and "Pommerance Spirits," agreeably to a classification adopted in New York, (into which port the articles in question were imported.) viz.: "Spirituous liquors not otherwise enumerated" under the sixth sub-division of the 2d section of act approved June 30, 1864.

The appellants claim that they should be admitted at $2 per gallon under the 2d sub-division of 2d section of act approved June 30, 1864, as "Spirits manufactured or distilled from grain or other materials."

The articles in question are commonly known as "Bitters," and are composed of alcohol and aromatic substances; they bear a similitude in some respects both to "spirituous *beverages*" and "spirituous *liquors*," provided for in the 2d section of the act approved June 30, 1864, but mostly resembling the latter, and therefore, according to the 20th section of the act of 1842, should pay according to the enumerated article "paying the highest rate."

The classification of the Collector at New York, and your assessment of duty at the rate of 100 per cent ad valorem, agreeably thereto, are hereby affirmed.

I am, very respectfully,

W. P. FESSENDEN, Secretary of the Treasury.

To J. Z. Goodrich, Collector, Boston, Mass.

IRON WIRE RODS—IN COILS.

Treasury Department, January 4, 1864.

SIR: The appeals of Messrs. WILLIAM E. RICE & Co. (Nos. 2,363 and 2,364) are received, dated September 2, 1864, from your decision assessing a duty of one and a-half cents per pound on certain "Iron Wire Rods, in Coils," imported ex "Herald of the Morning" and "Golden Hind."

The article in question is rolled down bar iron, in shape round, one quarter inch in diameter, bent into a coil.

The appellants allege that the article is specially provided for at one and a quarter cents per pound as "rolled or hammered iron, not otherwise provided for."

Under previous tariffs it was decided that "steel in coils," was not "steel in bars," and hence there would appear to be some ground for the claim of the appellants. A careful examination, however, of the letter of the law shows that the phraseology in reference to steel differs from that relating to iron; the law speaks of *steel in bars*, and of *bar iron*.

There is more than a verbal distinction between *bar iron* and *iron in bars*, and it follows, consequently, that the present question is whether "rounds less than

three-quarters of an inch in diameter" cease being rounds less than three-quarters of an inch, &c., by being bent into a coil.

The language of the "steel clause" in the act approved June 30, 1864. will be found to include "*Coils*," doubtless because the phraseology *as to description* has been mainly copied from former acts, but the word "Coils" is not included in the iron clause of same act, unquestionably because it was understood that iron in coils was embraced in the somewhat general term of "bar iron."

The decision of the Collector is hereby affirmed.

I am, very respectfully,

W. P. FESSENDEN, Secretary of the Treasury.

To J. Z. Goodrich, Esq., Collector, Boston, Mass.

WINES—DUTY ON BOTTLES.

Treasury Department, January 4, 1865.

SIR: The appeal of JAMES DE FREMERY, (No. 2,407,) dated September 9, 1864, from your decision assessing certain duty on five hundred and ninety (590) cases of claret, and one hundred and forty-six (146) cases white wine, imported on the 27th July, 1864, in the French bark "Cesambre," from Bordeaux, is received.

The ground of appeal in this case is, that in ascertaining the dutiable value of the wine in question, under the 24th section of the act approved June 30, 1864, you included the value of the bottles, boxes, &c., in the value of the wine; and that you have assessed a duty of two cents each on the bottles.

The appellant claims that "under the first subvision of section 2, act approved June 30, 1864, the specific duty of 20 cents, 50 cents, and $1, respectively, should be regulated by the value of the wine *without* including therein the value of boxes and bottles or other charges; said duty is regulated by the value of the wine itself * * * , and the 24th section does not * * * apply to the manner of determining said specific duties for the reason that it relates exclusively to dutiable value.

The 24th section, above alluded to, provides in very explicit language, that in determining the value of goods, &c., upon which duties are to be assessed, the actual value of such goods on shipboard at the last place of shipment to the United States, shall be deemed their dutiable value; and this value includes every expense attending the transportation of the goods from their places of production to the place of shipment, together with the value of the boxes, bottles, &c., in which such goods are contained.

There is but this one rule given for ascertaining the dutiable value of goods, &c., imported, and there can be but one dutiable value, for the same goods, whether the duty to be assessed is specific, according to value, or ad valorem. Therefore the same valuation must attach to the wine for the purpose of the specific duty, per gallon, as for the ad valorem duty.

The words in the 24th section, "except as hereinbefore provided," have special reference to the exception in favor of wool, &c. See section 4, act approved June 30, 1864.

The cost of the bottles, boxes, &c., and charges were therefore properly embraced as part of the value of the wines; and no duty being assessed on the bottles, *as bottles*, it follows as a matter of course the duty of two cents each as provided in section 2 of said act properly attaches.

Your decision is hereby affirmed.

I am, very respectfully,

W. P. FESSENDEN, Secretary of the Treasury.

To Charles James, Esq., Collector, San Francisco, California.

IRON BANDS ON SHEET IRON—TARE ALLOWED.

Treasury Department, January 4, 1865.

SIR: Messrs. AYMAR & Co. have appealed (No. 2,452) under date December

8, 1864, from your decision assessing a duty of 3 cents per pound on the "Iron Bands," which they allege secured the sheets of iron imported by them per "Heiress" and "Telegraph" from St. Petersburg, Russia. They further allege that the iron bands in question "are simply common hoops of the poorest iron; are worth nothing to the importer, or to any body else, except as a common description of old iron, and as such would not bring as much as the duty;" and that hitherto such bands have always been deducted as *tare*.

I am informed it is the uniform practice at other ports to consider iron bands brought into the country, under the circumstances as above stated, as tare.

The bands in question, it appears, are of but trifling value; are absolutely necessary to insure the safe transportation of the sheets of iron; are not deemed to be an item of expense to the importer; and are thought to be no more liable to duty than iron hoops around casks or boxes, the contents of which pay specific duties only, uninfluenced by value. In my opinion the bands should be considered *tare*, and you are hereby instructed to adjust the entry accordingly.

I am, very respectfully,

W. P. FESSENDEN, Secretary of the Treasury.

To Simeon Draper, Esq., Collector, New York.

DROSS LEAD, (SO STYLED.) CLASSIFIED LEAD ORE.

Treasury Department, January 16, 1865.

SIR: Your appeal (No. 2,479) is received, dated January 9, 1865, in behalf of Messrs. J. J. CROOKE & Co., from the decision of the Collector at New York, assessing a duty of one and one-half cents per pound on certain "Dross Lead," (so styled,) imported per ship "Universe," from Liverpool. You claim that the article in question, being raw or unmanufactured, is liable to a duty of 10 per cent only.

The experts of the customs have classified the article as "lead ore," and report, that "although it varies from some of the descriptions of lead ores, and may not in all respects come up to the quality found in the usual article in commerce, it is of a character that cannot be treated otherwise than our (their) classification indicates."

From the facts given by the appraisers, I think there can be no doubt that the article in question is liable to a duty of one and one-half cents per pound, by virtue of the 20th section of the act of August 30, 1842.

The decision of the Collector is hereby affirmed.

By order. I am, very respectfully,

GEO. HARRINGTON, Assistant Secretary of the Treasury.

To S. P. Russel, Esq.,
No. 39 Wall Street, Jauncey Court, New York,
Attorney for Messrs. J. J. Crooke & Co.

CONTENTS OF JUNE NUMBER.

ART.		PAGE
1.	Jacob Little. By Matthew Hale Smith	409
2.	National Debt and Resources. By T. M	418
3.	The Reciprocity Question. By William J. Patterson, Secretary Board of Trade, Montreal.	427
4.	A Convention of Merchants	437
5.	Commercial Law.—No. 22. The Law of Shipping	439
6.	Commercial Chronicle and Review	443
7.	Journal of Banking, Currency, and Finance	448
8.	Statistics of Trade and Commerce	455
9.	Commercial Regulations.—Decisions of the Commissioner of Internal Revenue	464
10.	Trade with the South. Rules and Regulations Concerning Commercial Intercourse with Insurrectionary States	468
11.	Official Copies of Decisions of the Secretary of the Treasury Under the Tariff Acts	471

THE

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE

AND

COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

EDITED BY

WILLIAM B. DANA.

VOLUME FIFTY-THIRD,

FROM JULY TO DECEMBER, INCLUSIVE, 1865.

New York:

WILLIAM B. DANA, PUBLISHER AND PROPRIETOR.

NO. 60 WILLIAM STREET.

1865.

ALPHABETICAL INDEX

TO SUBJECTS CONTAINED IN THE

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE & COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

VOLUME LIII.

FROM JULY TO DECEMBER, BOTH INCLUSIVE.

EDITED BY WILLIAM B. DANA.

A.

PAGE

Advantages of the Lake Superior iron region for producing charcoal and iron 412
Agricultural statistics of Ohio 202
Agricultural statistics of the United States 33
Albany bridge..... 399
American coal and iron..... 388
American manufactures and productions..... 95
American shipmasters association... 476
American States, elementary statistics of..... 198
Arizona, its resources and prospects. 249
Atlantic telegraph, history of..... 9

B.

Bank clearings at New York. 234, 315, 381
Bank of England returns.....59, 146, 239 316, 383, 469
Bank of France returns.....59, 147, 239 316, 384, 469
Bank redemption 324
Banking, currency and finance, Journal of.....50, 140, 230, 211, 379, 468
Banks, national.....56, 145, 236, 248, 315 382, 465
Banks of New York city, returns of 55, 144, 234, 313, 380, 466
Banks of Ohio..... 226
Banks of Philadelphia, returns of 55, 145, 235, 214, 381, 466
Biography and engraving of the Hon. Lucius Robinson 169
Book trade.....326, 404, 478
Brazil, commerce and navigation of. 339
Brazil, commerce with United States 345
Brazil, population of 338
Brazil, its population, products, commerce, &c..... 337
British coal and iron..... 420
British Mineral Products..... 474
Buffalo, taxable property of..... 69

C.

California, coal in 229, 309, 473
California, receipts of gold from..47, 138
Canada, trade of 221
Canal, Portage Lake ship..... 323
Canals of Ohio 209
Chicago, Burlington and Quincy railroad 429
Chicago, census of 1865..... 364
Chicago chamber of commerce..... 476
Chicago, flour and grain trade of.... 189
Chicago, lumber trade of..... 195
Chicago & Northwestern railway.435, 441
Chicago & Rock Island railroad 278

PAGE
Chicago, trade and commerce of ... 182
Cincinnati, commerce of 318
Clearings at New York 234
Cleveland & Pittsburg railroad 382
Cleveland & Toledo railroad..... 387
Coal in California 229, 309, 473
Coal and iron..... 388
Commerce of Chicago 182
Commerce of Cincinnati..... 318
Commerce of New Orleans.... .. 251
Commercial chronicle and review.43, 133
224, 305, 373, 458, 458
Commercial and industrial statistics
318, 386, 471
Commercial law.....24, 126, 219, 267
366, 423
Commercial regulations.....84, 158
Cork county, Ill., census of..... 364
Cotton at Mobile..... 318
Cotton on side walks, danger to..... 390
Cotton and wool manufactures..... 320
Cotton trade of New Orleans..... 251
Custom house, transactions at....237,382

D.

Debt of Minnesota..... 362
Debt of New York..... 115
Debt of Ohio..... 214
Debt of Pe nsylvania..... 274
Debt of Rhode Island 328
Debts of the South, will they be paid 409
Debt of United States.....125, 230, 240
316, 385, 470
Detroit convention.....89, 241

E.

Embroidery .....
Engraving and biography of the Hon.
Lucius Robinson..... 69
England, Bank of, returns..59, 146, 249,
316, 389, 469
Engineering, amateur..... 80
English life, statistics of 359
Exchanges, foreign, 47, 138, 229, 300, 377

F.

Federal, state, and municipal finances..... 391
Finances, McCulloch on the..... 335
Finances of Michigan..... 322
Finances of Minnesota..... 361
Finances of New York..... 113
Finances of Pennsylvania..... 274
Financial policy, our..... 80
Fires in the United Kingdom..... 389
Flour and grain trade of Chicago... 189
France, bank of, 59, 146, 239, 316, 384, 469

G.

PAGE
Franklin expedition..... 417
Galena and Chicago Union Railroad,
Gold receipts from California, 47, 138, 229,
309, 377
Gold, course of.....317. 384, 461
Gold, fluctuations of.....229, 317, 384
Gold, prices at New York (3 years). 113
Grain trade of Chicago..... 189
Gutta percha manufactures..... 321

H.

Honduras, Mexican boundary 477

I.

Illinois, zinc manufactures of..... 286
India, railroads of.....397, 398
India rubber manufactures..... 321
Indians, new negotiations with the.. 299
Insurance companies of New York.. 67
Insurance, journal of..... 389
Insurance, marine.....102, 271, 366, 423
Insurance, history of marine..... 106
Iron, product of Pennsylvania..... 60
Iron region of Missouri.... 409
Iron region of lake Superior..... 413
Iron and steel, products of U. S.... 61

L.

Lamborn on Missouri iron..... 329
Lamborn on Lake Superior iron.... 409
Lake Superior iron 413
Life insurance Benefits of..... 390
Lumber trade of Chicago..... 195

M.

McCulloch's speech..... ... 393
Marine insurance.....102, 271, 366, 434
Marine insurance, history of..... 106
Mercantile miscellany.....399, 476
Michigan, fidances of. 322
Michigan Central Railroad..... 349
Michigan Southern and Northern Indiana Railroad..... 354
Mining in Ohio..... 205
Minnesota, finances of 361
Minnesota, its resources and progress, 152
260
Minnesota, taxation in..... 362
Missouri iron region..... 329
Missouri railroad ordinance 79
Mobile cotton estimates..... 318

N.

PAGE

National bank notes, redemption of. 372
National banks, 56, 145, 226, 248, 382, 466
National life and travellers insurance company..... 404
New loan, Treasury circular..... 391
New Orleans, commerce of 252
New York city, banks of, 55, 144, 284, 313,380, 467
New York, finances of State of.... 118
New York, Insurance companies of. 67
New York, passenger railroads in... 147
" prices of gold at..... 119
" railroad movement..... 176
" State debt..... 115
" Treasure Movement at 309 377, 468
" taxation and valuation in 114
Northern Pacific Railroad..... 407

O

Ohio, agricultural statistics of..... 202
" banks of.....384, 468
" canals of..... 209
" mining statistics of..... 205
" population of..... 149
" revenue and expenditure of... 213
" State debt of..... 214
" valuation and taxation..... 211
Oil regions of Pennsylvania..... 405
Oysters..... 402

P

Peninsula railroad..... 444
Pennsylvania, coal product of..... 53
" debt of..... 274
" finances of..... 274
" iron product of..... 40
" valuation & taxation of 276
Petroleum statistics..... 436
Philadelphia, banks of..... 55 145, 235, 314, 381, 467
Philadelphia, connecting railroad.... 323
Plague, danger and commerce..... 93
Population of Chicago..... 344
" Cooke county..... 354
" Minnesota 341
" Ohio..... 199
Pork and beef packing at Chicago.. 193
Portage Lake Ship Canal..... 328
Postal intelligence..... 70
Postal money-order system 70

R

Railroad, Chicago, Burlington, and Quincy..... 429
" Chicago & N. Western 435, 441
PAGE
Railroad, Chicago and Rock Island 278
" Cleveland and Pittsburg.. 282
" Cleveland and Toledo.... 287
" Galena and Chicago Union 438
" Great Continental..... 291
" Kenosha and Rockford.... 433
" Michigan Central..... 349
" Peninsula..... 444
" Michigan Southern and Northern Indiana..... 354
" stock fluctuations, 1860–5 294
" canal & telegraph statistics 323 379
" dividends, German..... 324
" movements, New York... 176
" Northern Pacific..... 407
" Ordinance of Missouri.... 79
" reports, analyses of 276, 349, 429
" (passengers) in New York 147
Railroads of Ohio..... 206
" of India..... 397
" of Texas..... 397
Rebel privateers, vessels captured by 449
Rebel States, restoration to the Union 19
Receipts and expenses of the U. S.. 395
Revenue and expenditure of Ohio.. 213
Rhode Island, funded debt of..... 323
Robinson, Hon. Lucius..... 169

S.

Salvage..... 291
Shipowners, law of.... 34, 126, 219, 267 366
Silks to be more costly..... 247
Shoe-making machinery..... 471
Southern privateers.... 445
State and municipal finances..... 322
Statistics of English life..... 359
Stock fluctuations, 1860–65..... 294
Sub-Treasury, transactions of...247, 382 467
Suez canal..... 399
Sugar making..... 64

T.

Taxation in Minnesota..... 362
Taxation in New York..... 114
Taxation in Ohio..... 211
Taxation in Pennsylvania..... 276
Telegraph, Atlantic..... 9
Telegraphs, submarine..... 18
Texas, railroads in..... 397
Trade with Canada..... 326
Trade with the South 84 388
Trade and commerce of Chicago.... 182
Trade and commerce, statistics of... 60
Treasure movements at New York .. 377

U.

PAGE
United Kingdom, fires in..... 389
United States agricultural statistics. 73
United States commerce with Brazil, 355
United States public debt.....125, 240, 316, 385, 470
United States, iron and steel products of..... 61
United States receipts and expenditures..... 396

V.

Valuation and taxation of Minnesota, 362
Valuation and taxation of New York, 114
Valuation and taxation of Ohio..... 211
Valuation and taxation of Pennsylvania..... 276
Virginia and Tennessee railroad.... 398

W

Will the old State debts of the South be paid..... 409
Wines, adulteration of..... 399
Wool manufactures of United States 471

Z.

Zinc manufacture in Illinois..... 336

THE

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE

AND

COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

JULY, 1865.

THE ATLANTIC TELEGRAPH.

THE present attempt to lay a telegraph line from Europe to America is the fourth one. The first Atlantic cable was laid in August, 1857. It had been determined to splice the cable in mid-ocean, and then to proceed simultaneously to both shores. At the eleventh hour this arrangement was altered. The directors of the company resolved that one half of it should first be laid from Valentia to mid-ocean, and then connected with the other half, which was to be carried to Trinity Bay. Accordingly, the Telegraph Squadron, consisting of eight vessels, sailed August 4, 1857, from Queenstown Harbor for Valentine Bay.

AN ILL OMEN.

Just before they sailed the London *Times* startled its readers by the announcement that the enterprise must necessarily prove a failure. "It will scarcely be credited," said that journal, "but it is nevertheless true, that the twist of the spiral wires of the Birkenhead half of the Cable is in exactly the opposite direction to the twist of the wires made at Greenwich. Thus, when joined in the centre of the Atlantic, they will form a right and left hand screw, and the tendency of each will be to assist each other to untwist and expose the core. By attaching a solid weight to the centre joining, it is hoped this difficulty and danger may be overcome; but none attempt to conceal that the mistake is much to be regretted. We are informed that Messrs. GLASS and ELLIOTT had nearly one hundred miles of their portion completed before Messrs. NEWALL commenced theirs, and that, therefore, the fault rests with those who began theirs last."

This attack called forth a reply from Messrs. NEWALL, who denied the conclusions at which the writer of the article in question had arrived, holding that the so-called "blunder" was literally of no importance. At the same time they exculpated themselves from blame on the ground that they

were acting throughout under the direct instructions and supervision of the engineer of the company, and that the fault, if there was any, was his.

Nevertheless the Squadron sailed with the two cables as originally made, the U. S. steam frigate *Niagara* having one, and H. M. steamer *Agamemnon* having the other on board.

FAILURE NUMBER ONE.

On the evening of Friday, the 7th of August, 1857, the Telegraphic Squadron bore away from the coast of Ireland, delivering the cable into the sea at a slow and steady rate. The Company having decided upon the attempt to lay the Cable by commencing at the Irish shore, and effecting a splice in mid-ocean, the work of paying-out was begun by the *Niagara* alone. Unfortunately the commencement of the expedition was inauspicious. When about four miles of the thick shore-end of the Cable had been paid out, it became entangled with the machinery, owing to a momentary want of watchfulness, and parted. An attempt was immediately made to recover the lost portion. The *Niagara* came to anchor for the night. On the following day the cable was recovered, a splice was made, and the work was resumed without further accident to the shore-end.

FAILURE NUMBER TWO.

At noon on Sunday, August 9, ninety-five miles of Cable had been expended, the continuity of the electric current remaining perfect, and signals passing between the *Niagara* and the station at Valentia.

On Monday, August 10th, at 8.45 P.M., and for two hours afterwards, the electricians failed to receive signals, the continuity being now, for the first time, interrupted. Towards midnight the current was re-established, but the hopes which this circumstance revived were of short duration.

On Tuesday, August 11th, at 3.45 A.M., the machinery stopped, and with the strain the Cable parted. Three hundred and forty-four miles of the cable was lost, the depth of water in which it was submerged being about two miles.

The first Expedition having thus come to an untimely end, nothing remained but to return to Ireland. The *Niagara* accordingly put about, and headed for Valentia.

SECOND EXPEDITION.

It being resolved to continue the enterprise, preparations were made to resume it in 1858. It was determined to join the two cables in mid-ocean, and to select an earlier season of the year for the work.

On Saturday, May 29, 1858, the *Niagara* and the *Agamemnon* sailed from Plymouth for Queenstown, having the cable on board which, during the intervening winter had been discharged at Keyham Docks. On the same day they put to sea, to undertake an experimental trip, for the purpose of testing the Cable.

FAILURES NUMBER THREE, FOUR AND FIVE.

On the 31st of May, when in latitude 47° 12′ north, longitude 9° 32′ west, the depth of water being 2,530 fathoms, a series of deep-sea experiments was commenced. The *Niagara* and *Agamemnon* were connected by hawsers, stern to stern, distance from each other some twelve hundred feet. The Cable was paid out and spliced on board the *Agamemnon*, and the

first experiment began. Two miles of Cable were paid out, when the wire parted.

On the following day (Tuesday, June 1,) the Cable was re-spliced, and three miles were paid out; but in the attempt to haul in, the wire again parted.

On Wednesday, June 2, the Cable was again spliced, but in a few minutes parted on board the *Agamemnon*. These experiments having been continued during three days and one night, ceased with this last attempt, and after various trials of the operations of splicing, lowering and heaving-in the wire, the squadron set sail for Plymouth, whence reports of the results were forwarded to the Directors of the Company.

FAILURE NUMBER SIX.

But a single week elapsed, from the return of the fleet from this trip, when the expedition set sail from Plymouth for the second great ocean trial. The appearance of the two principal vessels engaged in laying the Cable was thus described by a correspondent of the London *Times*, from which it appears that the 1,500 miles of Cable which was stowed aboard each of these great ships was enough to sink at least one of them down to her bearings:

"Both the *Agamemnon* and *Niagara* are astonishingly deep. The lower deck ports of the former are very near the water, and they are being fastened and caulked before starting. But in spite of this, the *Agamemnon* carries her share infinitely better than her long black-looking rival of the United States, which is immersed very deeply indeed by her load. The *Agamemnon* only draws 26 feet, or actually one foot less than her draught at starting last year; but even at this depth she bears herself well, and looks a noble ship, and one that should be seaworthy in any weather. The *Niagara*, however, draws no less than 27 feet 2 inches aft, and this great draught effects a marvellous and most unpleasant change in her appearance, since it leaves her spar deck scarcely 8 feet above the water's edge. In fact, the main deck is actually below the water's level, and if her lofty bulwarks, some nine or ten feet high, were taken away, she would appear to be almost the last vessel in the world in which it was desirable to venture across the great Atlantic." Yet, in the great gale which the fleet encountered a few days after sailing, while the *Agamemnon* was tossed about until her safety was seriously endangered, and one of the large coils of the Cable had broken loose, and occasioned alarm for the success of the entire expedition, the *Niagara* rode it out with no more damage than the loss of a piece of carving from her figure-head.

The squadron, now consisting of four vessels, having safely arrived at the appointed rendezvous, latitude 52° 2′, longitude 33° 18′, the Cable was spliced on the 26th of June, 1858. After having paid out two and a half miles from each vessel, owing to an accident on board the *Niagara*, the Cable parted.

FAILURE NUMBER SEVEN.

The ships having again met, the splice was made good, and they commenced to pay out the Cable a second time; but after they had each paid out forty miles, it was reported that the current was broken, and no communication could be made between the ships. Unfortunately, in this in-

stance, the breakage must have occurred at the bottom, as the electrician, from the fine calculations which their sensitive instruments allowed them to make, were able to declare such to have been the fact, even before the vessels came together again. Having cast off this loss, they met for the third time, and recovered the connection of the Cable on the 28th. They then started afresh, and the *Niagara*, having paid out over one hundred and fifty miles of Cable, all on board entertained the most sanguine anticipations of success, when the fatal announcement was made upon Tuesday, the 29th, at 9 P.M., that the electric current had ceased to flow. As the necessity of abandoning the project for the present was now only too manifest, it was considered that the opportunity might as well be availed of to test the strength of the Cable. Accordingly, the *Niagara*, with all her stores, was allowed to swing to the Cable, and, in addition, a strain of four tons was placed upon the brakes, yet, although it was blowing fresh at the time, the Cable held her as if she was at anchor, for over an hour, when a heavy pitch of the sea snapped the Cable, and the *Niagara* bore away for Ireland. Before starting, an arrangement was made that should any accident occur in giving out the Cable before the ships had gone one hundred miles, they were to return to their starting-place in mid-ocean; but that, in case that distance should have been exceeded, before any casualty happened, they should make for Queenstown. In accordance with this understanding, the *Niagara*, having made one hundred and nine miles before this mishap, returned to Queenstown, arriving July 5th. The *Agamemnon* arrived on the 12th. On the 6th of July the £1,000 shares of the Company receded from £600 to £200. Nothing daunted, however, the entire fleet was again under way on the 17th, bound to the mid-ocean rendezvous.

THIRD EXPEDITION, AND ITS FAILURE.

On the 28th they met, and on the 29th, at 1 P.M., the splice was made, and the vessels started for their respective destinations. On the 4th of August THE CABLE WAS LAID, and the Old World and the New were in telegraphic communication with one another. But the communication was not continuous, nor had it been. On the 29th July, at 7.45 P.M., the signals along the wire ceased. At 9.10 they again resumed. Upon the landing of the cable, the continuity was again found to be disturbed. The wires were at first worked with the RUHMKORFF induction-coils and a SMEE'S battery, and afterward with a DANIELL battery; but the current was for the most part so weak as scarcely to work the most delicate relay, susceptible to an impulse that can hardly be perceived on the tongue. The effect was indicated at the Newfoundland station by the reflection of a delicate galvanometer, and at Valentia, in Ireland, by that of the reflecting galvanometer of Professor WILLIAM THOMPSON, the effect of which is to multiply the movement in a ray of light reflected from a mirror attached to a very delicate magnetic needle. This ray being thrown upon a surface at some distance, a movement of the needle, which is otherwise imperceptible, may be even measured upon a graduated scale. The transmitted current was so weak during much of the time that the cable continued in action, that every expedient of this kind was necessary to render the signals perceptible. From the first there appears to have been a defect in the part of the cable laid by the *Niagara*, which defect was noticed on the day after starting; and it is generally believed that the very im-

perfect signals which followed the landing of the cable, and lasted until the 20th of October following, were attributable to this original defect. Between those two dates 129 messages were sent from Valentia to Newfoundland, and 271 in the other direction. The number of words in the former direction were 1,474, and in the latter 2,885. The first message was from Queen VICTORIA to President BUCHANAN; and the last intelligible signal was: "Two hundred and forty t——k——Daniells now in circuit." It afterwards appeared that the complete message was: "Two hundred and forty trays and seventy-two liquid Daniells now in circuit." This indicated the enormous electrical power which was used to force through the now dislocated wire the last dying throbs it was destined to transmit. The power thus employed was over a thousand times what would have been acquired, even at that time, in an ordinarily well insulated conductor to give perfect signals to the mirror-galvanometer. The hopelessness of endeavoring to work the line was but too plain; and it was accordingly abandoned after as much of the shore ends were recovered as possible.

THE COST.

The cost of the Atlantic cable was as follows: for 2,500 miles, at $485 per mile, $1,212,500; for 10 miles, at $1,250 per mile, $12,500; and for 25 miles of shore ends, at same price, $31,250; making altogether $1,256,250. Up to December 1, 1858, the expenditures of the company had amounted to $1,834,500.

THE PRESENT EXPEDITION—THE FOURTH.

The company having resolved not to give up the enterprise, at once took steps to carry it to a successful termination. New capital was raised, a new cable made, new privileges were obtained, and the *Great Eastern* chartered to lay the cable. But they now embark upon their great mission under very altered circumstances. Since 1858, submarine telegraphy has taken great strides. Previous to that period but 945 miles of insulated wire had been laid, as follows:

		Miles.
1854.	Sweden to Denmark	36
1854.	Italy to Corsica	660
1854.	Corsica to Sardinia	60
1855.	Egypt	40
1856.	Newfoundland to Cape Breton	85
1856.	Prince Edward's Island to New Brunswick	12
1857.	Norway, across Fiords	49
1857.	Across mouths of Danube	3
	Total	945

But since then over 6000 miles of submarine telegraph have been successfully laid down and worked, as follows:

		Miles.
1858.	England to Holland	560
1858.	England to Hanover	560
1858.	Norway, across Fiords	16
1859.	Alexandria	8
1859.	England to Denmark	1,050
1859.	Sweden to Gottland	64
1859.	Folkstone to Boulogne	144
1859.	Liverpool to Holyhead	50

		Miles.
1859.	Across rivers in India	10
1859.	Malta to Sicily	60
1859.	England to Isle of Man	36
1860.	Jersey to Piron, France	21
1860.	France to Algiers	560
1860.	Corfu to Otranto	80
1861.	Toulon to Corsica	60
1861.	Malta to Alexandria	1,518
....	Other lines since	2,000
	Total	6,757

The peculiar condition of insulated wires has been closely observed, and many improvements have taken place in the instruments used for telegraphing and for determining force of currents, &c. Beyond all, the grand generalization of HERBERT SPENCER on the nature of electricity sets at rest a theory which, although it had agitated the minds of scientific men for some time past, had not until lately found an exponent of sufficient genius to impress upon it the stamp of genuineness and truth. That theory is in effect, that in the transmission of intelligence along a wire by the aid of electricity, it is not the flow of the electric current, as it is called, which conveys the message, but the impulse given to the molecules of iron composing the wire. In other words, no current of electricity passes along the wire; but a shock or impulse is experienced by the first molecule and transmitted instantaneously to all the succeeding ones, and thus at one end is repeated the signal which was made at the other. In the same manner the shock experienced at one end of a log, when it is struck by a simple blow at the other end, may be the means of conveying a signal, albeit nothing actually passes along the log.

But this is not all. We have learnt many things of importance in telegraphy besides this, which, unlike the great theory on hand already mentioned, have passed into the domain of accepted and practical truths. Since the first Atlantic line was laid, the advance that has been made by the scientific world towards comprehending electrical phenomena is very great. Electric science has passed, since that time, from its childhood to its maturity. So far as the phenomena connected with long electric circuits were concerned, we had in 1858 no knowledge whatever. The instruments in common use were unsuited to receiving signals through a great length of cable; the necessity of providing for the conductor an insulation so perfect as to approach an absolute condition was inadequately appreciated. The best preliminary test for a long cable had not not been devised, and the old Atlantic telegraph was laid without having been subjected to any searching test on shore. Everybody had advice to give concerning the management of the wire, but no one recommended the precautions which subsequent experience has shown to be necessary. When the signals began to fail the battery power was augmented, and electro-magnetic induction coils, which rapidly helped on the destruction of the conductor, were put in circuit. No one thought of "nursing" the cable—of humoring its feeble attempts at articulate utterance, and of finding out what it said, rather by listening acutely, than by constantly calling on it to "Speak up!" The old cable, however, is dead and gone; part of it has been picked up and applied to ignoble uses, and part of it—the greater part—has been abandoned, and lies where it may rest until the end of time.

THE NEW ATLANTIC CABLE.

The new Atlantic cable now lies on board the *Great Eastern*. A late letter thus describes the appearance of the big ship:

SCENES ON BOARD THE GREAT EASTERN.

The *Great Eastern* looks just now more like an engineer's workshop than a seagoing vessel. The vast expanses of her deck are covered with wooden sheds and piles of timber. There are smiths' forges below, and between the decks you might fancy yourself in a machinist's factory. The great engines of the ship, it is true, have lost the bright look of machinery which is in constant use; and the huge dull masses of iron seem asleep, or in a trance. If you descend the ladders which lead to the boilers and furnaces—an expedition which is more like going down a mine than any other to which it can be compared—you find yourself in the midst of darkness, solitude and cold; but in those regions of the vessel where the cable is being shipped and watched there is every sign of keen, vigilant intelligence. When you understand what is being done, you see something more than this—that scientific foresight of the highest order directs every step; and that the thick tarry rope, coarse and rough to appearance, which lies coiled away under water in the tanks of the ship, is manufactured, scanned and tested with as much care as the nicest optical instrument in an astronomer's observatory, or the most delicate apparatus of fragile glass ever applied to the careful experiments of chemistry.

THE SCIENTIFIC TESTS.

It seems impossible that there can be any fault in the Atlantic cable when the *Great Eastern* goes to sea. To say nothing of the tests applied to it at the manufactory, it is tested not alone after it has been taken on board, but during its delivery into the ship. As soon as a length is brought alongside, one end is connected with the coils already on board, and the other end with the instruments in the testing room. The circuit is thus made through the whole extent of the coil, the portion on board and the portion alongside. The process of hauling in then commences, and the insulation is continuously observed. The instruments in the testing room record the smallest deviation from absolutely perfect insulation.

Indeed, from first to last, it has been subjected to a series of the most searching electrical tests, the standard of insulation being fixed at a resistance, per nautical mile, equal to 150,000,000 of SIEMEN'S units, at a temperature of 75 degrees—a standard wholly unprecedented in any former work of the kind. In actual practice these tests, great as they were, have been considerably exceeded, and the present Atlantic cable has come out successfully from a series of trials of the most critical character. It will be understood that an insulation which shall be quite perfect, as an electrician understands the word, is not attainable. A piece of metal separated by means of the purest glass, and enclosed in the driest atmosphere that can be obtained, will, if charged with electricity, lose that electricity after a time. In speaking of insulation we must therefore be understood to mean an approximate condition; but the approximation in the case of the new Atlantic cable comes so near to perfection that this rough tarry rope is a scientific wonder.

The last dying pulsation of the old Atlantic cable was forced through it by means of a galvanic battery consisting of two hundred and forty cells. The submarine telegraph from London to Amsterdam is habitually worked with a battery of fifty cells, and such a battery is commonly used for the other submarine lines of Europe. Signals have been repeatedly sent

through more than thirteen hundred miles of the cable now on board the *Great Eastern* by means of one cell. Galvanic currents so feeble that they could not have been felt by the hand, and might have been passed harmlessly through a circuit completed by the operator's tongue, can be used to convey messages along a length of cable that would very nearly stretch from London to St. Petersburgh. Over needle instruments, such as those in ordinary use for land telegraphy, a current from one cell would be powerless.

To record such faint pulsations of electricity it is necessary to use Professor Thompson's mirror galvanometer. This beautiful instrument consists of a mirror about the size of a fourpenny piece, made of microscope glass, and so thin that it weighs only a grain. On the back of this mirror a minute magnet is fixed, and thus supplemented it is suspended by a silken fibre in the heart of a coil of wire, so that any current passing through the coil deflects the magnet and the mirror along with it. A ray of light reflected by the mirror falls on a scale, distant about eighteen or twenty inches, and reveals its faintest movements. Different combinations of these movements represent the different letters of the alphabet, and thus the apparently erratic wanderings of a ray of light are made to convey intelligence. An instrument of this kind is constantly used to test the cable, as it is hauled on board; and if any fault had existed it could not have passed without detection. Up to this time no fault has been discovered.

Another of the tests employed was soaking separately each joint of the gutta-percha covering for twenty-four hours in warm water, previous to passing the electric current through. A third, and perhaps the most trying and continuous test, was that of allowing no part of the cable to be out of the water, except merely while *in transitu* from one reservoir to the other; and in connection with this it may be mentioned that the wrapping of jute yarn, which forms the padding, around which the external wires are spun, instead of being soaked in tar, as in other cables, which has the effect of temporarily stopping up and concealing minute flaws, has simply being tanned to preserve it decay, thus admitting the water to search out every part of the cable, and keep it, in fact, constantly surrounded with a wrapping of wet yarn.

THE PAYING-OUT MACHINE.

This beautiful machine is an improved and extended copy, as far as general principle is concerned, of that used on board the *Agammemnon* during the first memorable attempts. Its improvements and modifications, however, are very great. Though stronger and much larger, it is very much lighter, being almost entirely of wrought iron. It has six leading wheels, round which the cable passes in deep grooves, before which it will be finally submerged. Each groove in these six wheels is surmounted by what is termed a jockey-pulley—that is to say, a solid wheel, which keeps the rope down in the groove, and prevents it over-riding or getting out of place. The main drum is about seven feet in diameter, and in paying-out will have three coils of cable round it, with a guiding piece of wrought iron pressing on them sideways to keep them compactly together. As the friction on the guider is great and constant, a duplicate is provided in case of heating, which can be put in gear, with the rest of the machinery with

out the slightest stop on any part. A second drum has also been fitted, in case of anything going wrong with the first. Each of these drums is fitted with a distinct set of simple and most ingenious brakes, invented by Mr. APPOLD for the first expedition. The ordinary condition of these brakes is to maintain a sufficient check upon the drum to keep a strain of say 30 cwt. or 40 cwt. upon the ropes going out, but it constantly happens that a sudden risk of the ship's stern from a wave, gives the cable a strain that requires the instant removal of the brakes to relieve it. This is accomplished by a dynameter placed on the cable after it leaves the paying-out machine and before it passes over the wheel astern into the Atlantic. This dynameter is only a heavy wheel resting on the rope, but fixed in an upright frame, which allows it to slide freely up and down, and on this frame are marked the figures which show exactly the strain in pounds on the cable. Thus when the strain is low the cable slackens, and the dynameter sinks low with it; when, on the contrary, the strain is great, the cable is drawn "taut," and on it the dynameter rises to its full height. When it sinks too low, the cable is generally running away too fast, and the brakes have to be applied to check it: when, on the contrary, it rises rapidly, the tension is dangerous, and the brakes have to be almost opened to relieve it. The simplicity of the arrangement for opening and shutting the brakes is the most beautiful of all. Opposite the dynameter is placed a tiller-wheel, and the man in charge of this never lets it go nor slackens his attention for an instant, but watches the rise and fall of the dynameter as a sailor at the wheel watches his compass. A single movement of this wheel to the right puts the brakes on, a turn to the left opens them. A good and experienced brakesman will generally contrive to acoid either extreme of a high or low strain, though there are few duties connected with the laying of submarine cables which are more anxious and more responsible while they last than those connected with the management of the brakes.

THE IMMERSION.

The machinery for paying out is being put together at the Greenwich works. The process of immersion will take about a fortnight. The beginning of the shore end will be laid by a small vessel, which will meet the *Great Eastern* about twenty miles from the Irish coast. The cable will then be passed on board, connected with that in the great tanks, and the big ship will begin her voyage. To the uninitiated this process of cutting and joining the cable appears very mysterious, but the engineers, who are used to the work, face it without any hesitation. The joints do not really endanger the insulation or the strength of the cable, as wherever they are made the external and conducting wires are spliced along a considerable length—sometimes not less than thirty yards—and the gutta percha carefully put on in separate layers, firmly pressed together by means of warm irons. The completeness of the joint is tested by laying it in an insulated metallic vessel containing water, and ascertaining by means of tests applied to this vessel, whether any electricity escapes from the joint as a current is passed along the cable.

In order to guard against any possible sources of accident, every preparation has been made in case of the worst, and, in the event of very bad weather, for cutting the cable adrift and buoying it. For this purpose a

wire rope of great strength, and no less than five miles long, having a distinctive mark at every one hundred fathoms, will be taken in the *Great Eastern*. This, of course, is carried in case of desperate eventualities arising, and in the earnest hope that not an inch of it will ever be required. If, unfortunately, its services should be wanted, the cable would be firmly made fast to its extremity and so many hundred fathoms of the wire rope according to the depth of water the cable was in measured out. To the other end of the rope an immense buoy would be attached, and the whole then cut adrift and left to itself till better weather. In the experimental cruises which were undertaken before before the starting of the last Atlantic expedition this attempt at buoying the cable was often tried in the deep water of the Bay of Biscay, but never with any great success, and in very deep water it would be a most forlorn hope indeed to try it at all.

THE MERCANTILE ADVANTAGES OF THE CABLE.

We have now to speak of the advantages which commerce will derive from the completion of the Atlantic telegraph. To say that it saves time and economises effort, is to present to the mind a generalization too broad for ready appreciation. But the benefits derivable from this great work are so innumerable, that a mere list of them would not only be difficult to make, but fatiguing to read.

In order, therefore, to get a tolerable idea of the value of the Atlantic cable, let us resort to an illustration. Fill a flat dish with water, and see-saw it. Will the water always follow the inclination of the dish? Of course it will. But will the movements of the one always be identical in point of time with the movements of the other? No. If the dish is see-sawed quickly, the water may be seen running up one end of the dish while the other end is tilted downwards. This phenomenon is caused by the momentum which the water had gained before the direction of the tilting was changed, and until that momentum was overcome by a new inclination of the dish, it continued to impel the water in a direction contrary to that which was exerted by the force of gravitation.

So, in commerce, the products of the world, which, if left free to move naturally, would be attracted towards the most profitable markets, are frequently impelled towards unprofitable ones, because the knowledge of which are the best ones becomes known in most cases only after the product has been already shipped to an unprofitable one.

All this waste of effort—all this source of mercantile loss and embarrassment ceases where the telegraph is established. Goods then go only where they are wanted, and always find a profitable market. *The markets of the world become equalised*, and equalisation is economy and wealth to all mankind.

SOCIAL ADVANTAGES.

Finally, when the social advantages of the Atlantic telegraph are considered, it is seen to be a work not only of importance to the world's thrift, but to its morality and social advancement.

The universal postulate is belief; and mankind only war against one another from entertaining opposite beliefs. No agency has ever existed, nor ever will exist, so potent to dispel misunderstandings and to reconcile beliefs, as knowledge; and what is the telegraph but a means of transmit-

ting knowledge! The Old World, by the Atlantic telegraph, will be drawn towards the New, and the New towards the Old. Our interests will become more identical, our beliefs more reconcilable; the artificial demarcation occasioned by our respective forms of government will disappear, the people of Europe and America, instead of being called English, French, Germans, Spaniards, Prussians, Yankees, Mexicans, &c., will be called simply the people of Europe or America. Nationalities will gradually become less marked, the legislation of different countries will be more and more assimilated, races and creeds will melt into one another, civilization and enlightenment will penetrate the darkest corners of barbarism and error, and the earth will eventually become, what natural laws tend to make it when unobstructed by such impediments as ignorance and restraint, one vast land teeming with wealth and plenty, and peopled by a numberless community secure in the enjoyment of universal peace and happiness.

THE MODE OF RESTORATION OF THE REBEL STATES TO THE UNION.

BY CHARLES P. KIRKLAND, OF NEW YORK.

The term "reconstruction," as applied to the rebel States, though often used, is used very inaccurately, not to say injuriously. It implies *ex vi termini*, the previous *destruction* of that which is to be *re*-constructed. In the case before us it implies that those States, *as States of the Union*, are destroyed; that they do not now exist as such; consequently, that the ordinances of secession were valid; and again, consequently, that a State has the *power* to withdraw from the Union. It admits the power and the *right* of secession.

This is an error as palpable as it is dangerous, and should not for a moment be sanctioned even by inference or implication. No. Those States, *as States*, have never for an hour in a *constitutional and legal sense* been *out* of the Union; they have ever been and now are substantive and component parts of it as truly as Massachusetts or Ohio. Very much has been written on the subject of the *right* of a State to secede from the Union, so much indeed, that the intellectual argument may well be said to be exhausted. It may with equal truth be said that further argument is wholly useless, inasmuch as the question is forever settled, and a judgement alike solemn, unappealable and irresistible has been pronounced by the only sovereign power—the people.

If the mighty war, through which we have just passed and in which we have so entirely and gloriously triumphed, has established any doctrine or principle whatever, it is "that no State has the right or power to, or by any possibility *can*, withdraw from the Union, except by an amendment of the Constitution permitting it." The fatal heresy on this subject prevailing so extensively in the rebel States was, as has been already mentioned, one of the instrumentalities by which the leading conspirators were enabled to inaugurate the Rebellion; it was a direfully active agent in this fratricidal work; to impress on it the seal of everlasting condemnation and

sweep it, as an operative principle, forever from existence, was one of the objects as it is one of the blessed results of the war.

This judgment of condemnation, obtained by more than four years of deadly conflict and at such an amazing expenditure of life and of treasure, stands, and will ever stand, a proud monument of the intelligent understanding by the American people of the true nature of their Union, of their earnest devotion to it, and of their determination that it shall be *perpetual.* Never again can this wicked delusion have any practical influence or perceptible existence in this country or in any part of it; it has lived its day, it has performed its unhallowed work of attempting the national *death*, and has in the attempt met *its own;* it now lies buried in a grave of infamy without the hope or possibility of resurrection. If, after all this, any man in America is found still to cling to that delusion, and to write or to speak in its advocacy, his bitterest enemy could wish him no worse punishment than he will receive in the pity, the contempt and disgust that will await him on every side.

In determining then the mode of *restoration* of those States, the very starting point, the first step in the process, is the postulate, that, one and all, they have never ceased, since their admission into the Union, to be, and that they now are members of it, States within it.* With this rule as the guide, and with a faithful adherence to it, all difficulties in the way of restoration vanish.

It may be asked what is meant by "restoration,' and what is the difference between that and "reconstruction." The meaning of the latter has already been stated; the necessity for the use of the former term arises from the fact that through the unconstitutional, illegal and void acts of citizens of those States, those States and the people thereof have for a period *practically* omitted to exercise their rights, enjoy their privileges, and perform their duty in the Union; though *in the family*, they have been refractory, rebellious and disobedient members; their rebellion being at an

*How well is this truth stated in a letter from General Sherman dated at Savannah, January 8, 1865, to a citizen of Georgia. He says: "Georgia is not out of the Union, and therefore the talk of "reconstruction" appears to me inappropriate. Some of the people have been and still are in a state of revolt: and as long as they remain armed and organized, the United States must pursue them with armies and deal with them according to military law. But as soon as they break up their armed organizations and return to their homes, I take it they will be dealt with by the civil courts. Some of the rebels in Georgia, in my judgment, deserve death, because they have committed murder, and other crimes, which are punished with death by all civilized governments on earth. You may rest assured that the Union will be preserved, cost what it may. And if you are sensible men you will conform to this order of things, or else migrate to some other country. There is no other alternative open to the people of Georgia.

"My opinion is that no negotiations are necessary, nor commissioners, nor conventions, nor any thing of the kind. Whenever the people of Georgia quit rebelling against their Government, then the State of Georgia will have resumed her functions in the Union. It seems to me that it is time for the people of Georgia to act for themselves, and return, in time, to their duty to the Government of their fathers."

end and they desiring to be again in the enjoyment of their wonted rights and privileges, and in the performance of their duties as members of the family (from which they have been for a season separated *in fact* but not *in law*), the question is how that "restoration" is to be effected. This brief "statement of the case" explains clearly the meaning of the term "restoration," and shows the propriety of its use.

1. A necessary consequence of the proposition above stated (viz., that no State has been, or is now, out of the Union) is, that all acts of any bodies of men in those States by whatever name called, conventions, legislatures, congress, designed or intended and performed for the purpose of withdrawing that State from the Union, and all acts consequent on or produced by such attempted withdrawal or designed to aid in its practical carrying out, are each and every of them *merely void*:* so as to all sim-

*This has been emphatically and solemnly declared in a recent executive paper of President Johnson, in which he pronounces "that all acts and proceedings of the political, military and civil organizations which have been in a state of insurrection and rebellion within the State of Virginia against the authority and laws of the United States, and of which Jefferson Davis, John Letcher and William Smith were late the respective chiefs, are declared null and void.

"All persons who shall exercise, claim, pretend or attempt to exercise any political, military or civil power, authority, jurisdiction or right, by, through or under Jefferson Davis, late of the city of Richmond, and his confidants, or under John Letcher or William Smith and their confidants, or under any pretended political, military or civil commission or authority issued by them or of them, since the 17th day of April, 1861, shall be deemed and taken as in Rebellion against the United States, and shall be dealt with accordingly.

"The Secretaries of State, War, Treasury, Navy, Interior, and Postmaster General are ordered to proceed to put in force all laws of the United States pertaining to their several departments, and the District Judge of said district to proceed to hold courts within said States, in accordance with the provisions of the acts of Congress. The Attorney-General will instruct the proper officers to libel and bring to judgment, confiscation and sale property, subject to confiscation, and enforce the administration of justice within said State, in all matters civil and criminal within the cognizance of the Federal courts; to carry into effect the guaranty of the Federal Constitution of a republican form of State Government, and afford the advantage and security of domestic laws, as well as to complete the re-establishment of the authority of the laws of the United States, and the full and complete restoration of peace within the limits aforesaid. Francis H. Pierpoint, Governor of the State of Virginia, will be aided by the Federal Government so far as may be necessary in the lawful measures which he may take for the extension and administration of the State Government throughout the geographical limits of said State."

The case is also very strongly and truly put by General Wilson, in the following letter to the rebel Governor Brown: "Headquarters Cavalry Corps, M. D. M., Macon, Ga., May 9, 1865, 2:30 P. M. Sir—In pursuance of instructions received this day from Hon. E. M. Stanton, Secretary of War, I have the honor to inform you that your telegram of the 7th inst., forwarded by my sanction, has been laid before the President of the United States, and the following are his reply and orders:

"1. That the collapse in the currency and the great destitution of provisions

ilar acts of any pretended executive or judicial authority, the creature of Rebellion. This proposition would seem self-evident; the thing created must derive its vitality and power from its creator; and where the latter is wholly and absolutely baseless, is without a particle of the spirit of life, and whose death in a constitutional and legal sense was precisely contemporaneous with its appearance, in such a case, the attempted or pre-

---

among the people of Georgia, mentioned in your telegram, have been caused by treason, insurrection and rebellion against the laws of the United States, incited and carried on for the last four years by you and your confederate rebels and traitors, who alone are responsible for all the waste, destitution and want now existing in that State.

"2. What you call 'the result which the fortunes of war have imposed upon the people of Georgia,' and all the loss and woe they have suffered, are charged upon you and your confederate rebels, who have usurped the authority of the State and assumed to act as its Governor and Legislature, made acts treasonable to the United States, and by means of that usurped authority provoked the war to extremity, until compelled by superior force to lay down their arms and accept the result which 'the fortunes of war' have imposed upon the people of Georgia, as the just penalty of the crimes of treason and rebellion.

"That the restoration of peace and order cannot be intrusted to rebels and traitors who destroyed the peace and trampled down the order that had existed more than half a century in Georgia, a great and prosperous State. The persons who incited the war and carried it on at so great a sacrifice to the people of Georgia, and of all the United States, will not be allowed to assemble, at the call of their accomplice, to act again as a legislature of the State, and again usurp its authorities and franchises. Men whose crimes spilled so much blood of their fellow citizens, and poured so much woe upon the people, destroyed the finances, currency and credit of the State, and reduced the poor to destitution, will not be allowed to usurp legislative power that might be intended to set on foot fresh acts of treason and rebellion. In calling them together without permission of the President, you have perpetrated a fresh crime, that will be dealt with accordingly. I am further directed to inform you, that the President of the United States will, without delay, exert all the lawful powers of his office to relieve the people of Georgia from destitution, by delivering them from the bondage of military tyranny which avowed rebels and traitors long have imposed alike upon poor and rich.

"The President hopes that by restoring peace and order, giving security to life, liberty and property, by encouraging trade, arts, manufactures, and every species of industry, to recover the financial credit of the State, and develop its great resources, the people will again soon be able to rejoice under the Constitution and laws of the United States, and of their own State, in the prosperity and happiness they once had. To all good people who return to their allegiance, liberality will be exercised.

"If any person shall presume to answer or acknowledge the call mentioned in your telegram to the President, I am directed to cause his immediate arrest and imprisonment, and hold him subject to the orders of the War Department.

"I am, sir, very respectfully, your obedient servant,

"J. H. Wilson,
Brevet Major-General."

"Joseph E. Brown, Milledgeville, Ga.

tended creations from such an origin all partake of its character; all fall with it; all are equally inoperative, void and dead *ab origine*. Here the parent, the source of every thing subsequent, was the ordinance of secession; on this was based the *new* State, the new constitution, congress, legislatures, every thing; not a moment of real vital existence have any of them had, because the ordinance was wholly and absolutely null and *void for the reasons already stated.*

It is of the last importance to adhere throughout to the proposition, that no rebel State has been, or is now, out of the Union, and to accept the *legitimate* practical results of that proposition, whatever they may be. Nor need any apprehension be entertained as to those practical results, if the views above stated, as to the "reconstruction of society," and the "treatment of the rebels indivfdually," are adopted and truly carried out. Let this be done, (and, as has already been shown, *it can be done,*) and not many months, surely not a long period will elapse before that region will be cleared of the *leading spirits* of the Rebellion by their punishment or flight, or if they remain, by their quiet and grateful submission to the Constitution and laws of their country; within a period not longer, the prejudices, asperities and delusions of *others* will disappear before the resistless light of truth, and the great bulk of the people will embrace with earnest joy the blessings of the mild and paternal Government of their country in exchange for the horrors of tyranny, despotism, and war, which they have so bitterly experienced during the last four years. Then, whether under existing or new State constitutions and laws, that people will become, more emphatically than they have ever yet been, worthy citizens of the Republic and safe depositories of the power reposed in them by the fundamental principles of this Government.

But not till then will there be peace, quiet, real and true reconciliation and harmony, whatever course may be adopted by the executive or legislative authorities of the Union.

It may be asked what is to be the condition of those States and the inhabitants thereof till this state of things is reached. The answer is, that they must, *ex necessitate rei*, remain in their present anomalous condition —but it is to be remembered that the duration of this condition longer or shorter *depends entirely on themselves.* They can be relieved from it, if they so elect, immediately.* The constitution and laws of each rebel

* The following order for the military re-districting of the State of Virginia shows the *modus operandi* during this interval: "*First.*—The sub-district of the Roanoke, Blackwater, and Appomattox, as hereinafter designated, will constitute the District of the Nottaway, under command of Major-General George L. Hartsuff, headquarters at Petersburg. *Second*—The counties of Accomac, Northampton, Fortress Monroe, and the sub-district of the Peninsula, as hereinafter designated, will constitute the District of Fortress Monroe, under command of Brevet Major-General Nelson A. Miles, headquarters at Fortress Monroe. *Third*—The counties of Princess Anne, Norfolk, Nansemond, Southampton, and Isle of Wight, will constitute the District of Eastern Virginia, under command of Brigadier-General G. H. Gordon, headquarters at Norfolk. *Fourth*—The counties of Nelson, Amherst, Bedford, Campbell, Appomattox, Fittsylvania, Henry, Patrick, and Franklin will constitute the District of Lynchburg, under command of Brevet Brigadier-General J. Irwin Gregg. *Fifth*—The county of

State, as they pre-existed the ordinance of secession, are at this moment the constitution and laws of that State. This may to some seem a startling, nay, an inadmissible proposition; but when examined it will be found strictly true and practically safe and beneficent. It must constantly be borne in mind, that those State constitutions and laws are by the very *fundamental* principles of our Union *subordinate to the Constitution of the United States and to all legislative and executive acts conformable to the Constitution.* The Constitution and those constitutional acts are the "supreme law of the land." Consequently, taking for example the State of South Carolina, at this very moment she is in a state of Union, with her constitution and laws as they existed on the 20th of December, 1860, with such modifications, changes, and variations as are created by any acts of the executive or legislative power of the United States conformable to the Constitution of the United States *and now in force.* Thus, the provisions of the constitution, laws, and customs of South Carolina as to slavery are wholly done away by the Emancipation Proclamations of September, 1862, and January, 1863, if those proclamations were a *constitutional* exercise of power by the President; in which case *not a slave* now exists in that State. It is not proposed here to discuss the constitu-

---

Henrico will constitute a District, under command of Brigadier-General M. R. Patrick. *Sixth*—The counties of Mathews, Gloucester, New Kent, King William, Charles City, York, Warwick, and Elizabeth City, excepting Fortress Monroe, will constitute the sub-district of the Peninsula, under command of Brevet Brigadier-General B. C. Ludlow. *Seventh*—The counties of Middlesex, King and Queen, Essex, Caroline, Spottsylvania, and Orange, will constitute the sub-district of the Rappahannock, under command of Colonel E. V. Sumner, First New York Mounted Rifles. *Eighth*—The counties of Hanover, Louisa, Goochland, Fluvanna, Albemarle, and Greene, will constitute the sub-district of the South Anna, under command of Brevet Brigadier-General A. C. Vorris. *Ninth*—The counties of Surrey, Sussex, Greenville, Brunswick, Dinwiddie, and Prince George, will constitute the sub-district of the Blackwater, under command of Brevet Brigadier General McKibbin. *Tenth*—The counties of Mecklenburg, Lunenburg, Nottoway, Prince Edward, Charlotte, and Halifax, will constitute the sub-district of the Roanoke, under command of Brevet Major-General Ferrero. *Eleventh*—The counties of Chesterfield, Amelia, Powhatan, Cumberland, and Buckingham, will constitute the sub-district of the Appomattox, under command of Brevet Brigadier-General C. W. Smith. Commanders of districts and such of the sub-districts as are not included in any of the districts above described, will report direct to these headquarters, and will constitute separate brigades for the purpose of enabling the commanding officers to convene general courts-martial. The commanders of districts and sub-districts are made superintendents of Negro affairs within their respective limits." To the same import is the following extract from the *New Orleans Delta*, of May 25, 1865: "General Sheridan has assumed command of the Military Division of the Southwest, embracing the country west of the Mississippi and south of the Arkansas River. General Canby has divided the Department of the Gulf into the following four divisions—Louisiana, headquarters New Orleans; Mississippi headquarters Jackson; Alabama, headquarters Montgomery; Florida, headquarters Tallahassee. The citizens of Louisiana appear much gratified by the programme of the new military authorities."

ional and legal validity of those magnificent State papers, nor whether hey produced the effect desired and intended by the President. It is well known that he considered them clearly within his constitutional power, and that in his view they instantaneously struck the shackles from every slave in the rebel States.* Those proclamations are mentioned simply by way of illustration; the Confiscation Acts of Congress might be referred to for the same purpose, but it is deemed unnecessary at this time.

It is sufficient to say that, if those *executive and legislative* acts are authorized by the Constitution, they are at this moment the *law in South Carolina.* In our wonderful and beautiful though complicated system, not fully understood even among ourselves, and quite unintelligible to most foreigners, it is as vitally important to the people to preserve unimpaired *legitimate State* rights as it is to protect and preserve inviolate the rights and powers of the national Government. Occasionally a foreigner has perfectly clear and just conceptions on this subject, and when he adds to that accurate knowledge of our political system an enthusiastic admiration and a heartfelt love of our institutions, his views are entitled to the highest respect and consideration, and indeed should have the weight of authority. Of this class is the eminent and excellent Du Gasparin. His words at this juncture cannot be too deeply pondered, nor his warnings too carefully listened to by the American citizen. In his great work, "America before Europe," he says:† "The independence of the States must be protected with jealous care." "I counsel no measure that would not be strictly constitutional. I should have grossly contradicted myself if, after having advised Americans to preserve their institutions and retain them at the end of the war as they were at its beginning, I had urged them to violate them in their fundamental principle. The *liberty of the* STATES is no less important to be maintained than the *sovereignty of the nation.* A rebellion by the South *against the Constitution* should not be combated by a *similar rebellion* by the North. The two original features of the American organization should neither perish in the furnace of civil war. It will be glorious to see the United States come out of it with their *local* independence and their *national* unity alike unimpaired."

Whatever momentary inconveniences may be suffered from a rigid adherence to the fundamental doctrines (1.) that "no State *can secede* from the Union, except by an amendment of the Constitution," (2.) that the

* The question of the *effect* of these proclamations is at this moment of great practical importance, and will continue to be so till the constitutional amendment as to slavery is adopted by twenty-seven States. That this most desirable event will occur in the course of the next year can hardly be doubted; but as it may be longer delayed, it is not deemed out of place to add to this paper, by way of appendix, the writer's argument in favor of the constitutional validity of the proclamation of September, 1862. An additional reason for doing so is that that argument received the cordial approbation of President Lincoln, and as every thing from his pen since his martyrdom is an object of interest to his fellow-citizens, a copy of an autograph letter received from him is also given. That argument is reprinted *verbatim* as read by President Lincoln, in order that it may be seen exactly of what he spoke.

† "America before Europe," pp. 362, 367, 368. His other work, "The Uprising of a Great People," contains similar warnings.

rights of the *States* as States must be preserved inviolate; whatever those inconveniences may be, a just regard to the preservation of the Union and of the Constitution requires, that those doctrines be steadily kept in view, and on no pretence, in any degree, or in any manner, departed from. The present condition of the rebel States is simply this: The people of those States were in rebellion against the Government, and sought to destroy the Union by the overthrow of the Constitution; while in this condition, the performance of their duties and the fulfillment of their obligations as members of the Union, were by their own act prevented, and in a constitutional sense, their State functions in that regard (that is as members of the Union) were in a condition of suspension. The Rebellion is now ended in the only mode in which it could be ended, namely, by the total destruction of its military power; and those States never having been in a constitutional and legal sense out of the Union, but their duties, obligations, and privileges having been merely in a condition of practical suspense for a season, and that suspension being now terminated, they *ipso facto*, return to the fulfillment of those duties and obligations, and to the enjoyment of those privileges. Without inaccuracy of language, and without the danger of the implication of erroneous ideas, "restoration" to the Union, in a practical sense, may well be predicted of their present condition. The results which follow from this view of the matter are simple, safe, and intelligible.

Bear constantly in mind the fact, that the Constitution of the United States, and all constitutional acts of Congress and of the Executive *now in force*, are the *supreme law* in each of those States—and the further essential and indisputable fact, that there is now, and there need never cease to be, in each of those States abundant *national* military power to insure implicit obedience to that Constitution and those acts.* And where, then, is the difficulty in this mode of "restoration?" All the civil officers of the *nation* can safely perform their functions; her judicial tribunals can exercise their powers and carry into execution their decrees; taxes, external and internal, can be assessed and collected, and every *national* duty enforced. It has been demonstrated in a former part of this paper, that the requisite military power abundantly exists. It is said that any State (by way of example again, South Carolina) will not perform its duty to itself by resuming its internal State functions, either under its existing or under a new constitution; will not elect a governor or legislature, nor appoint judicial and other civil officers, nor send members to either branch of the national Congress? This, should it be the fact, would be a truly anarchical state of things; and at least, would indicate on the part of the people of that State, an utter disregard of all that the people of other States deem essential to

* General Thomas, in a letter of the 22d of May, 1865, to the Legislature of Tennessee, has well stated what will be done by him and by our Generals in every rebel State. He says: "I am prepared to assist the civil authorities in every part of the State, both by securing the officers from personal violence when in the execution of their office, in holding courts, &c., and assisting them to capture and bring to trial all persons who offer armed hostility to the State or National Government, and will so assist the civil authorities of the State as long as the National Government affords me the means of doing so."

their comfort, safety and well being. Yet of what imaginable consequence would it be to the United States, so long as that State (South Carolina) pays its taxes to the General Government, interferes in no manner with the collection of the national duties on imports at its seaports, and offers no obstruction to the due and regular execution of the national laws through the national judicial tribunals; in other words, so long as the Constitution and laws of the United States are fully operative? It has already been shown that the nation has now, and never will cease to have, the full and effective means of enforcing obedience to the national Constitution and laws in any State that has been in rebellion; and if obedience is not rendered voluntary it can and will be compelled. Again, if that State refuses or neglects to appoint Senators or elect Representatives to the national Congress, no harm is done to the *nation;* the State absurdly and injuriously to itself throws away its privileges, but in so doing it inflicts no wound, not the slightest, on the nation; the national Senate and House are convened and organized as usual, and pass laws operative and binding alike on the people of every State, that State which chooses to be unrepresented and that which has its full delegation in each House. Suppose that the State of New York, or of Illinois, in a fit of senseless passion, neglected or refused to be represented in Congress, the wheels of the national Government would not thereby be arrested or even clogged for a moment in their workings; those States would render a voluntary or a compulsory obedience to the laws of the nation, and the loss by their wayward conduct would be to them as States and not to the nation. The remarks, applied to South Carolina by way of illustration, of course, equally apply to every State that has been in rebellion; and it is thus seen that all that concerns the United States, *the nation*, is *that obedience be rendered to her Constitution and laws*, and that if any State chooses to be, in a domestic point of view, in a condition of anarchy, and sees fit to deprive itself of its rightful power and influence in the national councils, the detriment under our wise and beautifully devised system is confined to that State, is local and territorial, and in no degree, not even the least, extends to the *nation*, or in any manner affects its power or prosperity, or retards its resistless onward-progress. But will South Carolina—will any State thus stultify itself? Will she deprive herself of the countless blessings of a well-ordered State Government; introduce *domestic* anarchy and discord; cast away her right of representation in the Legislature of the country? Why should she? No motive can be imagined for a course so suicidal and of such unmixed absurdity and folly; and it may well be believed that the world will never be called on to witness a spectacle so miserable and so revolting.

It is manifest from the foregoing consideration that the great duty of the Government of the Union under existing circumstances is, first: To adopt sure and unfailing measures to obtain obedience in every State and in every section of every State to the *national* Constitution and laws; to permit no violations of duty and no departures from loyalty to the *Union* by any man or any set of men; to tolerate nowhere any thing calculated or intended to preserve or foster the infernal spirit that led to the Rebellion—but on the contrary to adopt and pursue practically all such measures as will *extirpate that spirit for ever*. As has already been suggested to accomplish these necessary and indispensable ends military force may

for a season (longer or shorter, according to the *will of that people*), be absolutely requisite; and, as has also been stated, this great nation has now, and always can have that force to the utmost required extent.

A second and an equally solemn and imperative duty of the national Government, is to preserve inviolate the rights guaranteed to *the States* by the national Constitution. Among those rights, confessedly are: (1.) The right to have such Constitution and such laws for their interior and domestic government as they see fit, subject only to the condition that the "form of Government" shall, in the language of the national Constitution, be "republican."

(2.) The right to prescribe the qualifications of electors, that is, who shall and who shall not possess the elective franchise. It is very clear that without an amendment of the national Constitution, the national Government cannot interfere in this matter. But practically speaking, that Government has, under the Constitution, the full power to protect *itself* against any improper or injurious exercise of that power by the people of a State, for, first, each House is "the judge" of the qualifications of its own members, and thus can refuse admission to all deemed unsuitable or unworthy; and second, each House has the power of expulsion of members. Thus, if the Legislature or the electoral body in any State were so composed as to send to the Senate or to the House of Representatives a man dangerous to the Union, he could be refused a seat or deprived of it, if admitted. This is a perfect practical safeguard so far *as the nation* is concerned.

It is very clear from the foregoing considerations, that there is no lawful or constitutional mode in which the question of "negro suffrage" can be controlled or decided by the national Government; the sooner this fact is understood and appreciated, and acted on by all, the sooner will there be a real and effective pacification and harmony throughout the land. Some regard the extension of the elective franchise to the black equally with the white as vitally essential to the peace and well-being of the country. If this view is conceded to be correct, it is hoped that none entertaining it would desire to attain their ends at the cost of *a violation of the Constitution*. But if there are such, they form but an inconsiderable class of impracticable enthusiasts. The *people* resolve, and will take care, that the Constitution, the ark of our safety, be preserved wholly and absolutely from desecration. How then is this extension of suffrage, if admitted to be of the very highest importance, to be obtained? There are but two modes. First: An amendment of the Constitution in the mode prescribed by itself. Second: A steady perseverance in the work of the "reconstruction of society" in those States, and the consequent extinction there of the "spirit of the Rebellion," and the substitution in its place of the views, feelings and dispositions suited to the "new" state of things."

That this latter result, required as it is by the plainest and most persuasive considerations, *can* and will be effected has, it is believed, already been shown in this paper; and when effected, it is certain that this subject [of negro suffrage] will receive the most mature and enlightened consideration, and will be disposed of in such a manner as philanthropy, humanity and the best interests of civilization and of the country require. It is not a "whisper of fancy" nor a "phantom of hope" to believe and to assert,

that at an early period we shall witness such a "reconstruction of society" in the rebel States as is portrayed in the preceding pages; and, as is beyond doubt, *indispensable* to the present harmony and the future safety of the Republic. Let all who look with timid apprehension or gloomy foreboding at the present state and the immediate future of Southern society, remember these facts.

(1.) That the military force of the nation is, and will continue to be, fully adequate in every portion of every rebel State to preserve perfect peace and order; to suppress all exhibitions, by word or deed, of disloyalty to the country; to insure entire safety to the judicial tribunals of the Union in the performance of their functions, and to secure perfect respect and implicit obedience to their judgments; to enable all civil, ministerial and other officers of the Government to execute their duties, such as assessors and collectors of internal taxes, census enumerators, commissioners of confiscated estates, marshals, officers of the customs.

(2.) That there is and always has been a "leaven" of loyalty in every rebel State, which, though not sufficient to "leaven the whole lump," will materially aid now in all works requisite for social "reconstruction" and political "restoration."

(3.) The horrors of the last four years of war and of a despotism tyrannical and severe beyond precedent, render the great bulk of the people of that region not only willing but anxious to enjoy once more the blessings of peace, security and liberty.

(4.) The most obtuse and the most prejudiced rebel mind cannot fail to see in the *facts* of these four years, the most overwhelming evidence of his gross delusion in every important particular as to the *character* of his brethren of the North.

(5.) Self-interest, that great motor in human action, most palpably and most imperiously demands of those people a full and honest acquiescence in the "new" state of things; it demands of them a course of conduct which will at the earliest moment remove from among them the last remaining soldier of the Republic, and will place them as their fellow-citizens of the North are placed, in the perfect fruition of all the privileges of this, "the best Government in the world."

(6.) Let us all duly estimate the transcendent influences of a *free press* and of *free speech*, with which that portion of the Republic is now, for the first time in in its history, to be blessed, and by which it is to be instructed, elevated and refined.

(7.) Consider, too, the genuine brotherly feeling toward the people of the rebel States which pervades the universal North; no one among us is actuated by a spirit of revenge; no one calls for indiscriminate punishment, all desire and demand amnesty, except in a comparatively small number of cases, where the stern demands of justice and a due regard to the future safety of the Union require exemplary punishment and the necessity of which will be conceded alike by those people themselves, by us and by the civilized world. Who can estimate the kindly and emphatic influence on the people of the South of this generous, forgiving, fraternal feeling so universal at the North!

(8.) Commercial and business relations in all their diversified ramifications are fast being resumed between the two sections. What a bond of unity and concord is this! and how powerfully will it contribute not to "restore" matters to *their old condition*, but to create an infinitely better and happier personal and social intercourse between them and us.

(9.) Beyond question, the rebel States will hereafter be freed from the noxious presence of many a "slave aristocrat," many a "fire-eater," many a disturber of the harmony of the country: this will, indeed, be a great boon, and few, very few, will be found to shed a single tear over the voluntary or involuntary expatriation of such persons; scarcely any "so poor as to do them reverence."

(10.) The large addition that will almost immediately be made to the population of each of those States by citizens from the non-slaveholding States and by emigrants from the various countries of Europe, will subserve a highly useful purpose in the great matter of the "reconstruction of society," and the consequent preparation of the citizens of those States to perform well their duties as citizens of a Republic, in which a political and social aristocracy, founded on negro slavery, will no more be known for ever.

To a community *thus regenerated*, all questions affecting the public weal, the rights of the citizen, whether black or white, and especially the great right of suffrage, may safely be committed. Let it not be said that this regeneration may be long deferred or may never occur, for while it is believed *certain* that neither of these assertions will be verified by results, there can be no mistake in saying that patriotism and an enlightened love of the Union plainly declare, that the falsification even of those predictions would be attained at too costly a price by any, even the smallest, *violation of the Constitution.*

OUR FINANCIAL POLICY.

Much has been written during the past four years upon the national finances and currency. The country has been greatly excited, and many persons, moved more by their feelings than any intelligent appreciation of the questions at issue, have attempted to enlighten the public, who, unfortunately, greatly needed to be enlightened themselves; consequently we have had a great deal of idle speculation and senseless bombast about the vast resources of the country and its wonderful ability to bear unlimited taxation. We have heard of the millions of

> "Acres vacant still
> "The thousandth generation scarce can till;"

of its inexhaustible mines of iron, gold and petroleum; of the increasing stream of immigration, and the endless wealth which such an increase of population would produce; but of the actual financial policy of the country little has been written, except by interested partisans of the government on one side, or persons of doubtful loyalty on the other.

Candid, independent, scientific criticism has been wanting; owing, doubtless, to the fact that few persons have devoted to the subject that amount of thought, study and patient examination, without which nothing really valuable can be offered.

A small work of 220 pages has just made its appearance, which stands in striking contrast with most of those which the disturbed condition of the country has produced. It is entitled: "A Critical Examination of Our Financial Policy during the Southern Rebellion, by SIMON NEWCOMB;" published by D. APPLETON & Co., New York. It is the production of one evidently qualified to write upon the subject of finance, of one who has given long attention to the subject, and who well understands the laws of wealth.

In the first chapter, the writer recognizes "*The laws of trade as founded on human nature; that these laws are immutable, and cannot be violated with impunity.*"

The second chapter treats of "*The financial elements of military strength,*" and shows what the true uses of money are in times of war. The author lays down the very sensible proposition, that, "The military power of a nation is increased by the amount of industry which it can divert into the channels of war," and shows that what the nation really wants is *labor*; a certain number of days service from every inhabitant; that by the use of money, this may be accomplished in such a way that each person may be taxed equally, that is, his due proportion of the public contributions. This chapter is a very useful one, well worthy the attention of all persons, especially those called to legislate for the country.

"*Our debt and taxes*" form the subject of the next chapter, in which the author strongly advocates the policy of high taxation, as essential to the credit of the government and the permanent welfare of the nation. He discusses the propriety of exempting the public debt from taxation, and says, page 86:

"There is no reason why the owner of a government bond should not pay the same tax on it, as on any other property of the same kind. The man who loan money to the government does not thereby resign either the real ownership or the benefits of the money, for it is all returned to him; he ought, therefore, to pay the same taxes on it that he would pay if he had kept it for his own use." After further showing the great impolicy and injustice of exempting this class of bonds from taxation, he adds: "It is to be hoped, therefore, that in the sale of bonds hereafter authorized, the government will bind itself only to levy no higher taxes on them than on any other personal property."

In this wish of the writer, we think all sensible men must very heartily concur. But a small part of the bonds thus far given have a long period to run before it will be optional with the government to redeem them. The first issue of the 5-20's will soon be at the command of the government. There is not a large amount of 10-40's yet issued, so that within three to nine years it will be in the power of Congress, if the national credit remains good, to call in the old and issue new bonds, subject to the ordinary taxation of that kind of property.

It is of the utmost importance that this should be done, for nothing gives more dissatisfaction than the fact that holders of the public stocks are exempted from their just proportion of the public burdens.

These stocks can be found in every city, town and village in the coun-

try; hence the evil and the wrong is universally felt. This unwise and unjust exemption will do more to make the national debt odious, and endanger its utter repudiation, than any thing else whatever. The change should, therefore, be made as soon as it can be legally and honorably done.

"*Legal tender-notes, and their influence on private faith and the business of the country,*" is the title of the fifth chapter. The writer thus speaks, pages 133 and 134:

"As favorable a view as we can take of the legal tender act is, that it enacts in substance as follows:

"*Whenever any debt is discharged within the United States, the creditor shall forfeit to the debtor such per centage of the debt as is equal to the depreciation of legal tender notes since the debt was contracted.* This is in fact the sum and substance of the enactment. It made every promisory note, every bank bill, every dollar of bank stock, every bond of every State and railroad corporation, and indeed, every promise to pay money, *a real unavoidable bet*, which the creditor wins when gold goes down, and the debtor when gold goes up. This in fact, is the result of every system of irredeemable legal tender paper, and must continue to be while human nature remains as it is. * * * To the lover of justice, the discussion of such a system of spoliation, from a merely utilitarian point of view, must be repulsive in the extreme. No man who believes that honesty is the best policy; no man who believes in the moral government of the universe; no man who believes that the laws of nature always act to preserve the good and destroy the evil, will ask for any other judgment on the system than that which will be pronounced by his own conscience. But it will be instructive to trace all this injustice to its economic effects, present and future, if only to show how we are punished for transgressing a moral law.

It is plain that while gold has been rising from par to a premium of 130 per cent., the creditor class of the community, represented by the owners of bank stock, depositors in savings banks, holders of bonds and mortgages, and the frugal poor who have loaned their savings, have on the whole, been subjected to heavy and unjust losses; while the debtor class, represented by those who live beyond their income or do business on borrowed capital, have made heavy and illegitimate profits. Owing to the different functions of the two classes in social economy, their gains and losses are productive of effects which virtually concern the best interests of society, and are therefore, well worthy the serious consideration of the philosopher and statesman. The debtor class, having been from time to time relieved of a per centage of their equitable liability, have found less difficulty than usual in meeting their obligations. Hence there have been fewer failures than common, as well as larger profits, and unusual business prosperity. For the country is naturally considered prosperous when there are few failures and large profits."

This is a fair, unexaggerated statement of the effects of an inconvertable currency, and the question with every well wisher of his country must be, how long shall this condition of things be allowed to exist? How long shall injustice and wrong be sanctioned by law?

The following illustration is given, page 125:

"Three years ago 200 mechanics each put $100 into a savings bank. The savings bank loaned this $20,000 to a ship builder who employed it in building a ship. He sends the ship to England and sells her for $22,000 in gold, making a legitimate profit of ten per cent. By every principle of justice $20,000 of the money belongs to the savings bank. But now the legal tender clause comes in and declares the builder relieved from the debt in payment of 20,000 paper dollars. He therefore buys the paper with perhaps $8,000 in gold, pays them to the bank and keeps the additional $12.000 [in gold] for his own private use."

This the writer thinks would not only enable the ship builder to indulge in riotous living, but "furnish to the country a fine example of commercial prosperity."

"*Necessity for paper money—the lessons of history*" forms the subject

of the sixth chapter; "*Were legal tender notes necessary?*" that of the seventh, while the last is occupied with an examination of "*The national banking system*," in regard to which the writer arrives at rather unfavorable conclusions.

From this brief and imperfect notice of the contents of the work it will be seen that it treats upon topics of great interest, and if this be ably done, as we certainly think it is, the author has rendered an important service to those who would understand the great questions of finance, currency, and taxation.

The fallacy in regard to the gold premium which has doubtless been honestly entertained, and certainly very extensively propagated, that it was caused mainly by speculators and the operations of persons unfriendly to the federal cause, is examined very carefully, and thoroughly refuted. If the writer of the work had done nothing else we should feel that the public was greatly indebted to him for effectually demolishing a falsehood, which has not only influenced unfavorably the popular mind, but the action of Congress and the Treasury Department.

The ever famous and ever preposterous "gold bill," as it was called, was the offspring of this delusion. Its worse than failure, as a remedy for the supposed evil of speculative operations, opened the eyes of many, but the general impression amongst the masses still is, doubtless, that the principal cause of the high premium on gold was *speculation*.

That the price of gold may be affected temporarily, from one day to another, by the operations of bears and bulls, is quite certain; but we must remember that there are as many of one kind of these animals as the other, that the bears are as much engaged and *as effective* in bringing down, as the bulls are in putting up the price of gold. Their operations essentially balance and neutralize each other. Speculation is based upon the doctrine of chances, and the greater the number of chances the more rife and excessive the speculation. During the war these chances were almost incalculable. The hazards of battles and sieges, of marches and bombardments; the uncertainties of Congressional legislation, and the policy of the Treasury; the intrigues of party politicians at home, and the machinations of unfriendly statesmen abroad, all conspired to render these hazards as uncertain as they were numerous. In addition to all this, the Secretary of the Treasury himself entered the avenue as a *bear*, and bear too, of great magnitude, whose movements none could accurately divine, but whose readiness to *come down* upon the gold market at any moment with irresistible power none could doubt—all these conspired to create occasion and opportunity for speculation, such, perhaps, as the world never saw before. The speculators could raise ripples from day to day on this vast ocean of uncertainty and doubt, but the great tide of a redundant currency and doubtful government credit none could essentially influence or control. With a bank and treasury circulation tripled in quantity, and the fate of the nation trembling in the balance, there was no occasion that any additional force should operate on the gold market to make it a scene of wild excitement and desperate adventure.

A. W.

COMMERCIAL LAW.—NO. 23.

THE LAW OF SHIPPING.

(Continued from page 443, vol. 52.)

PART-OWNERS.

Two or more persons may become part-owners of a ship, in either of three ways. They may build it together, or join in purchasing it, or each may purchase his share independently of the others. In either case, their rights and obligations are the same.

If the register, or instrument of transfer, or other equivalent evidence, do not designate specific and unequal proportions, they will be presumed to own the ship in equal shares.

Part-owners are not necessarily partners. But a ship, or any part of a ship, may constitute a part of the stock or capital of a copartnership; and then it will be governed, in all respects, by the law of partnership.

A part-owner may at any time sell his share to whom he will. But he cannot sell the share of any other part-owner, without his authority. If he dies, his share goes to his representatives, and not to the surviving part-owners.

A majority of the part-owners may, generally, manage and direct the employment of the property at their discretion. But a court of admiralty will interfere and do justice between them, and prevent either of the part-owners from inflicting injury upon the others.

One part-owner may, in the absence of the rest, and without prohibition from them, manage the ship, as for himself and for them. And the contracts he enters into, in relation to the employment or preservation of the ship, bind all the part-owners in favor of an innocent third party.

In general, all the part-owners are liable, each one for the whole amount, for all the repairs of a ship, or for necessaries actually supplied to her, in good faith. If one pays his part, or more than his share, and it is agreed between him and the creditor that he shall not be held further, still, if the others do not pay, he must pay, unless there is a better consideration for the promise not to call on him, than his merely paying a part of what he was legally bound to pay; for where a man is bound to pay all, his paying a part is no consideration whatever for a promise to him. If he had a discharge under seal, it might protect him at law, but would not, of itself, in admiralty.

If it can be clearly shown, however, that especial credit was given, and intended to be given, to one part-owner personally, to the exclusion of the others, then the others cannot be holden. If the goods were charged to "ship" so and so, or to "ship and owners," this would tend strongly to show that it was intended to supply the goods on the credit of all the owners. If charged to some one owner alone, this would not absolutely prove that credit was intentionally given to him exclusively. But it would raise a presumption to that effect which would be rebutted only by show-

ing that no other owner was known; or by some other evidence which disproved the intention of discharging the other part-owners.

So, if the note, negotiable or otherwise, of one part-owner were taken in payment, if the promisor refused to pay, the others would be liable, unless they could show a distinct bargain by which they were exonerated.

Commonly, the ship's husband, as the agent of all the owners for the management of the ship has long been called, is one of the part-owners. But he is not so necessarily. He may be appointed in writing or otherwise. His duties are, in general, to provide for the complete equipment and repair of the ship, and take care of her while in port; to see that she is furnished with all regular and proper papers; to make proper contracts for freight or passage, and collect the receipts and make the disbursements proper on these accounts. For these things he has all the necessary powers. But he cannot, without special power, insure for the rest, nor buy a cargo for them, nor borrow money, nor give up the lien on the cargo for the freight, nor delegate his authority.

Where he acts within his powers, a ship's husband binds all his principals, that is, all the part-owners. But a third party may deal with him on his personal credit alone; and if the part-owners, believing this, and authorized to believe it by any acts or words of the third party, settle their accounts with the ship's husband accordingly, this third party cannot now establish a claim against them to their detriment. If a ship's husband be not a part-owner, all the part-owners are liable to him, each for the whole amount.

Whether a part-owner has a lien on the shares of other part-owners, or on the whole vessel, for advances or balances due on account of the vessel, that is, whether the part-owner who has advanced more than his proportion has the shares of the other owners as his security for their proportions, is not certain on authority. Perhaps the current of adjudication may be adverse to this lien, generally. But there is not wanting authority, nor, as we think, strong reason, for saying that this lien should belong to the part ownership of a ship, as such. In England, it seems at this day, after some fluctuation in the decisions, that there is no such lien or security; but the courts of this country, and especially of New York, favor this lien.

THE LIABILITY OF MORTAGEES.

A mortagee of a ship, who is in possession, is, in general, liable for supplies, repairs, &c., in the same way as an owner. But if he has not taken possession, he is not liable for supplies or repairs, merely on the ground that his security is strengthened by whatever preserves or increases the value of the vessel. Nor can he be held liable, except by some acts or words of his own, which show that credit was *properly* given to him, or that he has come under a valid engagement to assume this responsibility.

THE CONTRACT OF BOTTOMRY.

By this contract, a ship is hypothecated (or pledged) as security for money borrowed. The form of this contract varies in different places, and, indeed, in the same place. Its essentials are:—First, that the ship itself is bound for the payment of the money. Second, that the money is to be repaid only in case the ship performs a certain voyage, and arrives

at its destined termination in safety; or, as it is sometimes provided in modern bottomries, in case that the ship is in safety on a certain day; therefore, if the ship is lost before the termination of the voyage or the expiration of the period, no part of the money is due, or, as is sometimes said, the whole debt is paid by the loss. As the lender thus consents that the repayment of the money shall depend upon the safety of the ship, he has a legal right to charge "marine interest," which means as much more than legal interest as will serve to cover his risk.

The lender may require, and the borrower pay, this marine interest, which may be much more than lawful interest, on a bottomry bond, without usury. And it has been said that maritime interest, or more than legal interest, must be charged by the contract, or it is not a loan on bottomry. But this, we think, is not accurate. We hold that maritime interest may always be waived by the lender; for such interest, however usual, or nearly universal, is not of the essence of the contract.

If the interest be not expressed in the contract, it will generally be presumed to be meant and included in the sum named as principal.

If, by the contract, the lender takes more than legal interest, and yet the money is to be paid to him whether the ship be lost or not, this is not a contract of bottomry, and it is subject to all the consequences of usury. But the lender may take security for his debt and marine interest, additional to the ship itself, provided the security is given, like the ship itself, to make the payment certain when it becomes due by the safety of the ship, but is wholly avoided if the ship be lost; for then the lender takes the risk of losing the whole, principal and interest, by the loss of the ship, and may therefore charge more than simple interest.

The most common contracts of bottomry are those entered into by the master in a foreign port, where money is needed and cannot otherwise be obtained. Therefore the security goes with the ship, and the debt may be enforced, as soon as it is payable, against the ship, wherever the ship may be. In Europe, contracts of bottomry are seldom made otherwise now. But in this country, they are frequently made by the owner himself, in the home port. And sometimes they are nothing else than contrivances to get more than legal interest. Thus, if A lends to B $20,000 on B's ship for one year, at fifteen per cent interest, conditioned that, if the ship be lost, the money shall not be paid, and the lender insures the ship for three per cent. he gets twelve per cent interest, which is twice the legal interest, and yet incurs no risk. If such a contract were obviously and certainly merely colorable, and only a pretence for getting usurious interest, the courts would probably set it aside; but it might be difficult to show this.

If the money is payable at the end of a certain voyage, and the owner, or his servant, the master of the ship, terminate the voyage sooner—either honestly, from a change in their plan, or dishonestly, by intentional loss or wreck—the money becomes at once due.

In admiralty, and, it may be supposed, in common law-courts, a bottomry bond, made abroad, would overide all other liens or engagements, except the claim for seamen's wages. The reason is, that a bottomry bond is supposed to be made from necessity, and to have provided the only means by which the ship could be brought home. For the same reason,

a later bond is sustained as against an earlier, and the last against all before it. It is possible, however, that a distinction might be taken between liens created by contract and those arising from wrong done, and that a lien by bottomry would be preferred over all the former, but not over the latter. In an English case, a collision occurred, and the vessel, to the negligence of whose crew the collision was owing, put into Cowes for repairs. A lender, without knowledge of the claim against her for the collision, advanced money for repairs, under an agreement of the master to execute a bottomry bond. It was held that the lender was entitled to priority over the owners of the injured vessel who claimed compensation for injury, only to the extent of the increased value of the vessel arising from the repairs.

The lien of bottomry depends in no degree on possession, for the ship may go all over the world with the bottomry security attached to her; but the lender ought to collect the sum due, and so discharge the bond as soon as he conveniently can; and therefore an unreasonable delay in enforcing it will destroy the lien.

There may be a mortgage of a ship, as of any chattel, as we have already said; but this is a very different thing from a loan on bottomry. We have seen that the statute of 1850 requires mortgages of ships to be recorded, but does not require that bottomry bonds should be. There is excellent reason for this distinction in reference to bottomry bonds made abroad, but none as to those made at home. In a case before Judge Story, it was held that the nature of a bottomry bond did not require that the money loaned should be for the necessities or the use of the ship. There certainly seems to be no reason why a loan made for general purposes in a home port, secured by a bottomry bond, should have any privileges over a loan secured by mortgage. But the whole business of bottomry was invented to supply the necessities of a ship in a foreign port; and the reasons applicable then are applied to home bottomries, although these are very different things in their nature and purpose.

THE EMPLOYMENT OF A SHIP BY THE OWNER.

An owner of a ship may employ it in carrying his own goods, or those of another. He may carry the goods of others, while he himself retains the possession and direction of the ship; or he may lease his ship to others, to carry their goods. In the first case, he carries the goods of others on freight; in the second, he lets his ship by charter-party. We shall consider first the carriage of goods on freight.

He may load his ship as far as he can with his own goods, and then take the goods of others to fill the vacant space; or he may put up his ship as "a general ship," to go from one stated port to another, and to carry the goods of all who offer.

It may be remarked, that the word "freight" is used in different ways; sometimes, to designate the goods or cargo that is carried, and there is some reason for believing that this was its earliest sense; sometimes to denote the money which the shipper of the goods pays to the owner of the ship for their transportation. Not unfrequently, when the word is used in this latter sense, the word "money" is added, as the phrase "freight money" leaves no question as to what is meant. Sometimes a

ship-owner who lets the whole burden of his ship to another, is said to carry the shipper's goods on freight. But the most common meaning of the word, especially in law proceedings, is the money earned by a ship not chartered, for the transportation of the goods; and in this sense we shall use it.

Nearly the whole law of freight grows out of the ancient and universal principle that the ship and the cargo have reciprocal duties or obligations towards each other for the performance of these duties. In other words, not only is the owner of the ship bound to the owner of the cargo, as soon as he receives it, to lade it properly on board, take care of it while on board, carry it in safety (so far as the seaworthiness of the ship is concerned) to its destined port, and there deliver it, all in a proper way, but the ship itself is bound to the discharge of these duties. That is to say, if, by reason of a failure in any of these particulars, the shipper of the goods is damnified, he may look to the ship-owner for indemnity; but he is not obliged to do so, because he may proceed by proper process against the ship itself. This lien, like that of bottomry, is not dependent upon possession, but will be lost by delay, especially if the vessel passes into the hands of a purchaser for value without notice. On the other hand, if the ship discharges all its duties, the owner may look to the shipper for the payment of his freight; but is not obliged to do so, because he may keep his hold upon the goods. and refuse to deliver them until the freight is paid.

The party who sends the goods may or may not be the owner of them. And he may send them either to one who is the owner, for whom the sender bought them, or to one who is only the agent of the owner. In either of these cases, the sender is called the consignor of the goods, and the party to whom they are sent is called the consignee. The sending them is called the consigning or the consignment of them; but it is quite common to hear the goods themselves called the consignment.

The rights and obligations of the ship-owner and the shipper are stated generally in an instrument of which the origin is lost in its antiquity, and which is now in universal use among commercial nations, with little variety of form. It is called the Bill of Lading. It should contain the names of the consignor, of the consignee, of the vessel, of the master, of the place of departure, and of the place of destination; also the price of the freight, with primage and other charges, if any there be, and either in the body of the bill or in the margin, the marks and numbers of the things shipped, with sufficient precision to designate and identify them. We give a usual form of a Bill of Lading in the Appendix.

It should be signed by the master of the ship, who, by the strict maritime law, has no authority to sign a bill of lading until the goods are actually on board. There is some relaxation of this rule in practice; but it should be regretted and avoided.

Usually one copy is retained by the master, and three copies are given to the shipper; one of them he retains, another he sends to the consignee with the goods, and the other he usually sends to the consignee by some other conveyance.

The delivery of the goods promised in the bill is to the consignee, or to his assigns; and the consignee may designate his assigns by writing on

the back of the bill, "Deliver the within-named goods to A. B.," and signing this order; or the consignee may indorse the bill with his name only in blank, and any one who acquires an honest title to the goods and to the bill may write over the signature an order of delivery to himself. It is held that the consignee has this power, if such be the usage, even if the word "assigns" be omitted. Such indorsement not only gives the indorsee a right to demand the goods, but passes to him the property in the goods.

As the bill of lading is evidence against the ship-owner as to the reception of the goods, and their quantity and quality, it is common to say "contents unknown," or "said to contain," &c. But without any words of this kind, the bill of lading is not conclusive upon the ship-owner in favor of the shipper, because he may show that its statements were erroneous through fraud or mistake. But the ship-owner, or master, is bound much more strongly, and perhaps conclusively, by the words of the bill of lading, in favor of a third party, who has bought the goods for value and in good faith, on the credit of the bill of lading. In a case which occurred in New York, the court said, that, as between the shipper of the goods and the owner of the vessel, a bill of lading may be explained or corrected as far as it is a receipt; that is, as to the quantity of the goods shipped, and the like; but as between the owner of the vessel and an assignee of the bill, for a valuable consideration, paid on the strength of the bill of lading, it may not be explained or corrected; because the master, by signing the bill, authorizes the purchaser to believe the goods are what the bill says they are.

The law-merchant gives to the ship, as we have seen, a lien on the goods for the freight. The master cannot demand the freight without a tender of the goods at the proper time, in the proper way, to the proper person, and in a proper condition; but then the consignee is not entitled to the goods without paying freight. The law gives this lien, whether it be expressed or not. But it may be expressly waived. The bill of lading, or other evidence, may show the agreement of the parties that the goods should be delivered first, and the freight not be payable until a certain time afterwards; and such an agreement is in general a waiver of the lien.

Nevertheless, if it seemed that the ship-owner did not intend to give up his security on the goods, a court of admiralty would be disposed so to construe such an agreement as to give the consignee possession of the goods, for a temporary purpose, as to ascertain their condition, or, possibly, that he might offer them in the market, and by an agreement to sell raise the means of paying the freight; and yet would preserve for the master his security upon the goods for a reasonable time, unless, in the meantime, they should actually become, by sale, the property of a *bona fide* purchaser.

The contract of affreightment is entire; therefore no freight is earned unless the whole is earned, by carrying the goods quite to the port of destination. If by wreck, or other cause, the transportation is incomplete, no absolute right of freight grows out of it. We say no absolute right, because a conditional right of freight does exist. To understand this, we must remember that, as soon as the ship receives the goods, it,

on the one hand, comes under the obligation of carrying them to their destination, and on the other, at the same time, or on breaking ground and beginning the voyage, acquires the right of so carrying them. Therefore, if a wreck or other interruption intervenes, the ship-owner has the right of transshipping them, and sending them forward in the original ship, or another ship, to the place of their original destination. When they arrive there, he may claim the whole freight originally agreed on; but if forwarded in the original ship, he can claim no more; for then the extra cost of forwarding the goods is his loss. If the master or owner of the ship forwards them in another ship from necessity, and at an increased cost, it seems that the shipper must pay this increased cost.

The owner not only may, but must, send forward the goods, at his own cost, if this can be done by means reasonably within his reach. He is not, however, answerable for any delay thus occurring, or for any damage from this delay. The shipper himself, by his agent, may always reclaim all his goods, at any intermediate port or place, on tendering all his freight; because the master's right of sending them forward is merely to earn his full freight. If, therefore, the goods are damaged and need care, and the master can send them forward at some time within reasonable limits, and insists upon his right to do so, the shipper can obtain possession of his goods only by paying full freight. If, however, the master tenders the goods there to the shipper, and the shipper there receives them, this is held to sever or divide the contract by agreement, and now what is called a freight *pro rata itineris*, or for that part of the voyage which is performed, is due. This is quite a common transaction.

Difficult questions sometimes arise as to what is a reception of the goods by their owner. The rights of the master and of the shipper are apparently opposed to each other, and neither must be pressed too far. The master must not pretend to hold the goods for forwarding, to the detriment of the goods or their value, when he cannot forward them, but merely uses this pretence to compel a payment of full freight. And the shipper must not refuse to receive the goods, when the master can do no more with them, and offers their delivery in good faith. The questions of this kind, so far as they are difficult, are generally questions of fact. Courts tend to this result; where the goods cannot be forwarded by the master without unreasonable effort or cost, or where they need measures for their preservation which he cannot take, and they come into possession of the shipper, and their original value has been increased by the transportation to that place, the ship-owner is held to be entitled to a proportionate share of the freight. Still, as matter of law, it seems to be settled, that, if the master certainly will not, or certainly cannot, carry or send the goods forward, the shipper is entitled to them without any payment of freight. So, the shipper may always refuse to receive them at any place other than that at which they were to be carried by the ship, and then, under no circumstances, is freight *pro rata* payable, on the general ground that the original contract is at an end, and no new one has been substituted, either expressly or tacitly, or by implication of law.

If freight for a part of the voyage is payable, the question arises by what rule of proportion shall it be measured. One is purely geographical, and was formerly much used; that is, the whole freight would pay

for so many miles, and the freight for a part must pay for so many less. Another is purely commercial. The whole freight being a certain sum for the whole distance, what will it cost to bring the goods to the place where they are received, and how much to take them thence to their original destination. Let the original freight be divided into two parts proportional to these, and the first part is the freight for the part of the voyage through which they were carried, or, as it is called, the freight *pro rata*. Neither of these, nor indeed any other fixed and precise rule, is generally adopted in this country. But both courts and merchants seek, by combining the two, to ascertain what proportion of the increase of value expected from the intended transportation has been actually conferred upon the goods by actual partial transportation, and this is to be taken as the freight that is due *pro rata itineris*.

If the bill of lading requires delivery to the consignee or his assigns, "he or they paying freight,"—which is usual,—and the master delivers the goods without receiving freight, which the consignee fails to pay, the master or owner cannot in the absence of express contract fall back on the consignor and make him liable, unless he can show that the consignor actually owned the goods, or by his words or acts made himself responsible therefor; in which case the bill of lading, in this respect, is nothing more than an order by a principal upon an agent to pay money due from the principal.

Generally, he who receives the goods under the common bill of lading is liable for the freight; but not if he be merely an indorsee or assignee of the consignee, and obtain them by his order, and not under the bill of lading, unless such indorsee, by express or implied promise, agrees to pay the freight. Generally, and under the usual bill of lading, the goods are to be delivered to the consignee or his assigns, on the payment of freight. If goods are accepted under this bill of lading, the party receiving them, whether the consignee or his assignee, becomes liable for the freight. If the master delivers goods to any one, saying that he should look to him for the freight, he may demand the freight of him unless that person had the absolute right to the goods without payment of freight; which must be very seldom the case. If the consignee is not liable for the freight, his indorsement of the bill of lading does not make him so. And if the consignee is liable, and the goods are received by any one as agent of the consignor, this agent does not thereby become liable.

If freight be paid in advance, and not subsequently earned, it must be repaid, unless it can be shown that the owner took a less sum than he would otherwise have had, and for this or some other equivalent reason the money paid was as a final settlement, and was to be retained by the owner at all events.

If a consignee pay more than he should, he may recover it back, if paid through ignorance or mistake of fact; but not if, with full knowledge of all the facts, he was ignorant or mistaken as to the law.

If one sells his ship after a voyage is commenced, he alone can claim the freight of the shipper of goods, although the contract of sale may require the seller to pay it over to the purchaser. A mortgagee of a ship who has not taken possession has not, in general, any right to the freight, unless this is specially agreed. Neither has a lender on a bottomry bond.

But it seems that a mortgagee is entitled to the freight accruing after he takes possession, although the outfits for the voyage were furnished by the mortgagor.

No freight, of course, can be earned by an illegal voyage; as the law will not enforce any illegal contract, or sanction any illegal conduct.

The goods are to be delivered, by the bill of lading, in good condition, excepting "the dangers of the seas," and such other risks or perils as may be expressed. If the goods are damaged, to any extent, by any of these perils, and yet can be, and are, delivered *in specie*, (that is, if the goods are actually delivered although hurt or spoilt, as corn or hides although rotten, flour although wet, fish although spoilt,) the freight is payable.

The shipper or consignee cannot abandon the goods for the freight, if they remain *in specie*, although they may be worthless; for damage caused by an excepted risk is his loss, and not the loss of the owner. If they are lost by a risk which the ship-owner does not except in the bill of lading, he is answerable for that loss, and it may be charged in settlement of freight.

If they are lost in substance, though not in form, that is, although the cases or vessels are preserved, as if sugar is washed out of boxes or hogsheads, or wine leaks out of casks, by reason of injury sustained from a peril of the sea, though the master may deliver the hogsheads or boxes or casks, this is not a delivery of the sugar or of the wine, and no freight is due.

If the goods are injured, or actually perish and disappear, from internal defect or decay or change, that is, from causes inherent to the goods themselves, freight is due. In a case before the Supreme Court of the United States, where a libel was brought against a vessel by the owners of twenty-four boxes of cotton thread for damage done to it on board the vessel on a voyage from Liverpool to Charleston, the court said: "Now the evidence shows very satisfactorily that the damage to the goods was occasioned by the effect of the humidity and dampness, which in the absence of any defect in the ship, or navigation of the same, or in the storage, is one of the dangers and accidents of the seas, for which the carrier is not liable. The burden lay upon the plaintiffs to show that it might, notwithstanding, have been prevented by reasonable skill and diligence of those employed in the conveyance of the goods. For it has been held, if the damage has proceeded from an intrinsic principle of decay, naturally inherent in the commodity itself, whether active in every situation, or only in the confinement and closeness of the ship, the merchant must bear the loss as well as pay the freight; as the masters and owners are in no fault, nor does their contract contain any insurance or warranty against such an event. But if it can be shown that it might have been avoided by the use of proper precautionary measures, and that the usual and customary methods for this purpose have been neglected, they [the master or owners] may still be held liable."

If they are lost from the fault of the owner, the master, or crew, the owner must make the loss good; but in this case may have, by way of offset or deduction, his freight, because the shipper is entitled to full indemnification, but not to make profit out of this loss. If goods are delivered, although damaged and deteriorated from faults for which the owner

s responsible, as bad storage, deviation, negligent navigation, or the like, reight is due; the amount of the damage being first deducted. In an mportant English case, the action was for freight under a charter-party, which entitled the ship-owner to freight "on a right and true delivery of he whole of the goods, agreeably to bills of lading." The bills of lading equired them to be delivered in good order and well-conditioned. The cargo, consisting of chests of fruit, was much injured by the negligence of the master and crew in not ventilating sufficiently. The freight was recovered. The grounds of the decision were these. The duty of making a right and true delivery of the cargo was satisfied by the delivery made of the number of chests of fruit shipped on board; and if the contents of any of them turned out to be damaged by the negligent stowing, or subsequent want of care and proper ventilation, by the master and crew, the defendant had a cross-action or a right of set off for his damages: but this damage was no sufficient defence against an action for the freight.

The rules in respect to passage-money are quite analogous to those which regulate the payment of freight. Usually, however, the passage-money is paid in advance. But it is not earned except by carrying the passenger, or, *pro rata*, by carrying him a part of the way with his consent. And if paid in advance, and not earned by the fault of the ship or owner, it can be recovered back.

(To be continued.)

COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW.

Restoration of the Southern States—The various Proclamations of the Executive—The Revenue Commission—The Boards of Trade in Boston—Portuguese Tobacco monopoly abolished—Money Market—Prices of General Merchandise—Cotton in the South—Imports of Dry Goods—Specie Movement—Rates of Exchange—Prices of Government Bonds—Prices of Railway Shares—Export Tax on Cotton removed—Trade Convention at St. Louis—The Oil Fever—Petroleum Statistics.

MEASURES for restoring the late insurgent States, and with them the entire country to a condition of industrial activity appear to have constantly been present to Mr. JOHNSON's mind since his accession to office. It is a pity that these highest evidences of political wisdom and statesmanship should appear to less advantage in men's eyes than the less beneficial but more glittering and showy acts of war, and that they should consequently attract less attention and receive less encomiums. Nevertheless, when commercial science shall have discovered a certain and definite method of calculating in dollars and cents the difference between the growth of a nation in population and wealth during a state of war and the same growth during a state of peace, then and then only will the martial trappings which now fill our idea of national glory disappear before those superior attractions which will be presented to us by a clear, close, exact, and appreciative view of the blessings of peace. And then will the true greatness of such men as President JOHNSON—men who prove themselves anxious to speedily remove all those restrictions which now impose upon commerce—be properly understood and admired.

Since the two proclamations noticed in our last number the President has

issued reconstruction proclamations for most of the Southern States, appointing to them provisional civil governors, and providing a means for their early return to the Union, and the convenient removal of all the remaining military rule now exercised within their borders. In addition to these proclamations others have been issued proclaiming all the ports of the United States, including those of the South, open to the commerce of the world—thus officially ending the blockade instituted in 1861. Furthermore, proclamations have been issued ordering that all trade restrictions imposed by military authority within the Southern States, including the Trans Mississippi, be forthwith removed.

Taken together, these mandates of the Executive Department are by far the most important state papers which have emanated from the government in many years. The commercial community will be the first to appreciate their importance and turn them to account, not only for themselves, but for the people at large.

In connection with this subject is that of the commission authorised by a law of the last Congress to inquire into the sources of the national revenue and the best method of collecting the same, with power to send for witnesses and papers. Messrs. DAVID A. WELLS, of Troy, N. Y., STEPHEN COLWELL, of Philadelphia, and S. S. HAYS, of Chicago, have been appointed as Commissioners by the Secretary of the Treasury, and Mr. E. B. ELLIOTT, of Boston, has been made Secretary. They meet together at the New York Custom House during the summer. The first subject taken up, and which will occupy the attention of the Commission, until it is supposed to be exhausted, will be that of whiskey. As in view of the recent wholesale seizures under the excise act this subject promises to be a very long one, it is but charitable to hope that the whiskey will be exhausted before the Commissioners are. What could have prompted Congress to supersede one of its principal functions by appointing a commission of private gentlemen to consider a subject which, by every law of propriety, comes within its own exclusive purview we are at a loss to know. The authorization of this commission is a virtual confession of Congress of its own inability to grapple the questions of revenue which are to be submitted to it, and as the idea of such a commission was originally suggested by Mr. Feasenden in his financial report of 1864, the National Legislature have to thank that gentleman for the wound which they have unwittingly suffered him to inflict upon their *amour propre*.

The Western Boards of Trade have, during the past month, been the guests of their brethren in the city of Boston, but beyond feasting and sight-seeing no advantages yet appear to have resulted from their visit. The many important interests which might be influenced by the action and suggestions of these gentlemen invite us to hope that in the forthcoming meeting at Detroit something more tangible may flow from their convocation and discussions.

The Portuguese government has at last passed an act which practically abolishes the monopoly in tobacco in that country. The importation of that article of commerce is free into the ports of Oporto and Lisbon, in Portugal proper, and into those of Madeira and Azores, from whatever country imported, will be subject to the following duties—Tobacco roll $1 100 rs. per kilogramme,

s. 10d.,; tobacco leaf, $1 300 rs. per kilogramme, 5s. 9d.; tobacco cheroots nd cigars, $2 per kilogramme, 8s. 10d.; all other manufactured kinds $1 600 rs. er kilogramme, 7s. 1d.—all sterling.

The money market during the month has been kept very easy. Money on call ans has been going a begging at four per cent, though five has been rather the ling figure. The price of gold seems to depend to a great extent on the ad-ices from Europe. It being the policy of the government to keep Five-twenties ove par in order to facilitate subscriptions to the Seven-thirty loan, no dispo-tion is allowed to be made of the currency which will assimilate its value with at of gold, faster than the European market prices of Five-twenty bonds per-it. For this reason, and no other, gold continues to rule at a premium, and st so fast as Five-twenties rise in Europe will the currency rise and the precious etals fall here.

The prices of general merchandise now begin in earnest to follow the track of old.

The following comparative table of the prices of several leading articles of eneral merchandise will exhibit the present state of the markets :

	April 29.	May 27.	June 28.
shes, pots, 1st sort.....	$8 00 a 8 12½	$7 25 a 7 62	7 37½ a 7 62½
offee, Rio, prime.....	a 21½	a 23½	a 22
otton, N. O. mid.,.....	a 58	a 54	.. a 46
lour, State, superfine.....	6 90 a 7 10	6 10 a 6 50	5 20 a 5 60
ay, N. R. shipping.....	1 00 a 1 05	1 .. a 1 05	95 a 1 00
ails, cut.....	7 00 a	5 75 a 6 ..	5 00 a 5 25
etroleum,crude 40a47 gravity	39 a 40	. a 35	34½ a 35½
ork, prime mess, new.....	26 50 a 27 50	17 00 a 18 00	18 50 a .. ..
obacco, Kentucky lugs.....	8 a 10	6 a 9	6 a 9
eather, oak (Sl.) light.....	44 a 46	44 a 46	30 a 32
umber, spruce, Eastern.....	22 a 25	14 a 18	14 a 18
orn, white Southern.....	1 30 a 1 40	0 80 a 0 90	85 a 95
Wheat, white Genesee	2 20 a 2 35	2 00 a 2 20	1 75 a 1 90
heetings, brown, standard...	31 a 32½	37	28 a 30

The supply of cotton in the South, and the probable amount which will be brought forward for shipment abroad, has now become an all-absorbing topic, because its correct solution would to a great extent determine the future course of sterling exchange, shipments of cotton would thus usurp the place now occupied by government bonds in determining the price of gold. The recent order of President Johnson removing restrictions on the movement and sale of cotton in the South will undoubtedly, we think, contribute to keep the market better supplied with that staple than it has been hitherto; and at no distant day gold may be expected to materially fall in price, the recent rise in the premium being almost as much as we looked forward to in April and May last.

The following table shows the import of dry goods into this port for the past month:

VALUE OF DRY GOODS ENTERED FOR CONSUMPTION IN JUNE, 1865.

	1864.	1865.
June 1.....	$321,050	$298,518
" 8.....	489,254	1,093,679
" 15.....	279,120	784,151
" 22.....	296,794	1,421,840
" 29.....	258,306	960,991
Total	$1,823,474	$4,260,661

WITHDRAWN FROM WAREHOUSE.

June	1	$83,741	$380,172
"	8	38,314	398,485
"	15	16,811	373,042
"	22	22,829	282,969
"	29	98,800	314,619
	Total	$176,754	$1,369,103

ENTERED FOR WAREHOUSING.

June	1	$830,171	$116,729
"	8	612,652	119,363
"	15	975,229	208,674
"	22	1,498,240	418,852
"	29	362,108	435,018
	Total	$3,478,229	$1,181,407

	1864.	1865.
Total entered for consumption	$1,323,474	$4,260,661
Add withdrawn from warehouse	176,754	1,369,103
Total thrown on the market	$1,500,228	$5,629,764
Total entered for warehousing	$3,478,229	$1,181,407
Add entered for consumption	1,323,474	4,260,661
Total entered at the port	$4,801,703	$5,442,068

This shows not only an increase in the total in the value entered at the port, but a very great proportionate difference in the total thrown upon the market. In June of last year, while nearly five millions were landed here, only one and a half millions were passed through the customs for market. During the last month about five and a half millions were landed, and more than this amount marketed, the stock in bond having been reduced.

The specie movement has been as follows:

SPECIE RECEIPTS, SHIPMENTS, &c.

	1864.		1865.			
	Received.	Exported.	Received from California.	Received Foreign.	Exported.	Gold in Bank.
Jan. 2	$254,239	$590,262	$1,147,745	.....	$594,353	$20,152,892
" 9	.....	1,216,204	383,519	$3,171	1,046,251	21,357,648
" 16	279,801	1,985,057	511,088	25,517	329,383	20,211,569
" 23	365,608	1,000,000	.....	5,125	997,136	18,896,055
" 30	324,864	668,747	.....	12,605	.....	.....
Feb. 6	.....	662,616	631,760	19,952	478,777	19,682,303
" 13	363,198	1,219,808	264,322	18,739	370,753	20,297,346
" 20	.....	325,632	448,132	22,900	100,882	20,682,319
" 27	407,067	531,700	794,149	38,696	148,536	20,092,353
March 4	512,358	629,803	.....	48,317	33,393	19,830,153
" 11	.....	465,920	431,163	75,993	181,648	20,727,838
" 18	281,304	33,881	.....	55,221	108,157	22,256,596
" 25	375,101	273,900	.....	50,000	164,440	22,006,524
April 1	273,429	168,912	.....	20,978	79,308	20,584,668
" 8	302,344	345,471	1,463,437	60,769	400,735	20,045,978
" 15	269,522	1,002,384	632,521	31,945	188,900	19,533,734
" 22	.....	3,226,000	.....	71,229	83,922	19,122,289
" 29	282,376	1,271,836	.....	.....	217,192	19,049,912
May 6	282,776	1,174,241	664,281	.....	587,848	20,088,393
" 13	.....	2,452,668	225,376	.....	649,885	23,553,233
" 20	383,423	1,884,195	367,993	.....	3,044,258	23,194,409
" 27	.....	580,820	.....	.....	2,079,215	23,063,921
June 3	271,801	1,425,588	.....	10,150	1,706,921	21,346,423
" 10	.....	1,543,600	.....	165,673	2,070,203	18,480,630
" 17	291,208	1,866,663	.....	36,614	2,006,491	16,680,877
" 24	281,011	1,296,856	.....	18,065	367,580	15,906,314

The following statement shows the movements of gold at this port, from July 1, 1864, to the close of June, 1865, including the exports, payments for customs duties, and receipts from California :

	EXPORT.	Rec'd from California.	Rec'd for Customs.
July	$1,947,329	$ 711,543	$3,585,848
August	1,001,813	1,277,265	6,237,364
September	2,835,398	1,189,698	4,084,494
October	2,517,121	857,877	3,670,188
November,	7,267,662	886,278	3,455,156
December,	6,104,177	2,205,679	3,467,368
January	3,184,858	2,012,347	4,276,399
February	1,023,201	896,082	4,823,214
March	381,913	1,673,444	5,471,026
April	961,026	2,307,024	6,389,560
May	7,255,071	1,257,651	8,230,195
June	5,284,161	750,465	7,887,554
Total	$39,763,725	$16,054,555	$61,578,366
In 1863-4	57,818,162	10,721,080	.....
Decrease	$18,054,437	.....	
Increase	.....	$5,333,475	

The following have been the exports of specie from New York to foreign ports, from January 1 to June 30, for the last ten years :

1865	$18,014,777	1860	$22,027,521
1864	29,053,938	1859	34,916,614
1863	20,587,619	1858	12,504,799
1862	27,976,851	1857	22,152,145
1861	3,249,438	1856	15,256,611

The rates of exchange have ruled as follows :

RATES OF EXCHANGE IN GOLD.

	London, 60 days.	Paris, 60 days.	Amsterdam.	Frankfort.	Hamburg.	Berlin.
Jan. 7	108¼ a 109⅛	5.18¾ a 5.15	41⅛ a 41⅛	41⅛ a 41⅛	36⅜ a 36⅛	72 a 72⅛
" 14	108¼ a 109⅜	5.18¾ a 5.13¾	41⅛ a 41⅛	41 a 41⅛	36⅛ a 36⅜	72⅛ a 72⅛
" 21	108¼ a 109⅜	5.18¾ a 5.13¾	41⅛ a 41⅛	41⅛ a 41⅛	36⅜ a 36⅛	73 a 72⅛
" 28	108¼ a 109⅜	5.20 a 5.13¾	41 a 41⅛	41 a 41⅛	36⅜ a 36⅛	72 a 72⅛
Feb. 4	108 a 109⅜	5.21½ a 5.15	41 a 41⅛	41 a 41⅜	36 a 36⅜	71⅞ a 72
" 11	108¼ a 109	5.23¾ a 5.15	40⅞ a 41⅛	40⅞ a 41⅛	35⅞ a 36⅛	71⅞ a 72⅛
" 18	107 a 108⅞	5.27½ a 5.20	40⅛ a 41⅜	40⅛ a 41	35⅞ a 36⅜	71⅛ a 72
" 25	108 a 108⅛	5.27½ a 5.18¾	40⅛ a 40⅛	40⅛ a 41	35⅞ a 36⅜	71⅛ a 72
Mch. 4	108 a 108⅛	5.27½ a 5.21½	40⅜ a 41⅛	40⅜ a 40⅞	36⅛ a 36⅛	71⅛ a 71⅜
" 11	107⅞ a 108⅛	5.27½ a 5.22½	40⅛ a 41⅛	40⅛ a 40⅜	35⅞ a 36⅛	70⅜ a 71⅛
" 18	109⅛ a 109⅜	5.21½ a 5.18¾	41 a 41⅜	41 a 41⅜	36 a 36⅜	71⅛ a 72
" 25	109 a 109⅛	5.20 a 5.15	41 a 41⅜	40⅜ a 41⅛	36 a 36⅛	71⅛ a 72
April 1	109⅛ a 109⅜	5.20 a 5.15	40⅜ a 41⅛	40⅜ a 41	36 a 36⅛	71⅛ a 71⅜
" 8	108⅜ a 109⅛	5.22½ a 5.15	40⅜ a 41⅛	40⅛ a 41⅜	35⅞ a 36⅜	72⅛ a 71⅜
" 15	108⅞ a 109⅛	5.22½ a 5.16¾	40⅜ a 41⅛	40⅜ a 41	35⅞ a 36⅜	72 a 71⅜
" 22	109⅛ a 109⅜	5.20 a 5.12½	41 a 41⅛	40⅞ a 41⅛	36⅛ a 36⅜	71⅛ a 72⅛
" 29	109 a 109⅛	5.20 a 5.12½	41 a 41⅛	40⅛ a 41⅛	36 a 36⅜	71⅛ a 72
May 5	108⅛ a 109⅜	5.18¾ a 5.13¾	41⅛ a 41⅜	41 a 41⅜	36⅛ a 36⅜	71⅜ a 72⅛
" 12	108⅛ a 109⅜	5.16¼ a 5.12½	41⅛ a 41⅜	41⅛ a 41⅛	36⅜ a 36⅞	72⅛ a 72⅜
" 19	108⅛ a 109⅛	5.17½ a 5.12½	41⅛ a 41⅜	41 a 41⅜	36⅛ a 36⅜	72 a 72⅜
" 26	108⅜ a 109⅜	5.16¼ a 5.12½	41⅛ a 41⅜	41⅛ a 41⅛	36⅜ a 36⅞	72⅛ a 72⅜
June 2	109 a 109⅜	5.17½ a 5.12½	41⅛ a 41⅜	41⅛ a 41⅛	36⅜ a 36⅞	72⅛ a 73⅜
" 9	109⅛ a 110	5.15 a 5.11¼	41⅛ a 41⅜	41⅛ a 41⅛	36⅛ a 36⅜	72⅛ a 72⅜
" 16	109 a 109⅜	5.17½ a 5.11¼	41⅛ a 41⅜	41⅛ a 41⅜	36⅛ a 36⅜	72 a 72⅛
" 23	108⅜ a 109⅛	5.18¾ a 5 12½	40⅜ a 41⅜	41 a 41⅜	36⅛ a 36⅛	71⅜ a 72⅛
" 30	108 a 109	5.20 a 5.13¾	40⅛ a 41⅛	40⅜ a 41⅛	35⅞ a 36⅛	71⅛ a 72⅛
July 7	108 a 108⅜	5.22½ a 5.16¼	40⅛ a 41	40⅛ a 40⅜	35⅞ a 36⅛	71 a 71⅛

Government bonds have ruled as follows:

PRICES OF UNITED STATES PAPER.

	6's, 1881.		5-20's.				
	Reg.	Coup.	Reg.	Coup.	10-40's.	1 year certif.	Gold prie.
Jan. 7,....	111¼	111¼	100	109	102	96⅝	227 a 227¼
" 14,....	112¼	112¼	102	110	102⅜	98	217⅝ a 221
" 21,....	111	110	99	108⅜	101½	97½	197½ a 206
" 28,....	110½	109½	98⅝	108⅞	100⅞	98	213⅝ a 220
Feb. 4,....	109⅝	109½	99½	109½	101½	97⅞	209 a 214½
" 11,....	110⅜	110⅜	102	109⅞	102⅜	98⅜	204⅜ a 209
" 18,....	111½	111½	103	111⅜	102⅜	98⅜	204 a 209½
" 25,....	111½	111	102	111½	102½	98⅜	198½ a 199½
March 1....	111	110⅜	105	110½	102⅜	98½	199½ a 200½
" 8,....	111	111½	....	110⅜	97⅜	98½	196⅜ a 197⅜
" 15,....	110	110	100	109⅜	97	98½	174½ a 177⅜
" 22,....	105	105	....	105	91½	97	156½ a 158½
" 29,....	105	105	....	105	91½	97	151½ a 153½
April 5,....	106½	....	104⅜	107½	92	98	148 a 153⅜
" 12,....	107½	107½	102½	108⅜	93½	98⅜	145½ a 146½
" 19,....	....	....	....	....	....	....	No quotations.*
" 26,....	109	108⅞	102½	108½	97	99½	147⅜ a 149
May 3,....	110½	110	105	105⅜	97	..	141½ a 141⅞
" 10,....	110½	110	105	105⅜	96½	99½	131½ a 135⅜
" 17,....	109⅜	109	103	103½	95	99	129⅜ a 131½
" 24,....	110	109½	103⅜	103⅜	95	99½	132½ a 135½
" 31,....	....	....	103	102⅜	94⅞	99½	136½ a 137⅜
June 7,....	105⅜	....	103½	103⅜	95⅜	...	136⅞ a 137½
" 14,....	....	109½	102⅜	102⅞	96⅜	99½	141½ a 142½
" 21,....	110	110½	103	103½	...	...	139⅜ a 142
" 28,....	110½	110½	103½	103½	97½	99⅞	139½ a 141
July 5,....	110½	110½	104	105	97⅜	99⅞	139½ a 140⅜

The fluctuations in these securities have been mainly governed by the ruling prices in the London market as brought by successive steamers.

The following table indicates a decided improvement in railway shares since the last month:

PRICES OF RAILWAY SHARES.

	March 29.	April 3.	April 27.	May 22.	June 22.
New York Central	84	101½	103	89	93½
Hudson River	96	107	115½	97	108
Erie	45	69½	85½	72⅜	77
Reading	89½	...	110⅜	91⅜	95½
Mich. So. and N. I.	50	62	74	58	60½
Illinois Central	93½	112½	117½	117	128
Cleveland and Pittsburg	52	74	83½	61	67½
Chicago and N. W.	21½	31⅜	34	21⅜	25
Chicago and R. I.	85⅜	96⅜	105	93½	93½
Fort Wayne	76⅜	93½	103	92⅜	96

A late New Orleans paper says:

"The abrogation of the five dollars per bale hospital tax, and twenty per cent war tax on cotton, by proclamation of the President, have had a happy effect throughout the country, and especially upon our market, giving an impetus to all branches of the business. Not only is the great staple coming forward more freely, but the demand is more general and active, with an advance of prices.

"One good feature of the week's cotton receipts has been their consignment to old factors by their old patrons, which indicates a desire to resume former intercourse and business. This is very creditable on both sides. Much of the cotton coming down now, also, is designed to meet old contracts and obligations. More creditable still. In the midst of the most ruinious revolution the world has ever seen, though we have

lost much else, we have not lost our commercial morality. We are still anchored fast to the everlasting rock, and, if the signs do not fail us, we shall soon be on the high road to commercial prosperity such as we have never seen."

The merchants of St. Louis have agreed to call the Trade Convention proposed by Mr. Blow. The body will assemble in St. Louis about the 1st of October. Delegations are to be invited from all the cities and leading towns in the southern, western and northwestern States, in the proportion of five representatives for each town, and ten or fifteen for each city, making, in all, some three hundred guests. They will be transported to and from their homes, and maintained at the hotels during their stay, free of charge. A banquet will be given them, and excursions made to the chief places of interest in the city and its vicinity. The City Council and county authorities are to be petitioned immediately to appropriate ten or twelve thousand dollars each towards defraying the expenses to be incurred in their entertainment.

The oil fever appears to be pretty well over. We do not hear any more plans for paying off that prodigious "blessing," the National Debt with the profit on our petroleum product. After all the experience men have had in commercial "manias," it is astonishing that any body should yet be simple enough to think that in the long run any business will pay better than another, counting risks and capital invested.

Any one who will look over the stock list and compare prices with what they were some nine months ago, will readily discover that immense sums of money have been lost. Some few, who early realized on their oil company shares, and at that time apparently made large fortunes, are well off if they put their oil profits into real estate, or the more substantial stock securities; but there were comparatively few of this character. Quite a number realized largely, but unfortunately, the great majority forgot the old saying, that the same individual is rarely, if ever, twice struck by lightning, or twice draws a capital prize in a lottery. They, too, generally put their first profits in again, grasping for a still larger return. The result is, they hold thousands of acres of barren lands, some few wells, irregular in their produce of oil, and a very considerable number producing no oil at all. The formation of companies and the traffic in shares are things of the past. Companies are now occasionally started, but there are no purchasers of shares. The business is utterly used up. Millions on millions of dollars as represented in paper shares of companies are swept from existence, and will never be heard of more in any tangible shape. The lands remain on which these corporations were formed, and whatever of value they possessed as oil producing territory, is still in the earth, but the difficulty of reaching it, and the uncertainty of its amount when reached, are facts that capitalists have learned to measure by more practical tests than come from a lively imagination.

The poetry of petroleum is fast following the "morus multicaulus," the "merino sheep," and "tulip" manias of other years. Not that we would be understood as denying that there is oil in the earth in several parts of the country, or that it is of much value. It is of large value, and will pay well to produce it at reasonable prices for the land under which it is supposed to lie. By industry and the skillful use of machinery, a judicious boring for oil may be continued at a fairly remunerative business on the average. Like other pursuits, it will be

attended with the usual vicissitudes and irregularities in results. Some, by streaks of good fortune, or by greater skill and economy, may realize fortunes, while others less skillful or less provident will lose. But whatever profit is realized in the business henceforth is to come from actual values. The sales of printed certificates at prices doubling at almost every turn, in many instances on erroneous, not to say decidedly false, representations, have beggared many honest people, with little profit resulting to those who, in glowing circulars, set the tempting bait before them; for what the gamble gained them in one transaction they lost in another, so that there is little advantage, perhaps, from all that has been lost, beyond the fuller development of the trade years earlier than would have been the case, had not enterprise and speculation been so largely directed to it. The oil product is large, as the following comparison of production and average price of oil at the wells during each of the last four years shows:

	Product—galls.	Av. price.	Total value.
1861	24,000,000	6¼c.	$1,500,000
1862	40,000,000	4c.	1,400,000
1863	70,000,000	9½c.	6,650,000
1864	87,000,000	23c.	20,000,000

The product of 1864 yielded about 62,000,000 gallons of refined oil, the average price of which, in bond, in this city, was sixty-two cents per gallon; giving, as the value of the refined article, in 1864, $40,300,000. Considering that the value of the raw product at the wells was $20,010,000, it appears that the refined product is worth just double the value of the raw oil from which it is derived.

JOURNAL OF BANKING, CURRENCY, AND FINANCE.

Rehabilitation of the South—The Twenty Thousand Dollar clause in the Proclamation of Amnesty—Petition from Richmond for its abrogation—The flow of Capital—The decision of Commissioner Lewis on Certified Checks—The New Orleans Banks—The Charleston Banks—Money Market—New York City Bank Returns—Philadelphia Bank Returns—Boston Banks—National Bank Clearing System—National Bank Capital and Circulation—War Debts of the States—Bank of England Returns—Bank of France Returns.

The intricacies of the Internal Revenue business have become so great that a new class of lawyers, revenue lawyers, have arisen to unravel its nice points and explain its numerous decisions. Hon. Samuel S. Cox of Ohio, who, for four years, was connected with the Committee of Foreign Affairs in Congress, and Charlton T. Lewis, Esq., late Deputy Commissioner of Internal Revenue, have, as will be seen from our advertising columns, formed a copartnership together for the prosecution of this business, and from their ability and experience, as well as their high standing in the community, we are confident that the cream of the business will flow into their hands.

The past month has been marked principally by the promulgation of a number of important Executive proclamations, all of them bearing more or less upon the rehabilitation of the Southern States and the opening of trade therein. The proclamation of the 29th May grants amnesty to all Southerners who shall take

the oath of allegiance except ex-officers in the rebel army above the rank of colonel, and also except those owning above twenty thousand dollars worth of property. There are twelve other classes of exceptions mentioned in the proclamation, but the two mentioned are those which are most pertinent to an inquiry concerning the flow of capital into the South, and the resumption of active commerce within its borders.

Another proclamation, dated June 24th, ordered the removal of all obstructions to internal commerce in the South, and permitted the cotton trade to be thrown open to all parties, thus doing away both with the intervention of government agents in its purchase and sale and with the twenty-five cents per pound tax which had previously existed by virtue of Treasury regulations.

A still further proclamation, which goes into effect on the 1st July, throws open all the ports of the South to foreign and domestic commerce. Added to these three most important documents are others appointing provisional governors to all the late insurgent States, and providing formulas for their early restoration to their civil rights under the Constitution and to representatives in Congress.

Were it not for the proviso which excludes from amnesty all the capitalists of the South, and renders the employment of any large sums of money in that section entirely insecure, nothing more could be wanted to encourage the immediate resumption of business there; and even this exception, it is believed, will either be removed by the President, or so far mitigated by especial acts of clemency, as to be in the main no balk to active industry.

The following extract of a numerously signed petition, which has lately been presented to the President, will explain the disadvantages worked by the clause in question:

To His Excellency Andrew Johnson, President of the United States:

Your memorialists, citizens of Richmond, in the State of Virginia, respectfully represent:

That the oath of amnesty tendered in President LINCOLN's proclamation of December 8, 1863, and March 20, 1864, and of which there was a renewed tender in Richmond after its occupation by the United States authorities, was taken by us, and in the full belief that we had thereby secured the pardon they had offered, with immunity from suffering in our persons or loss of our property, we commenced earnestly and successfully the work of rebuilding our city.

Money began to flow from the Northern and Middle States; for to attract it, we had, as was supposed, property to sell or to mortgage, and we were earnestly at work and making progress.

But hardly had we began when the opinion of the Attorney General of the United States was published, to the effect that we had not secured pardon, as we supposed, by taking the amnesty oath as prescribed in President LINCOLN's proclamation, and administered by the United States authorities.

Startled as we were by this opinion, whatever might be our own views and those of our advisers upon the question it discussed, yet the source whence it emanated entitled it to respect, and at once a painful doubt seized us whether we had, in fact, secured pardon and amnesty.

Our minds were in this disquieted state when your Excellency's proclamation of May 29, 1865, was promulgated. By a clause therein, amnesty, except upon special application, is expressly withheld from "all persons who have voluntarily participated in the rebellion, and the estimated value of whose taxable property is over $20,000."

Upon the doubt instilled by the opinion of the Attorney General, and with the express exclusion from the general amnesty tendered in your Excellency's proclamation,

the credit of the persons owning taxable property estimated to be above the value of twenty thousand dollars failed. The title to property being regarded as insecure, the credit founded on the title necessarily went down.

The consequences were not felt only by those who fell within the exception.

The clause has operated with an unhappy and ruinous effect upon all our interests and all classes of our population. It prevents sales of property; prevents the negotiation of bills of exchange or promissory notes; prevents raising money by mortgage, and fills our community with gloom, apathy and forebodings fatal to that energy and happiness which we feel sure your Excellency desires to see pervading the people over whom you preside.

Accompanying this memorial we present a number of letters from business men, representing every phase of our city life, from which the fatal effects of this exception will appear. It will be seen that these effects are not confined to the rich, to those worth over twenty thousand dollars in taxable property. They are felt by the poor and needy even in a sadder form than by others. Industry is paralyzed, work is discouraged, energy is annihilated. The poor tradesman or mechanic, the woman who earns her bread with her needle, the freedman seeking honest employment, all are discouraged and dejected. Their ordinary engagements are gone, because the property of the country is insecure, and a palsy has stricken the hands once outstretched to give them work and compensation.

Your memorialists are persuaded that it was not your Excellency's design, in incorporating this thirteenth exception in the proclamation, to arrest commercial enterprise or cripple the mechanical classes; and we are encouraged to unfold to you its operation in these particulars, in the strong belief that you will not be unwilling to consider how far a clause having such operation, unforseen, and in accordance with your design, ought to be continued in your offers of amnesty. And though we would fain hope that, upon reconsideration, your Excellency will determine to open yet wider the door of amnesty, not only for the benefit of the commercial and mechanical classes, but all others, by withdrawing entirely this exception, because events, since, the date of your proclamation, show that it is not inconsistent with its spirit now to do so; yet, should we be disappointed in this, we earnestly petition your Excellency so to deal with this unfortunate city, that its industry, commercial and mechanical, may be speedily revived; and to this end, that you will either consider the special application for amnesty of persons in this excepted class here resident or interested, more expeditiously than might, in less urgent need, be done, or by some regulation suitable to the case, heal the paralysis which now oppresses us.

Among the letters sustaining the petition are the following:

FIRST NATIONAL BANK OF RICHMOND,
RICHMOND, VA., June 27, 1864.

To Messrs. J. Alfred Jones, Robert Hewison, H. L. Kent and others, Committee:

GENTLEMEN—I have received your communication of yesterday, respecting my experience of the effects upon the business of this city of that clause of the President's proclamation of the 29th of May, 1865, excluding from a general amnesty those persons the estimated value of whose taxable property exceeds $20,000. As President of this bank, there is hardly a day that there does not arise some embarrassing financial question growing out of the clause referred to. These embarrassements are not confined to the excepted class, whose taxable property exceeds $20,000, but, practically, the clause paralyzes all pecuniary transactions of citizens of this State, whether the parties are within the clause or not. Persons of large and small means, to a great extent, during the war, converted their available means into foreign bills and old registered State stocks. The amount of money held on the other side by citizens of this State alone is estimated at £2,000,000, which, converted into our currency, would realize $11,000,000.

These balances held on the other side were being drawn for, but the proclamation of the President has caused the holders of the bills to stop drawing their money to this side. And, besides, their bills in New York, by reason of the clause referred to, are unsaleable; and thus business is seriously retarded, and money kept out of the country at the time when it is so urgently needed in rebuilding the city and enabling the farmers to stock their farms, &c. The securities which they hold cannot, for the same reason, be negotiated with Northern capitalists, as the question of this clause

immediately comes up pending a negotiation for loans, no difference whether a pardon has been granted or not.

The aggregate of money which might be borrowed on these securities, created before the war, and held in this State alone, it is estimated will reach $15,000,000; and but for the clause referred to, currency could be borrowed in the North by hypothecating these securities, and employed to build up not only this ill-fated city, but materially contribute to the pressing wants of the State.

The Northern capitalists have manifested, by numerous inquiries through this bank, a desire to make investments in real estate here, with a view of rebuilding the city; but as long as this clause remains unmodified, no difference how many citizens may be relieved from its disability, capitalists, in my opinion, will not place their money in property here. The practical working of the clause falls alike on the rich and the poor, the loyal and the disloyal.

Very respectfully, H. G. Fant, President.

It will be seen that the last great act in our drama of war, victory and restoration is drawing nigh. Step by step as the momentous events of the last four years have taken place, we have faithfully endeavored to elucidate their efforts upon finance and trade, and their occurrence has been so repeated and their scope so important that we have rarely failed to be puzzled, not what to say, but what to reject. It is, therefore, with a feeling of relief that we perceive ourselves almost upon the eve of the last change from the abnormal to the normal, from the days of battles and proclamations to those of legislation and law. The probable flow of capital, the rate of interest, the signs of future movements, all these may soon be within the compass of practical experience and scientific knowledge, and not as of late totally subject to the chances of war or official caprice.

And when the drama is ended, and the dawn of peace and constitutional government ripens into bright morning, the mists of deficit revenues, national poverty and repudiation which, to the eye of some capitalists, now hang over over us, will disappear. Capital from all parts of the earth, not the fabulous results which distorted imaginations conjure up from the bleak hills and sickly gullies of California, but the hard-earned product of thrift and abstinence, will flow into the country to replenish our empty coffers, and rejuvenate the land with the vital streams of commerce. Already enormous sums of capital are being exchanged for five-twenty bonds, and emigration with its myriad of smaller, but not less welcome contributions is fast making its way to our shores.

Mr. Solicitor Jourdon to whom was referred the question between the banks of this city and Commissioner Lewis, has decided in favor of the latter holding certified checks as circulating money, and liable to the tax of one-twelfth of one per cent. per month. In this decision both Messrs. Lewis and Jourdon are unquestionably correct. Not only legally but scientifically. The bankers of New York all know that scientifically certified checks are money, and in view of the evident intention of the law to break down the state banks, it is surprising that they should doubt that they are also money in a legal sense.

The New Orleans banks having, for greater security during the late war, invested part of their assets in cotton, and in state and municipal bonds, all of which are for a time beyond their immediate control are threatened with being compelled to liquidate, and to support commissioners at $2,500 a year and other law officers at proportionate rates, until said liquidation is completed, because they cannot at once respond to the demand of their bill holders. It is averred

that the great portion of their bill holders are sufficiently satisfied of their honesty and solvency, and that the threat of liquidation is only made by parties desirous to procure fat offices, and who have but insignificant sums in their bills.

The following details concerning the banks of Charleston are from the letter of a Charleston correspondent. We give them for what they are worth :—

In the city of Charleston they had chartered banks with $13,000,000 capital, and in the State, away from the city, $2,000,000 more. They had also $10,000,000 capital of private bankers, making for the State an actual banking capital of $25,000,000. The banks had issued $12,000,000 circulation, which, under the law, the stockholders are individually liable for. This is still unredeemed. The banks losing all they had at home, were only enabled to save their European balances. These will ultimately pay ten to fifteen cents upon the dollar, of the various banks, according to the balances held. To accomplish this, the first step was to compel the banks and bankers to take their government bonds, and issue their bills at par for one half their capital. This left their assets mainly in bills receivable. As these matured, from time to time, they were paid in Confederate circulation, which sank in its commercial value rapidly to such a point as to use up their entire assets at home ere long. At one time it was discovered that the banks held $100,000 in gold. The government demanded of them a tax of fifty per cent upon that amount. This they were allowed to pay in Confederate scrip at its par value, which at that time was two cents on the dollar, so that they paid the tax with currency that upon its face represented $2,000,000. By this and similar processes, their government not only absolutely absorbed all their capital, but almost all sorts of merchandise that could be converted into money, to raise means to prosecute the war.

Thus, Jeff. Davis and his coadjutors, upon the plea of a military necessity, took all the cash not only of South Carolina, but of Virginia, North Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Florida and Mississippi, which, in the aggregate, amounted to seventy-six millions of dollars—as my informant speaks advisedly, as far as he does speak—but, as he supposes, they have absorbed all their money and property in the seceded States, it is presumed the same rules apply to other States as they do to South Carolina.

In South Carolina the people now find their lands under their feet bare, their money, merchandise and products gone, slavery abolished, and the entire population without means of subsistence, except as they go to work, and with their own hands, hitherto unaccustomed to labor, plant cereals and cotton, living upon these productions. Thus, then, we can see what a scene the entire Southern country must present. They have lost in slave property $2,000,000,000 ; also five crops of cotton and rice, $1,000,000,000; banking capital $76,000,000 ; railroads, in stock and destruction, $124,000,000 ; tobacco, grain, stock, &c., $300,000,000—so that their entire loss of actual capital is $3,500,000,000—a larger sum than the entire federal debt. Add to this their outstanding indebtedness, to remain forever unpaid, of $3,000,000,000, and we see an entire loss and indebtedness of $6,500,000,000 of the Confederate States, to say nothing of the loss of human life. The people now find themselves without money, without slave labor, without clothing and the comforts of life.

The money market has been kept very easy during the month. The policy of the government is evidently to keep the Five-twenty bonds above par, in order to facilitate the Seven- thirty loan now on the market. Thus, the most vital interests of the entire country are completely surrendered to the interest of Mr. JAY COOKE. For in order to keep the Five twenties above par, the market price of which that security bears from time to time in Europe, has to be studied, and the disposition of government funds made accordingly. Thus, if Five-twenties fall in London, the reserve fund of the Treasury is rapidly let out here, and the price is still kept above par in paper, by means of a sudden redundancy. Should they then rise in London the Treasury reserve is again called in, paper is rendered less redundant, Five-twenties are kept where Mr. JAY COOKE wants them, and the premium in gold is maintained as low as possible, compatible with Mr. COOKE'S interests concerning the Five-twenties.

Call loans during the month have ranged from four to five per cent, with occasional transactions at six. The following table gives the market rate of interest during the past month, and also the average rate since the conclusion of the war:

	June 2.	June 9.	June 16, to end of m'th.
Loans on call, stock securities	6 a 7	5 a 6	4 a 5
do bond and mortgage	6 a 7	6 a 7	6 a 7
Prime indorsed bills, 60 days	— a 7	— a 7	6 a 7
do 3 to 4 months	7 a 8	7 a 8	6½ a 7½
First class single names	7 a 9	7 a 9	7 a 8
Other good notes	9 a 10	9 a 10	8 a 9

The following are the returns of the New York City Banks:

NEW YORK CITY BANKS.

(*Capital, Jan.*, 1864, $69,494,577; *Jan.*, 1865, $69,658,737; *April*, $76,658,737.)

Date.	Loans.	Specie.	Legal tender.	Circulation.	Net Deposits.	Clearings.
Dec. 24,	$203,512,093	$20,600,441	$.....	$3,383,346	$153,805,909	$593,336,137
" 31,	199,444,969	19,662,211	.....	3,288,332	147,442,071	471 039,253
Jan. 7,	195,044,687	20,152,892	.....	3,183,526	147,821,891	535,055 671
" 14,	189,686,750	21,357,608	.....	3,074,029	148,931,299	538,780,682
" 21,	187,060,586	20,211,569	.....	2,979,851	146,068,355	611,194,907
" 28,	169,502,630	18,174,316	.....	2,906,194	143,842,230	656,828,878
Feb. 4,	185,639,790	19,682,308	.....	2,868,646	152,703,316	663,814,434
" 11,	185,515,904	20,297,346	.....	2,821,996	156,711,166	584,179,409
" 18,	186,365,126	20,682,319	.....	2,855,982	156,150,634	518,305,222
" 25,	183,534,735	20,092,378	.....	2,739,383	153,948,481	481,028,121
Mar. 4,	186,569,665	19,530,183	.....	2,720,666	153,009,588	511,361,337
" 11,	188,120,890	20,737,838	26,713,408	2,741,684	152,134,448	412,302,453
" 18,	211,486,651	22,256,596	33,645,014	4,662,505	174,479,367	635,736,233
" 25,	207,677,503	22,066,524	35,295,156	4,457,162	166,965,508	604,796,726
Apr. 1,	204,458,355	20,584,668	42,989,382	4,888,980	173,350,491	509,148,691
" 8,	204,153,839	20,045,976	46,424,957	4,773,528	174,850,185	483,653,634
" 15,	206,508,095	19,583,784	51,061,462	4,757,862	177,815,945	427,761,675
" 22,	204,723,195	19,122,288	57,954,937	4,700,210	184,244,399	272,740,215
" 29,	204,277,573	19,049,913	66,096,274	4,660,659	196,188,733	359,950,814
May 6,	213,172,277	20,088,399	66,258,849	4,886,937	200,466,735	503,899,215
" 13,	218,502,980	23,553,231	61,052,537	4,889,562	203,369,886	511,914,441
" 20,	219,810,780	23,194,402	55,625,517	5,032,944	203,854,725	510,767,355
" 27,	212,445,121	23,063,929	54,524,078	5,068,693	197,081,017	429,221,799
June 3,	210,417,543	21,346,493	51,065,440	5,323,082	186,935,680	389,049,879
" 10,	208,392,635	18,480,620	56,201,836	5,402,778	185,509,953	420,542,766
" 17,	208,944,311	16,680,877	62,567,844	5,447,944	189,947,334	542,070,189
" 24,	213,590,230	15,906,314	58,560,589	5,789,070	187,508,936	519 448,415
July 1,	216,585,421	15,854,990	60,904,454	5,818,445	191,656,773	473,720,318

The deposit and discount lines indicate increasing business, while the specie line shows a falling off of nearly eight millions within a month.

The following are the returns of the Philadelphia banks:

PHILADELPHIA BANKS.

(*Capital, Jan.*, 1863, $11,740,080; 1865, $13,315,720; *Feb.*, 1865, $14,485,450.)

Date. 1856.	Loans.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Legal tenders.
Jan. 2,...	$48,059,403	$1,803,583	$2,793,463	$39,845,963	$14,524,175
" 9,...	49,250,629	1,781,108	2,978,035	41,001,803	15.297,223
" 16,...	49,833,799	1,750,669	3,228,785	43,121,208	17 003,905
" 23,...	49,755,716	1,792,891	3,606,051	40,186,513	15,939,593
" 30,...	50,056,584	1,773,266	4,010,192	59,822,860	16,572,893
Feb. 6,...	50,269,473	1,702,776	4,393,173	38,496,337	14,000,852
" 13,...	49,511,483	1,629,957	4,660,697	37,340,531	14,295,547

Date. 1865.	Loans.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Legal tenders.
" 20,...	48,639,386	1,569,223	4,866,771	37,141,900	13,922,954
" 27,...	48,992,272	1,498,644	5,077,436	39,011,100	15,398,502
Mar. 6,...	49,228,540	1,389,264	5,446,021	38,891,622	15,200,287
" 13,...	49,297,223	1,422,736	5,906,791	38,655,908	15,487,335
" 20,...	48,976,280	1,323,274	5,609,276	38,673,804	15,796,732
" 27,...	50,255,294	1,350,968	5,736,660	39,117,258	16,866,146
April 4,...	50,268,729	1,344,223	5,893,626	38,316,847	17,067,645
" 11,...	50,225,821	1,249,282	6,133,897	39,366,445	17,312,697
" 17,...	50,810,519	1,236,333	6,232,343	41,187,764	17,991,294
" 24,...	50,819,031	1,223,798	6,313,889	42,591,060	19,188,876
May 1,...	51,726,389	1,262,258	6,441,407	44,794,824	.....
" 8,...	51,172,347	1,297,558	6,430,742	45,158,284	19,576,916
" 16,...	52,678,146	1,286,404	6,447,961	47,695,971	20,300,326
" 23,...	52,978,259	1,264,618	6,585,003	44,831,378	20,919,610
" 30,...					
June 5,...	53,095,683	1,258,782	6,717,753	41,518,576	19,000,000
" 12,...					
" 19,...	50,449,649	1,216,293	6,688,488	39,127,801	19,570,094
" 26,...	50,369,800	1,208,852	6,790,444	39,607,041	19,445,055

The Boston Banks are extinct so far as being State banking institutions, and they will no longer appear in this work, except under the general returns of National Banks. There are forty four of these altogether in that city, and all have changed to the national system.

The banks of New York, Boston, and Philadelphia, in concurrence with Secretary McCulloch, are now making arrangements whereby the bills issued by the several National Banks are to be regularly redeemed in either one of the above-named cities. Under the arrangement the bills of all National Banks becoming parties thereto will be received at par by a redeeming bank in each of these cities, and forwarded by the bank receiving the same to their particular specified point of redemption, and from thence to the banks from which they were first issued. The proposed plan is probably the same, on a more extended scale, which has long been in successful operation in the New England States, and well known as the "Suffolk bank system." We understand that this idea of a National Clearing-House originated in the debates of the New York Society for the Advancement of Social Science, many of whose members are directors of New York city banks, and who have thus carried their plan into practical effect.

The following table exhibits the aggregate National Bank circulation:

NATIONAL BANKS.

Number, capital, and circulation quarterly to the end of 1864, and periodically to date in 1865.

Date.	Banks.	Capital.	Circulation.
October, 1863	94	$7,184,715	.....
January, 1864	137	14,523,721	$29,155
April, 1864	357	42,204,474	12,144,650
July, 1864	469	75,213,945	25,625,665
October, 1864	524	89,339,400	51,394,150
January, 1865	681	143,641,400	76,309,890
January 7, 1865	685	145,524,560	78,724,530
" 21,	736	169,099,296	83,058,200
February 4,	782	179,121,296	87,288,300
" 18,	815	186,041,716	93,666,380

Date.	Banks.	Capital.	Circulation.
March 4,	855	192,049,736	99,825,600
" 18,	908	202,944,486	104,750,540
April 1,	973	225,246,800	111,684,670
" 8,	993	232,064,150	114,524,000
" 22,	1,041	246,054,170	119,961,800
May 6,	1,116	264,954,170	126,360,330
" 13,	1,130	276,167,470	128,759,020
" 20,	1,172	281,868,820	130,680,170
" 27,	1,185	284,409,120	132,472,690
June 3,	1,212	298,971,020	135,607,060
" 10,	1,251	299,343,520	137,772,705
" 17,	1,297	310,295,891	140,797,755
" 24,	1,334	320,924,601	143,064,875

Congress having undertaken to determine that $300,000,000 is the amount of national bank circulation required by the commerce of the country, and having directed furthermore, in defiance of every principle of monetary economy, that the circulation shall be distributed among the several States according to population, the following has been determined upon as the amount of circulation to which each State is entitled:

Name.	Circulation to which each State is entitled.	Amount authorized to June 10	Amount delivered to June 10.
Maine	$5,415,000	$6,281,500	$3,490,770
New Hampshire	3,312,000	3,348,000	1,719,500
Vermont	2,989,500	3,626,991	2,405,200
Massachusetts	21,795,000	60,797,300	35,955,780
Rhode Island	4,794,000	8,271,300	1,716,450
Connecticut	7,222,500	10,411,688	7,550,500
New York	53,473,500	53,747,136	22,140,440
New Jersey	6,690,000	6,196,500	3,088,550
Pennsylvania	26,527,500	39,249,458	26,623,070
Maryland	7,137,000	2,344,500	1,567,500
Delaware	1,090,500	499,500	293,750
District of Columbia	658,500	1,395,000	874,900
Virginia / West Virginia	13,519,500	1,036,260	528,250
Ohio	17,623,500	17,983,500	12,167,140
Indiana	9,615,000	9,086,900	6,198,990
Illinois	11,838,000	9,086,900	6,198,990
Michigan	5,200,500	2,264,409	1,321,100
Wisconsin	6,211,500	2,056,500	1,287,000
Iowa	4,408,500	2,358,000	1,384,900
Minnesota	1,050,000	1,019,000	960,750
Kansas	646,500	90,000	49,000
Missouri	9,411,000	1,857,750	860,330
Kentucky	10,500,000	1,759,500	880,900
Tennessee	8,766,000	585,000	360,640
Louisiana	10,581,000	450,000	180,000
Nebraska Territory	181,500	58,590	27,000
Colorado Territory	193,500	180,000	.....
Mississippi	5,265,000	45,000	20,000
Georgia	9,429,000	.....	.....
North Carolina	7,546 500	.....	.....
South Carolina	7,556,000	.....	.....
Arkansas	2,724,000	.....	.....
Alabama	7,425,000	.....	.....
Utah Territory	237,000	.....	.....
Washington Territory	82,500	.....	.....
Oregon	370,500	.....	.....

California	3,008,000	.....	.....
Nevada Territory	48,000	.....	.....
New Mexico	486,000	.....	.....
Texas	3,961,000	.....	.....
Florida	955,500	.....	.....
Dakota	27,000	.....	.....
Grand total	$299,968,500	$252,079,883	$237,437,940

The claims of the various states and municipalities throughout the country upon the Treasury Department for expenses incurred on behalf of the United States in raising troops, &c., are beginning to come in. So far we have only seen those of the State of New York, the city and county of New York and the State of Iowa. The following tables will exhibit the claims of each, part of which have already been allowed and paid.

CLAIM OF THE STATE OF NEW YORK.

For arms and equipments	$797,861 31
For pay (officers and men)	335,565 15
For subsistence	463,0[illegible]7 96
For clothing	876,886 [illegible]7
For transportation	61,060 39
For medical expenses	31,145 [illegible]3
For volunteer enlistments	10,112 [illegible]0
For contingent expenses	241,649 71
For interest on loans for public defence	131,188 03
Total	$2,950,479 46

CLAIM OF THE CITY AND COUNTY OF NEW YORK.

For bounties and premiums, and all expenses connected therewith	$10,594,391 68
For purposes not connected with bounties and premiums,	6,918,281 51
Total	$17,512,673 19

CLAIM OF THE STATE OF IOWA.

For barracks and quarters	$ 19,115 [illegible]3
For clothing	112,956 [illegible]5
For subsistence	85,886 [illegible]5
For transportation	62,580 32
For recruiting	3,574 [illegible]9
For contingent expenses	50,173 [illegible]9
For payments to troops mustered into the United States service	274,181 92
For payments to officers in charge of the several camps of the State, and to troops *not* mustered into the United States service	8,285 55
For payments to 1st, 2d and 3d regiments, and included in a former settlement	30,824 51
Total	$647,563 51

SUMMARY.

Claimant.	Amount of Claim.	Paid on account.	Balance due.
State of New York..	$ 2,950,479	$1,421,289	$ 1,529,085
City & Coun. of N. Y.	17,512,673	2,935,458*	14,577,214
State of Iowa.....	647,563	nothing.	647,563
Total.....	$21,110,715	$4,356,852	£16,753,862

* It is proper to mention that of this amount but $39,458 has been reimbursed by the National Treasury, while of the remainder $2,146,000 was reimbursed by the State and $750,000 by the county. It is presumed that these reimbursements are charged to the general government in the claim of the State given above.

If this expenditure of twenty-one millions among a population of four millions and a half be taken as an average of the war expenditure, incurred by all the States individually, the total amount of claims will be about one hundred millions of dollars. But this cannot be correct, for while Iowa with a population of 674.913 persons expends $647,563 or less than one dollar per head, New York with a population of 3,880,735 expends $20,463,152 or over five dollars per head—man, woman and child. Besides, it is not improbable that other municipalities in New York, and municipalities in Iowa may yet have claims of this nature to present.

The following are the returns of the Bank of England:

THE BANK OF ENGLAND RETURNS (IN POUNDS STERLING).

Date. 1865.	Circulation.	Public Deposits.	Private Deposits.	Securities.	Coin and Bullion.	Rate of Discount.
Dec. 7,...	20,118,116	6,468,544	12,666,764	28,726,674	13,840,691	7 per ct.
" 14,...	19,669,832	7,161,719	12,267,474	28,301,603	14,122,711	6 "
" 21,...	19,669,007	7,694,616	12,927,807	29,326,027	14,807,760	6 "
" 28,...	19,810,455	8,601,125	13,040,643	30,708,033	14,100,974	6 "
Jan. 4,...	21,007,215	8,500,269	13,874,977	32,832,904	13,989,592	6 "
" 11,...	21,012,778	4,445,535	16,174,166	30,957,880	14,097,390	5½ "
" 18,...	21,223,548	4,186,614	14,658,015	29,292,273	14,163,227	5½ "
" 25,...	20,614,794	4,836,799	14,553,933	29,173,458	14,317,215	5 "
Feb. 1,...	20,998,478	5,541,452	14,447,994	30,040,983	14,461,224	5 "
" 8,...	20,743,805	6,252,892	13,814,063	29,908,102	14,511,611	5 "
" 15,...	20,399,763	6,572,512	13,969,659	30,007,199	14,553,871	5 "
" 22,...	20,101,978	6,665,364	14,140,885	29,910,491	14,600,283	4½ "
Mar. 1,...	20,381,080	6,854,409	14,158,331	30,424,108	14,801,267	4½ "
" 8,...	20,281,455	7 677,728	13,904,702	30,949,096	14,758,607	4½ "
" 15,...	20,095,563	8,848,481	13,785,825	31,204,694	14,882,258	4½ "
" 22,...	20,028,891	10,198,989	13,551,794	32,884,622	15,303,636	4½ "
" 29,...	20,388,744	9,889,430	13,478,242	32,271,054	15,358,999	4 "
April 5,...	21,852,503	9,331,615	14,172,853	32,728,269	15,255,433	4 "
" 12,...	21,750,643	5,826,854	15,414,509	31,226,403	14,987,379	4 "
" 19,...	21,428,>19	6,020,989	14,700,220	30,858,910	14,974,0:0	4 "
" 26, ..	21,438,377	6,298,382	13,965,270	30,139,409	14,754,795	4 "
May 3,...	22,072,011	6,712,465	14,059,280	31,856,348	14,679,974	4½ "
" 10,...	21,701,880	7,349,114	13,760,032	31,149,978	14,862,102	4½ "
" 17,...	21,769,022	7,660,977	13,489,291	31,011,642	15,023,918	4½ "
" 24,...	21,830,490	7,997,105	13,551,860	30,800,717	1,044,268	4 "
" 31,...	21,422,198	8,706,848	13,919,431	31,400,265	15,888,491	3½ "
June 7,...	21,635,494	7,954,181	13,357,083	31,192,555	15,860,615	3½ "
" 14,...	21,191,106	8,802,198	12,935,381	29,996,664	16,045,669	3 "
" 21,...	21,153,552	9,581,293	13,666,566	31,280,370	16,294,910	3 "

The following are the returns of the Bank of France:

BANK OF FRANCE.

	Loans.	Cash and Bullion.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Interest.
December 8	fr.566,921,053	fr.355,640,597	fr.722,291,475	fr.178,963,028	5
" 15	586,521,783	351,562,024	739,383,125	161,270,492	5
" 22	561,603,376	364,008,378	721,487,475	153,193,515	4½
" 29	597,157,830	359,969,767	726,212,275	171,321,867	.
January 5	690,129,259	330,071,913	790,526,625	190,488,131	4½
" 12	677,690,909	314,771,593	806,325,675	153,188,384	4½
" 19	667,121,414	318,170,064	817,443,275	142,120,960	4½
" 26	642,779,287	322,119,477	808,283,975	139,123,008	4½
February 2	651,375,290	318,454,492	812,425,525	143,430,627	4½
" 9	638,303,905	339,240,543	805,966,575	158,039,752	4
" 16	604,140,057	354,573,163	801,601,175	139 995,738	4
" 23	584,895,098	371,630,673	785,025,125	150,235,834	4

California	3,003,000	.....
Nevada Territory	48,000	.....
New Mexico	486,000	.....
Texas	3,961,000	.....
Florida	955,500	.....
Dakota	27,000	.....
Grand total	$299,968,500	$25[illegible]

The claims of the various states and municipalities upon the Treasury Department for expenses incurred States in raising troops, &c., are beginning to c seen those of the State of New York, the city the State of Iowa. The following tables will of which have already been allowed and paid.

CLAIM OF THE STATE O

For arms and equipments	[illegible]
For pay (officers and men)	[illegible]
For subsistence	[illegible]
For clothing	[illegible]
For transportation	[illegible]
For medical expenses	[illegible]
For volunteer enlistments	[illegible]
For contingent expenses	[illegible]
For interest on loans for public defen	[illegible]
Total	[illegible]

CLAIM OF THE C

For bounties and premiums, and	[illegible]
For purposes not connected wit	[illegible]
Total	[illegible]

CL

For barracks and quarters	[illegible]
For clothing	[illegible]
For subsistence	[illegible]
For transportation	[illegible]
For recruiting	[illegible]
For contingent expens	[illegible]
For payments to troo	[illegible]
For payments to offi	[illegible]
to troops *not* n	[illegible]
For payments to	[illegible]
settlement	[illegible]
Tot	[illegible]

Claimar

State of Ne	[illegible]
City & Cou	[illegible]
State of I.	[illegible]
Tot	[illegible]

30, 1864, has been as

VANIA.

tons re-rolled) 97,222	$8,264,210
.....	8,587,500
ns at $90	6,610,040
100	4,575,500
of such as were made of imported	7,412,500
, 11,969 at $20	2,390,200
o various useful forms, machinery, &c., &c.,	12,693,195
9 T, at 12c. or $250 per ton	1,906,750
kind, 3,219 tons, worth $400 per ton	1,287,600
of steel (saws, springs, &c., &c.)	1,906,575
	262,625
Total value	$54,943,295

* It

the N owing table shows the production of iron and steel, in all the States, and the iscal year of 1863–4:

...THE UNITED STATES FOR THE YEAR ENDING 30TH JUNE, 1864.

	Railroad New. Tons.	Sand-hoop and Plate. Tons.	Blooms & Rol'd Bars. Tons.	Heavy Castings. Tons.
	...	.....	3,818	1,325
	.	.....	7,471	1,099
		288	97	1,109
		9,239	22,160	10 704
		87	408	2,017
		528	5,028	3,898
		'	32,210	48,010
			12,987	21,894
			73.342	45.774
			' 859	871
			0	4,110
				385
				.....
				651
				3,126
			.6	3,416
			....	933
			.....	.....
			18,416	12,920
			1	1,719
		3	2,834	6,662
		-,162	1,884	1,545
		.....	.....	1,859
		.....	.....	868
	.	.....	.....	.....
	...	.....	.. ..	108
	.....	.....	459	3,181
	.....	.....	.....	.....
	.....	.....	.....	.....
	.	.....	.....	.....
	...	.....	.....	.....
	.....	.....	.....	.....
	.....	.....	.....	.....
	.....	.....	.....	.....
...	159,000	117,224	158,936	179,292	172,182
.....		$9,964,040	$15,893,600	17,929,200	$15,496,380

	Cut Nails & Rivets Tons.	Hollow Ware & Stoves. Tons.	Locomoti's & Marine Engines. Value.	Steel Bars. Tons.	Steel in various Manufi'rs. Value.	Iron in various Manufi'rs. Value.
.....	416	623	12,690	.....	65,231	891,740
ampshire.	69	584	.....	.....	241 848	914,959
ermont.....	433	272	.....	.....	191,605	627,040
Massachusetts.	21,936	5,783	47,866	444	2,305,866	11,133,927
Rhode Island.	7,753	2,921	.....	.....	126,076	2,542,463
Connecticut...	1,987	723	359.469	175	1,939,493	7 552,872
New York....	15,606	85.711	797.428	1,107	2,451,869	12.526.164
New Jersey...	13.872	2.894	41,659	1.895	812.992	6,169.100
Pennsylvania .	37,135	11,850	262.684	7,259	1,908,612	12,693.946
Delaware.....	684	.....	55,749	.....	89,423	568,343
Maryland.....	477	1,560	59,449	.....	16,513	883,957
Dis. of Columb.	.....	17	.....	.....	.....	29,268
W. Va. & Va.	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	800
W. Virginia..	.....	2,024	68,008	.....	.....	19.826
Kentucky	.....	987	183,003	.....	1,225	172,758

		Loans.	Cash and Bullion.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Interest.
March	2	569,812,574	381,455,854	772,377,175	192,866,298	4
"	9	544,367,920	410,774,986	773,343,825	166,985,971	3½
"	16	514,175,658	424,981,230	777,528,125	153,467,097	3½
"	23	509,473,256	445,864,708	774,556,625	148,899,173	3½
"	30	533,202,250	456,899,812	764,783,125	158,286,600	3½
April	6	520,398,578	454,945,361	786,434,775	167,028,900	3½
"	13	522,800,231	432,776,299	806,557,975	180,834,687	3½
"	20	533,509,141	430,925,270	811,751,175	182,941,333	3½
"	27	532,804,786	422,621,703	808,818,275	151,124,075	3½
May	4	541,445,768	451,698,249	812,077,975	172,371,532	3½
"	11	523,458,076	460,963,977	817,660,875	168,213,664	3½
"	18	504,570,038	476,043,233	807,978,225	178,414,107	3½
"	25	487,108,699	486,096,375	803,248,375	183,490,401	3½
June	1	486,044,806	490,881,624	809,856,075	196,078,358	3½
"	8	491,926,752	493,927,231	795,612,975	203,630,138	3½

STATISTICS OF TRADE AND COMMERCE.

THE PRODUCTION OF PENNSYLVANIA FOR 1864.

The year 1864 has been, in Pennsylvania, as elsewhere, one of great activity and prosperity. High prices constantly advancing have served to increase the production of coal, iron and petroleum much beyond that of former years. The figures and statements we give below are prepared from the report of A. J. Perkins, Esq., Secretary of the Board of Trade of Philadelphia.

IRON.

The total product of iron, for the year ending June 30, 1864, has been as follows:

IRON PRODUCT OF PENNSYLVANIA.

Of railroad bars (exclusive of 37,672 52-100 tons re-rolled) 97,222 tons at average $185	$8,264,210
Of rolled plate iron 86,932 tons at $100	8,587,500
Of iron bars other than rails, 73,842 tons at $90	6,610,040
Of heavy castings, 45,772 tons at $100	4,575,500
Of cut nails and rivets, exclusive of such as were made of imported iron, 37,135 at $200	7,412,600
Of hollow ware and stoves T, 11,960 at $20	2,390,200
Of manufactures of iron into various useful forms, machinery, &c., &c., value	12,633,106
Of steel bars, &c., 4,039 T, at 12c. or $250 per ton	1,009,750
Of steel bars of finer kind, 3,219 tons, worth $400 per ton	1,287,600
Of manufactures of steel (saws, springs, &c., &c.)	1,906,575
Marine engines	262,556
Total value	$54,942,536

The following table shows the production of iron and steel, in all the States, for the fiscal year of 1863–4:

IRON AND STEEL PRODUCTION OF THE UNITED STATES FOR THE YEAR ENDING 30TH JUNE, 1864.

States.	Railroad Re-rolled. Tons.	Railroad New. Tons.	Band-hoop and Plate. Tons.	Blooms & Rol'd Bars. Tons.	Heavy Castings. Tons.
Maine	.....	.....	.....	3,818	1,325
New Hampshire	.....	.....	.....	7,471	1,099
Vermont	.....	.....	288	97	1,109
Massachusetts	19,401	9,856	9,239	22,160	10 704
Rhode Island	.....	.....	87	408	2,017
Connecticut	.....	8	523	5,023	3,898
New York	31,705	6,031	5,032	32,210	43,010
New Jersey	3,926	2,576	3,538	12,987	21,894
Pennsylvania	40,169	97,222	85,932	78.342	45.774
Delaware	.....	.....	940	1,859	371
Maryland	7,914	.....	13,216	2,300	4,110
District of Columbia	.....	.....	.....	.....	385
W. Virginia and Va. } W. Virginia. }	4,788	1,473	1,290	1,740	.....
	.....	.....	.....	.....	651
Kentucky	2,775	.....	6,740	427	3,126
Missouri	.....	.....	2,056	2,846	3,416
Tennessee. } Louisiana. }	.....	.....	.....	.....	933
	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Ohio	14,050	50	20,790	13,416	12,920
Indiana	9,685	8	.....	1	1,719
Illinois	20,642	.....	3	2,334	6,662
Michigan	3,945	.....	2,162	1,884	1,545
Wisconsin	.....	.....	.....	.....	1,859
Iowa	.....	.....	.....	.....	368
Minnesota	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Kansas	.....	.....	.....	.. ..	108
California	.....	.....	.....	459	3,181
Oregon	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Nebraska	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
New Mexico	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Utah	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Colorado	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Nevada	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Washington	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Total quantity	159,000	117,224	153.936	179,292	172,182
Total value		$9,964,040	$15,393,600	17,929,200	$15,496,380

States.	Cut Nails & Rivets Tons.	Hollow Ware & Stoves. Tons.	Locomoti's & Marine Engines. Value.	Steel Bars. Tons.	Steel in various Manuf'rs. Value.	Iron in various Manuf'rs. Value.
Maine	416	623	12,690	.....	65,231	391,740
N. Hampshire.	69	584	.....	.....	241 848	914,959
Vermont	433	272	.....	.....	191,605	627,040
Massachusetts.	21,936	5,782	47,866	444	2,305,866	11,133,927
Rhode Island.	7,753	2,921	.....	.....	126,076	2,542,463
Connecticut	1,987	723	359,469	175	1,939,493	7 552,872
New York	15,606	35.711	797,428	1,107	2,451,869	12.526.164
New Jersey	13,872	2.894	41,659	1.895	812.992	6,169.100
Pennsylvania	37,135	11,850	262,684	7,259	1,908,612	12,683.946
Delaware	684	.....	55,749	.....	89,423	568,943
Maryland	477	1,560	59,449	.....	16,513	883,957
Dis. of Columb.	.....	17	.....	.....	.....	29,266
W. Va. & Va.	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	800
W. Virginia	.....	2,024	63,008	.....	.....	19.826
Kentucky	.....	987	183,003	.....	1,225	172,758

Missouri.....	14,090	4,338	11,146	.....	59,691	892,273
Tennessee } ..	.....	.....	.....	3	.....	3,956
Louisiana } ..	2,566	.....	.....	.....	.....	53,934
Ohio..... ..	10,126	9,280	203,243	.....	105,114	3,186,556
Indiana	46	858	82,248	.....	15,268	467,525
Illinois.....	22	764	.....	.....	188,408	789,904
Michigan.....	168	112	.. ...	.....	9,962	462,378
Wisconsin	.....	555	.....	.....	2,970	117,056
Iowa	.....	153	1,500	.....	.....	63,554
Minnesota.....	.....	8	.....	... ..	.....	1,775
Kansas.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	9,838
California.....	.....	23	.....	.....	.....	1,070,548
Oregon.....	.....	12	.....	.....	.....	38,455
Nebraska.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
New Mexico...	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Utah.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	4,063
Colorado.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2,440
Nevada.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	68,903
Washington...	.....	.....	.....	.....	.. ...	.. ...
Tl quantity	127,381	81,956		10,880		
Total val.	$25,476,200	16,391,200	$2,181,137	$3,536,000	$9,979,061	$62,964,920

From the table below we see the relative production of Pennsylvania and the other States, both in amount and value:

PRODUCTION AND MANUFACTURE OF IRON, YEAR ENDING JUNE 30TH, 1864.

	For the United States.		For Pennsylvania.	
	Tons.	Value.	Tons.	Value.
Rails, re-rolled.....	159,000	....	40,763	.....
Rails, new.....	117,224	$9,964,040	97,226	$8,264,210
Band, Hoop and Plate....	153,936	15,393,600	85,875	8,587 500
Bars and Blooms.....	179,212	17,929,200	73,446	6,610,040
Rivets and Cut Nails.....	127,381	25,476,200	37,063	7,412,640
Heavy Castings.....	172,182	15,496,380	45,756	4,575,610
Hollow Ware and Stoves.	81,955	16,391,200	11,951	2,390,200
Total.....	990,971	$100,650,620	392,080	$37,841,150
Marine Engines.....	.. ....	2,180,137	.... ..	262,655
Steel, Unwrought.....	10,880	3,536,000	7,256	2,297 350
Steel Manufacturers N.O.P.	.. ....	9,979,061	.... ..	1,908,575
Iron Manufacturers N.O.P.	.. ....	62,964,920	.. ....	12,633 106
Aggregate value.....	.....	$179,811,738	.....	$54,912,836

Total U. S. Tax—for U. S, $3,202,356. For Pennsylvania, $1,042,852.

IRON IMPORTS INTO THE UNITED STATES FOR 1864.

	Tons.	Value.
Pig and Puddled.....	68,652	$1,650,167
Bar, Angle, Bolt and Rod.....	73,561	3,490,307
Rail Road.....	108,788	4,057,663
Castings.....	635	69,104
Boiler Plate, Hoop and Sheet.....	19,041	1,371,119
Wrought and all other kinds.....	12,722	1,224,065
Total Iron.....	275,843	$10,959,205
" Steel, Unwrought.....	14,992	2,393,596
Aggregate value in gold.....	.....	$.3,515,035

PETROLEUM.

The review of the Petroleum trade, which we published in our issue for Feb

ruary, renders unnecessary much that might be said under this head. The total production in the United States, for the year, is given as follows in the Board of Trade report:

PRODUCTION OF PETROLEUM IN THE UNITED STATES.

	Gallons.
Exported	33,467,424
Refined in Pennsylvania for domestic consumption	13,349,974
Refined in other States for domestic consumption	8,665,215
Total	55,482,613

The above figures of exports do not agree with those given in our previous statement, by about two million gallons. This arises from the addition of that amount for exports from Cleveland and other ports, said to be officially reported to the Treasury Department since our previous statement was published.

To arrive, however, at a correct conclusion respecting the production of petroleum, we should remember that of the above amount probably 46,000,000 gallons was refined oil, and would equal therefore 60,000.000 of crude oil. Besides this, there is always great loss by evaporation, flood, fire, and many other causes. The destruction of 10,000 barrels in the beginning of March, 1864, in one lot, is known. Then, again, there is a very considerable quantity used for lubricating purposes. Hence it is evident that the actual production of petroleum during 1864 must have largely exceeded the total given above.

COAL.

We gave in our May number for this year an article on the coal trade, etc., in which, among other things, we published a table of the yearly production in Pennsylvania from the commencement of the trade to the close of 1864. Those tables it is unnecessary to reproduce. The following returns, however, from the report of the Commissioner of Internal Revenue will be of interest:

COAL PRODUCT OF PENNSYLVANIA IN DETAIL, YEAR ENDING JUNE 30TH, 1864, PER REPORT OF COMMISSIONER OF INTERNAL REVENUE.

District.	Counties.	Anthracite.	
10.	Schuylkill and Lebanon	8,056,627	
11.	Carbon, Monroe, and Northampton	505,864	
12.	Luzerne and Susquehanna	4,939,661	
13.	Centre, Clinton, Tioga, Potter, Lycoming	312,949	
13.	Columbia, Montour, and Sullivan	510,012	
14.	Northd, Union, Dauphin, Snyder, and Juniata	542,638	
16.	Franklin, Fulton, Bedford, Somerset	8,417	
			9,876,174
		Broad Top & other semi-anthracite.	
17.	Blair, Cambria, and Huntingdon	422,992	422,992
		Bituminous.	
19.	Elk and Clearfield	1,342	
20.	Venango, Mercer, Clarion	272,759	
21.	Fayette, Westmoreland, Indiana	358,245	
22.	Alleghany Co, S. of river	1,431,432	
23.	Alleghany Co., N. of river	196,360	
24.	Lawrence and Washington	138,096	
			2,399,246
	Tons		12,698,412
	At $5½ per ton		$69,841,926

PENNSYLVANIA COAL IN DETAIL, JULY TO DECEMBER, 1864, INCLUSIVE, SIX MONTHS.

Dist.	Counties.	U. S. tax.	Tons.
10.	Schuylkill and Lebanon	$90,247 41	1,804,948
11.	Carbon, Monroe, Pike, Wayne	20,312 22	406,244
12.	Luzerne and Susquehanna	143,638 38	2,872,760
13.	Sullivan, Columbia, and Montour	12,616 05	252,320
14.	North'd, Dauphin, Snyder, Union, Juniata	12,896 74	257,920
16.	Adams, Franklin, Bedford, Somerset	1,369 99	27,381
17.	Cambria, Blair, Mifflin, Huntingdon	10,663 35	213,260
18.	Tioga, Potter, Clinton, Centre, Lycoming	11,086 85	221,721
19	Erie, Warren, Cam., Jefferson	98 40	1,960
20.	Mercer, Clarion	8,834 60	176,683
21.	Indiana, Westmoreland, Fayette	9,559 19	191,180
22.	Alleghany, S. of river	19,712 56	394,240
23.	Alleghany, N. of river, and Butler	4,058 23	91,160
24.	Lawrence, Washington, Green	5,070 00	101,400
		$350,168 37	7,003,367

The product of all the States under Government control for the year ending June 30, 1864, is returned as follows by the Internal Revenue Department:

COAL PRODUCT OF THE LOYAL UNITED STATES, YEAR ENDING JUNE 30TH, 1864.

	Tons.		Tons.
Rhode Island	8,656	Illinois	925,293
Pennsylvania	12,698,412	Michigan	16,296
Maryland	787,269	Minnesota	50,204
District Columbia	742	Kansas	236
West Virginia	398,815	California	44,938
Kentucky	91,036	Washington	7,754
Missouri	66,187		
Ohio	1,324,685	Total tons	16,472,410
Indiana	146,787		

SUGAR MAKING.

DR. HASSALL, Analyst of the *Lancet* Sanitary Commission, in his analysis of sugar, says:—"Muscovado, the raw sugar of commerce, has the following composition. Although consisting chiefly of sucrose or crystallizable sugar, it yet contains a good deal of glucose, and is contaminated by various organic and mineral substances. According to AVEQUIN its mineral constituents are: silica, phosphate and subphosphate of lime, carbonate of lime, sulphate of potash, chloride of potassium; and the acetates of potash and lime. The juice of the cane is expressed by means of powerful machinery, and during the crushing operation innumerable fragments of the cane itself, many of them of extreme minuteness, become detached and pass into the juice. As this, in its manufacture into sugar, does not undergo, in general, any process of filtration, and as but few of the fragments drain away with the molasses, the greater part are retained in the sugar, in all unfiltered samples of which they may be readily detected in great abundance, by means of the microscope. Ordinary brown sugar, prepared from juice which has not been subjected to filtration, contains, almost invariably a great many fragments of the tissue of the sugar cane, sporules of a fungus, and also large numbers of an insect termed an *acarus*. They are not contained in loaf sugar, crushed, lump, or sugar candy; in the preparation of all these sugars

the saccharine matter undergoes a process of filtration which effectually removes all solid and bulky impurities. The saccharine juice of the beetroot is filtered through charcoal, and, therefore fragments of that plant are not present in the sugar made from it, as they would be, doubtless, were this means of purification not adopted. The various and damaging impurities of Muscovado sugar are thus explained. The presence of the fragments of cane is accounted for by the cane juice not having been deprived by filtration and purification by charcoal of the fungus and insect germs, products of fermentation and nitrogenous matter. In sugars which have been refined none of those impurities are met with. The sugar mite, or *acarus sacchari*, is first visible as a rounded body, or egg; this gradually enlarges, and becomes elongated and cylindrical, until it is about twice as long as broad; after a time, from the sides and one extremity of this ovum the legs and proboscis begin to protrude. The *acarus* goes on increasing in size until it attains its full growth, when it is visible to the naked eye as a mere spec. In most samples of sugar the *acari* may be seen of all sizes, that is, in all stages of their growth, and in every condition, some alive, others dead, some entire, and others broken into fragments, bodies here, legs there. We have said that the sugar mite is very commonly present in the less pure sugars; we might have asserted that it is almost constantly so, the statement being based upon the examination of not less than 100 different samples of sugar."—By Dr. A. H. HASSALL, Analyst of the *Lancet* Sanitary Commission.

Since Dr. HASSALL wrote the above, a new and important process in the manufacture of cane sugar, by KNIGHT's compound, has been announced. The following is a synopsis of the method:—"As filtration is indispensable for purifying cane juice, the best mode of performing this operation effectively is to add pulverized animal charcoal to the saccharine juice, and to separate the liquid from the bone black and the solid impurities, by a process of filtration through textile fabric. Since its first application to sugar manipulation in 1810, animal charcoal has been universally adopted in the manufacture of beet sugar. This invaluable agency is now the mainstay in the art of manufacturing and refining; it is produced by the calcination of cattle bones in closed vessels deprived of air. When in a dry state its composition is as follows:

Carbon	10·5	
Lime	45·1	88·7 per cent of Phosphate of Lime, while the best Peruvian Guano does not contain 25 per cent of the same phosphate.
Phosphoric Acid	88·6	
Soluble Salts	1·4	
Insoluble Ash	4·4	
	100·0	

Ground to a fine powder, retaining still ten per cent of moisture, bone black absorbs one-twelfth of its own weight of hydrate of lime, or one pound of hydrate of lime is absorbed by twelve pounds of animal charcoal. Bone black has also the properties of absorbing ammoniacal, azoted, odorous, oily and coloring matters. Applied to sugar it promotes crystallization wonderfully. Animal charcoal, prepared by KNIGHT's process, is transferred into a new product, with increased power for effecting a rapid and perfect filtration, and also for absorbing

lime and coloring matter. It moreover contains, besides a very large amount of phosphate of lime, other mineral ingredients, which will make a powerful manure, especially for the sugar crop. Mixed with the scum of defecations, it restores to the earth the substance taken from it by the cane. This addition to the spent compound doubles its bulk and weight. KNIGHT'S improved animal charcoal is sold and delivered in Liverpool at £10 the ton. It is used at the rate of two per cent, that is to say, two tons of bone black are employed for manufacturing one hundred tons of superior sugar. These two tons of improved black, costing £20, are more than repaid by the four tons of an excellent fertilizer delivered on the sugar plantation, whereas four tons of Peruvian guano would cost in Liverpool £53. The sugar produced by the new process of manufacture being well purified, does not melt when stored like the common Muscovado, which, during the sea voyage to Europe, loses from 10 to 15 per cent. The improved sugar is of a standard which obtains at least £2 per ton above the price of unfiltered Muscovado. The quantity is increased in the ratio of 10 per cent, *i. e.*, in place of 100 tons of common sugar, the same amount of cane juice yields 100 tons of purified Muscovado. The apparatus required to carry out the new process, is composed of an improved filter, with its appurtenances, a lift pump, and three reservoirs. By the old process of sugar making, 100 tons of brown sugar loses 10 tons from drainage during the sea voyage to Europe, the remaining 90 tons sold in bond at £20 produce £1,800. From the same number of gallons of cane juice, 110 tons of purified yellow Muscovado are obtained with the new mode of manufacture, sold at £22, give £2,420, showing a surplus of £620. Thus, an estate which produces now 1,000 tons of sugar per annum, will make, by the improved process, a yearly surplus of £6,200 above its present income; the value of manure produced covering all the cost of the new process, and insuring a steady and constant increase in the sugar crop. The remarkable features of this new process, are its simplicity and its inexpensiveness. It does not require skilled labor, and can be carried on with as little cost on the smallest as well as the largest scale. The manipulator is not restricted to the production of Muscovado alone, the cane juice being so well purified that the sugar can be easily bleached so as to produce the highest class of unstoved sugar. Therefore, should the duties on sugar be equalized, *i. e.*, if a single duty is put on imported sugar, as is already on tea, whatever be its quality, the smallest sugar estate can henceforth compete with the largest one already in possession of the most improved plant—a problem now solved for the first time."

JOURNAL OF INSURANCE.

INSURANCE COMPANIES IN NEW YORK STATE.

We have received from the New York Insurance Department advance sheets of the Department's Report, from which it appears that the amount of capital invested in joint stock insurance companies, has been increased over five million dollars during the year. The following table exhibits the increase in the number, capital, and premium income for a period of seventeen years:

TABLE.

Showing the progressive net increase in the Number of New York State Joint Stock Fire Insurance Companies, with their Aggregate Capital and Premium Income, from the year 1848 to 1864 inclusive:

Year.	No. of Co's.	Am't of Capital.	Premium Income.
1848—M. Fillmore, Compt.	24	$5,421,700	Not returned
1849—W. Hunt do	24	5,511,010	do
1850— do do	31	7,006,010	do
1851—Philo C. Fuller do	35	7,156,010	do
1852—John C. Wright do	48	8,506,010	do
1853— do do	64	13,056,010	4,692,270 59
1854—James M. Cook do	67	13,553,010	4,692,270 59
1855— do do	69	13,852,010	5,018,446 68
1856—L. Burrows do	73	14,902,010	5,570,440 90
1857— do do	83	16,731,010	5,961,404 87
1858—S. E. Church do	86	17,131,010	6,046,436 76
1859— do do	98	20,007,010	6,599,360 96
1860—Wm. Barnes, Supern't	96	20,482,860	6,271,595 52
1861— do do	95	20,282,860	6,827,736 46
1862— do do	96	20,432,860	7,712,190 88
1863— do do	101	23,632,860	10,181,030 52
1864— do do	107	28,807,070	15,618,603 82

It must be borne in mind, however, that the average rate of fire premium was not increased at all during the year. but actually declined, and that the augmented premiums consequently resulted entirely from an increased amount of business. The fire premiums of the New York joint stock companies increased, as stated above, from $10,181.030.52 in 1863, to $15,618,603.82 in 1864—the ratio being 53.4088, which is the highest ever known in the history of these corporations. The number of policies issued by New York life insurance companies increased from 20,757 in 1863, to 28,782 in 1864, and the amount insured from $140,628,427.10 to $194,819,324.45. The gross assets of all the New York companies, fire, marine, and life, increased during the year from $82,488,066.07 to $103,453,772.76.

The grand average per centage of losses to premiums in all the New York joint stock fire insurance companies has ranged. during the last five years, from 41.15 in 1863, to 60.44 in 1862. For every $100 of premium received in 1862, over $60 was paid for losses. When the individual companies are taken, and the losses to premiums averaged for the five years combined. the range of per centage oscillates from 18.64, in the case of the American, to 95.99, in the case

of the North-western, and when these five years are separated, the swing of the pendulum extends from 0.80 per cent, in the case of the Commerce Fire, in 1863, to 259 81 per cent, in the case of the Beekman, in 1862. Averaging all the companies, for the five years combined, 1860 to 1864 inclusive, fifty have lost less than fifty cent of premiums, and fifty-one more than fifty per cent of premiums; again, separating the years, the number of companies losing more and less than fifty per cent of premium was as follows:

Year.	No. of Companies.	No. of Co's losing over 50 ₩ ct.	No. of Co's losing less than 50 ₩ ct.
1860	76	51	45
186'	96	46	49
1862	96	55	31
1863	101	21	80
1864	180	68	46
Average	99.20	47	52.20

It is thus demonstrated beyond any cavil and contradiction, by the experience of the last five years, that a very large number of companies actually lose heavily beyond the fifty per cent of premiums received on outstanding unexpired risks, and that therefore this small reserve is, as a matter of fact, entirely inadequate to meet and provide for even the average oscillations of loss, much less for the annual variations which must be considered as certain to occur during a series of years. Shall these losses be paid out of capital, or from an accumulation of surplus profits and a reinsurance fund expressly provided for such contingencies?

The Superintendent has but one opinion on this point. Capital should ordinarily remain intact, to be impaired only by such super-extraordinary fires as those in New York City in 1835 and 1845.

The Superintendent feels that it is his duty, as well to the companies as to the public, to reiterate the recommendation of last year on this subject, that a sum at least equal to the full amount of premiums received on unexpired risks should be reserved from division by dividends and maintained as a surplus fund for reinsurance and other contingencies, and that "all our companies should voluntarily adopt this principle as a golden rule in declaring dividends either with or without further compulsory or restrictive legislation on the subject." This regulating principle embodied in legislation would also operate beneficially in discouraging the organization of an unnecessary and embarrassing number of new corporations.

It is only simple justice to officers and directors to say that the tendencies of our companies in this direction have already been marked and decided during the last five years, and have not failed to attract the attention and commendation of European economists and statisticians.

The following average dividends only, have been paid for the last five years:

Year ending Dec. 31.	No. Co's.	Total capital Dec. 31.	Per centage of dividends.	Amount of dividends.
1860	96	$20,482 860	12,054	$2,468,070 05
1861	95	80,282,860	10,461	2,121,788 76
1862	96	20,482,860	10,003	2,043,898 01
1863	101	23.682,860	8,567	2,024.742 51
1864	107	28,807,070	8,621	2,483,370 94

The dividends paid in 1864 only about equal the dividends of 1860, although

the amount of capital has increased over eight million dollars. The general impression prevailing that fire insurance stocks ordinarily pay excessive dividends, is thus shown by the above table to be a popular delusion. Whenever heavy dividends are paid, the foundations for such payment must be laid on many years of experience and accumulation, guided by superior qualifications and acquirements in the officers, managers, and agents.

TAXABLE PROPERTY IN BUFFALO.

The *Buffalo Courier* gives the following as the valuation of taxable property and the rate per cent of the general city tax for the years 1864 and 1865. It will be seen that the valuation of the present year has been increased some $270,000 over last year, notwithstanding the valuation of personal property as assessed is $10,000 less. Something over $700,000 has been withdrawn from taxation by the banks alone, and it is the opinion of those best qualified to judge that not less than $2,000,000 has been invested by citizens and corporations in United States securities, and thus placed beyond the reach of State or local taxation :—

VALUATION OF TAXABLE PROPERTY IN THE CITY OF BUFFALO FOR 1865.

Ward.	Real.	Personal.	Aggregate.
1st	$3,368,475	225,520	3,593,995
2d	2,875,330	781,805	6,657,135
3d	1,224,740	82,500	1,307,240
4th	1,931,705	229,950	2,161,655
5th	1,391,995	79,100	1,471,095
6th	800,000	17,500	818,460
7th	1,298,860	118,970	1,417,810
8th	2,413,800	985,935	3,399,735
9th	3,524,265	2,348,585	5,872,850
10th	2,836,215	1,096,590	3,932,805
11th	1,832,340	452,575	2,284,915
12th	1,095,685	78,000	1,173,685
13th	897,980	20,500	918,480
Total	$25,491,900	6,517,510	32,009,410
Tax old territory	$518,995 16	Per cent.	1.964—1,000
Tax new territory	67,135 81	Per cent.	1.149—1,000
Lamp district added to general fund tax	1,175 00	Per cent.	0.094—1,000
Total	$582,305 97		
Per centage on gas valuations			.114—1,000
Per centage on water valuations			.074—1,000

VALUATION OF TAXABLE PROPERTY IN 1864.

Real.	Personal.		Aggregate.
$25,210,915	$6,523,045		$31,733,860
Tax old territory	347,047 68	Per cent.	1.380—1,000
Tax new territory	33,051 71	Per cent.	.583—1,000
Lamp district, added to general fund tax	1,148 31	Per cent.	.097—1,000
Total	$381,247 70		
Per centage on gas valuations			.097—1,000
Per centage on water valuations			.073—1,000

POSTAL INTELLIGENCE.

THE POSTAL MONEY-ORDER SYSTEM.

OFFICIAL LIST.

The postal money-order system, which went into operation on the 1st day of November, 1864, when one hundred and forty-one post offices in the loyal States were made money-order offices, has been extended so as to include four hundred and twenty offices, in nearly all the States.

The working of the system has so far given universal satisfaction. In the business of the New York offices with other offices, no losses, either to the senders or receivers, of orders have occurred. In a few cases of error or carelessness in the drawing or the use of orders, it was necessary to cancel or duplicate the drafts; but the familiarity of the public with the system renders such cases very rare.

It will be remembered that orders may be drawn for any sum from one to thirty dollars, on payment of ten to twenty cents; and larger sums are transmitted by using additional orders.

The business with the new offices began on Monday, the 3d of July. The following is the official list of all the designated post offices at which orders may be drawn or paid.

LIST OF MONEY-ORDER POST OFFICES, JULY 1, 1865.

CONNECTICUT.

Bridgeport,	Hartford,	Norwich,	Norwalk,	West Meriden,
Danbury,	Litchfield,	New Britain,	Putnam,	Waterbury,
Derby,	Middletown,	New Milford,	Rockville,	Willimantic,
Guilford,	New London,	New Haven,	Thompsonville,	West Killingly.

DELAWARE.

Delaware City,	Dover,	Wilmington.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

Washington.

FLORIDA.

Key West.

ILLINOIS.

Alton,	Champaign,	Galesburg,	Olney,	Rockford,
Aurora,	Chicago,	Geneseo,	Ottawa,	Rock Island,
Belleville,	Danville,	Jacksonville,	Paris,	Shawneetown,
Bloomington,	Decatur,	Joliet,	Peoria,	Shelbyville,
Cairo,	Dixon,	KankakeeDepot,	Pontiac,	Springfield,
Canton,	Elgin,	Lacon,	Princeton,	Sycamor,
Carlinville,	Freeport,	Macomb,	Quincy,	Waukegan.
Centralia,	Galena,	Mount Vernon,		

INDIANA.

Attica,	Greenburg,	Lafayette,	New Albany,	South Bend,
Bloomington,	Goshen,	La Porte,	Plymouth,	Terre Haute,
Columbus,	Huntington,	Lawrenceburg,	Princeton,	Valparaiso,
Crawfordsville,	Indianapolis,	Logansport,	Rensselaer,	Vincennes,

Evansville,	Jeffersonville,	[Madison,	Richmond,	Wabash,
Fort Wayne,	Kokomo,	Muncie,	Salem,	Warsaw,
Green Castle,				

IOWA.

Burlington,	Des Moines,	Lyons,	Newton,	Sioux City,
Cedar Rapids,	Dubuque,	Marshaltown,	Oskaloosa,	Washington,
Council Bluffs,	Iowa City,	Mt. Pleasant,	Ottumwa,	Waterloo.
Davenport,	Keokuk,	Muscatine,		

KANSAS.

Atchison,	Ft.Leavenworth,	Lawrence,	Topeka.	

KENTUCKY.

Bowling Green.	Louisville,	Lexington,	Maysville,	Paducah.

LOUISIANA.

New Orleans.

MAINE.

Augusta,	Belfast,	Eastport,	Portland,	Skowhegan,
Bangor,	Biddeford,	Ellsworth,	Rockland,	Waterville.
Bath,	Brunswick,	Lewiston,		

MARYLAND.

Annapolis,	Cumberland,	Ellicott's Mills,	Hagerstown,	Salisbury.
Baltimore,	Easton,	Frederick,	Havre de Grace,	

MASSACHUSETTS.

Amherst,	Fitchburg,	Lowell,	Newburyport,	Springfield,
Bridgewater,	Gloucester,	Lynn,	Northampton,	Taunton,
Boston,	Greenfield,	Milford,	Pittsfield,	Westfield,
Chicopee,	Lawrence,	Natick,	Plymouth,	Worcester.
Fall River,	Lee,	New Bedford,	Salem,	

MICHIGAN.

Adrian,	Cold Water,	Grand Rapids,	Lansing,	Niles,
Allegan,	Detroit,	Hillsdale,	Marshall,	Pontiac,
Ann Arbor,	East Saginaw,	Jackson,	Monroe,	Port Huron.
Big Rapids,	Flint,	Kalamazoo,		

MINNESOTA.

Faribault,	Mankato,	Rochester,	St. Paul,	Winona.
Hastings,	Red Wing,	St. Cloud,		

MISSISSIPPI.

Vicksburg.

MISSOURI.

Jefferson Bar'ks,	Kansas City,	Richmond,	St. Charles,	St. Louis
Jefferson City,	Pilot Knob,	Rolla,	St. Joseph,	

NEBRASKA TERRITORY.

Nebraska City,	Omaha City.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

Claremont,	Exeter,	Hanover,	Lancaster,	Nashua,
Concord,	Great Falls,	Keene,	Manchester,	Portsmouth.
Dover,				

NEW JERSEY.

Bridgeton,	Jersey City,	New Brunswick,	Paterson,	Princeton,
Burlington,	Morristown,	Newton,	Plainfield,	Trenton.
Freehold,	Newark,			

NEW YORK.

Albany,	Cortland Village,	Kingston,	Oswego,	Seneca Falls,
Albion,	Delhi,	Little Falls,	Owego,	Syracuse,
Auburn,	Dunkirk,	Lockport,	Penn Yan,	Troy,
Batavia,	Elizabethtown,	Lyons,	Plattsburg,	Utica,
Bath,	Elmira,	Malone,	Port Jervis,	Warsaw,
Binghamton,	Fort Hamilton,	Newburgh,	Poughkeepsie,	Watertown,
Brooklyn,	Geneseo,	New York,	River Head,	Wellsville,
Buffalo,	Hudson,	Norwich,	Rochester,	West Point,
Canandaigua,	Ithaca,	Ogdensburg,	Saratoga Springs,	Whitehall,
Cooperstown,	Jamestown,	Olean,	Schenectady,	Yonkers.

NORTH CAROLINA.

Newbern.

OHIO.

Akron,	Defiance,	Lancaster,	Newark,	Sandusky,
Athens,	Delaware,	Lima,	N. Philadelphia,	Steubenville,
Bellefontaine,	Finley,	McConnellsville,	Norwalk,	Tiffin,
Bucyrus,	Fremont,	Mansfield,	Oberlin,	Toledo,
Cambridge,	Gallipolis,	Marietta,	Painesville,	Urbana,
Chillicothe,	Hamilton,	Marion,	Piqua,	Van Wert,
Cincinnati,	Hillsborough,	Massillon,	Portsmouth,	Warren,
Circleville,	Ironton,	Medina,	Ravenna,	Wooster,
Cleveland,	Jackson,	Miamisville,	Ripley,	Xenia,
Columbus,	Jefferson,	Mt. Vernon,	Salem,	Zanesville.
Dayton,	Kenton,			

PENNSYLVANIA.

Allentown,	Easton,	Lancaster,	Norristown,	Towanda,
Altoona,	Erie,	Lebanon,	Philadelphia,	Warren,
Bedford,	Franklin,	Lewisburg,	Pittsburg,	Washington,
Bellefonte,	Greensburg,	Lewistown,	Pottsville,	Wellsborough,
Carlisle,	Harrisburg,	Lock Haven,	Reading,	West Chester,
Chambersburgh,	Honesdale,	Meadville,	Scranton,	Williamsport,
Chester,	Johnstown,	Newcastle,	Susque'na Depot,	York.
Danville,	Kittanning,			

RHODE ISLAND.

Bristol,	Portsm'th Grove,	Providence,	Westerly,	Woonsocket Falls
Newport,				

SOUTH CAROLINA.

Port Royal.

TENNESSEE.

Chattanooga,	Memphis,	Nashville.

VERMONT.

Bennington,	Burlington,	Rutland,	St. Johnsbury,	Windsor,
Brandon,	Middlebury,	St. Albans,	Springfield,	Woodstock.
Brattleborough,	Montpelier,			

VIRGINIA.

Alexandria,	Old Point Comf't,	Norfolk,

WEST VIRGINIA.

Clarksburg,	Harper's Ferry,	Martinsburg,	Parkersburg,	Wheeling.

WISCONSIN.

Beloit,	Fond du Lac,	Madison,	Portage City,	Sheboygan,
Black Riv Falls.	Green Bay,	Manitowoc,	Prairie du Chien,	Sparta,
Darlington,	Hudson,	Milwaukee,	Prescott,	Stevens Point,
Eau Claire,	La Crosse,	Oshkosh,	Racine,	Waukesha.

AGRICULTURAL STATISTICS—CENSUS OF 1860.

The returns of the agricultural statistics of the United States in 1860 are just published by the Census Bureau, and from the published volume we have compiled the following:

Below is a statement of the acres of land in farms, and their cash value June 30, 1860:

ACRES OF LAND IN FARMS, AND CASH VALUE.

States.	Improved.	Unimproved.	Cash Value.
Alabama	6,385,724	12,718,821	$176,824,622
Arkansas	1,983,313	7,590,393	91,649,773
California	2,468,034	6,262,000	48,726,804
Connecticut	1,830,807	673,457	90,830,005
Delaware	637,065	367,230	31,426,357
Florida	654,213	2,206,015	16,435,727
Georgia	8,062,758	18,587,732	157,072,803
Illinois	13,096,374	7,815,615	408,944,033
Indiana	8,242,183	8,146,109	356,712,175
Iowa	3,792,792	6,277,115	119,599,547
Kansas	405,468	1,372,932	12,258,239
Kentucky	7,644,208	11,519,053	291,496,955
Louisiana	2,707,108	6,591,468	204,789,662
Maine	2,704,183	3,023,538	78,688,525
Maryland	3,002,267	1,833 304	145,973,677
Massachusetts	2,155,512	1,183,212	123,255,948
Michigan	3,476,296	3,554,533	160,836,495
Minnesota	556,250	2,155,716	27,505,922
Mississippi	5,065,755	10,773,929	190,760,367
Missouri	6,246,871	13,737,939	230,632,126
New Hampshire	2,367,034	1,377,591	69,689,761
New Jersey	1,944,441	1,039,084	180,250,338
New York	14,358,403	6,616,555	803,343,593
North Carolina	6,517,284	17,245,685	143,301,065
Ohio	12,625,394	7,846,747	678,132,991
Oregon	896,414	1,164,125	15,200,593
Pennsylvania	10,463,296	6,548,844	662,050,707
Rhode Island	335,128	186,096	19,550,553
South Carolina	4,572,060	11,623,859	139,652,508
Tennessee	6,795,337	13,873,828	271,358,985
Texas	2,650,781	22,693,247	88,101,820
Vermont	2,823,157	1,451,257	94,289,045
Virginia	11,437,821	19,679,215	371,761,661
Wisconsin	3,746,167	4,147,420	131,117,164
Total States	162,649,848	241,943,671	$6,631,620,046
Territories.			
District of Columbia	17,474	16,789	2,989,267
Dakota	2,115	24,333	96,445
Nebraska	118,789	512,425	3,878,826
Nevada	14,182	41,986	302,340
New Mexico	149,274	1,265,685	2,707,386
Utah	77,219	12,692	1 333.355
Washington	81,869	284,287	2,217,842
Total Territories	460,872	2,158,147	$13,524,961
Aggregate	163,110,720	244,101,818	$6,645,045,008

By the foregoing table it will be perceived that in 1860 the agricultural area

of the country embraced 163,110,720 acres of improved land, and 244,101,818 acres of land unimproved. In other words, for every two acres of improved land there are three acres of land connected therewith not yet under cultivation, while the gross aggregate of uncultivated territory, fertile and waste, swells to 1,466,969,362 acres.

The following is a statement of the bushels of Wheat produced:

BUSHELS OF WHEAT PRODUCED IN 1860.

States.	Bushels.	States.	Bushels.
Alabama	1,218,444	Oregon	826,770
Arkansas	957,601	Pennsylvania	13,042,165
California	5,928,470	Rhode Island	1,151
Connecticut	51,401	South Carolina	1,285,631
Delaware	912,941	Tennessee	5,459,268
Florida	2,808	Texas	1,476,345
Georgia	2,544,915	Vermont	4870,27
Illinois	23,837,023	Virginia	13,130,977
Indiana	16,848,267	Wisconsin	15,657,458
Iowa	8,449,403	Total States	172,034,201
Kansas	194,173	*Territories.*	
Kentucky	7,394,809	District Col	12,760
Louisiana	22,208	Dakota	945
Maine	233,876	Nebraska	147,867
Maryland	6,103,480	Nevada	3,631
Massachusetts	119,783	New Mexico	434,309
Michigan	8,336,368	Utah	864,892
Minnesota	2,186,993	Washington	86,219
Mississippi	587,925	Total Territories	1,070,623
Missouri	4,227,586	Total States	172,034,301
New Hampshire	238,965	Aggregate	173,104,924
New Jersey	1,763,218		
New York	8,681,105		
North Carolina	4,743,706		
Ohio	15,119,047		

PRODUCTION OF WHEAT IN PROPORTION TO POPULATION.

In 1850 the United States and Territories, with a population of 23,191,876, exclusive of Indian tribes, produced 100,485,944 bushels of wheat, or 4.33 bushels to each inhabitant.

In 1860, with a population, exclusive of Indian tribes, of 31,443,322, there were 173,104,924 bushels of wheat produced, or 5.50 bushels to each inhabitant, showing an increase of one bushel and one-sixth to each inhabitant, or an increase in proportion to population of over twenty-five per cent.

In the New England States the production of wheat in 1850 was thirteen quarts to each inhabitant, and in 1860 only eleven quarts.

In the Middle States in 1850, five and one-third bushels to each inhabitant; in 1860, three and three-fourths bushels.

In the Western States, in 1850, seven and a quarter bushels; in 1860, nine and three-fourths bushels to each inhabitant.

In the Southern States, in 1850, two and a half bushels; in 1860, three and a half bushels to each inhabitant.

In the entire slaveholding States, in 1850, three bushels; in 1860, four bushels to each inhabitant.

In the free States and Territories, in 1850, five bushels; in 1860, six and a quarter bushels to each inhabitant.

Taking the country as a whole, therefore, there has been a gratifying increase in the production of wheat as compared with population; an increase of one bushel to each inhabitant, or about twenty-five per cent.

INDIAN CORN—AMOUNT PRODUCED IN 1860.

States.	Bushels.	States.	Bushels.
Alabama	33,226,282	Ohio	73,543,190
Arkansas	17,828,588	Oregon	76,122
California	510,708	Pennsylvania	28,196,821
Connecticut	2,059,835	Rhode Island	461,497
Delaware	3,892,337	South Carolina	15,065,606
Florida	2,834,391	Tennessee	52,089,926
Georgia	30,776,293	Texas	16,500,702
Illinois	115,174,777	Vermont	1,525,411
Indiana	71,588,919	Virginia	88,319,999
Iowa	42,410,686	Wisconsin	7,517,300
Kansas	6,150,727		
Kentucky	64,043,633	Total States	836,404,593
Louisiana	16,853,745		
Maine	1,546,071	Territories.	Bushels.
Maryland	13,444,922	Dist. of Columbia	80,840
Massachusetts	2,157,063	Dakota	20,269
Michigan	12,444,676	Nebraska	1,482,080
Minnesota	2,941,952	Nevada	460
Mississippi	29,057,682	New Mexico	709,304
Missouri	72,802,157	Utah	90,482
New Hampshire	1,414,628	Washington	4,712
New Jersey	9,723,336		
New York	20,061,049	Total Territories	2,388,147
Nor h Carolina	30,078,564	Aggregate	838,792,740

The production of Indian corn in the United States and Territories, according to the census of 1860, was 838,792,740 bushels. It is difficult to fully realize the magnitude of these figures, which we can only appreciate by contemplating them in connection with the aggregate production of our other great staples. With this object we here introduce a table showing the production of wheat, rye, oats, barley, buckwheat, peas and beans, in 1850 and 1860, as compared with the production of Indian corn:

WHEAT, RYE, OATS, BARLEY, BUCKWHEAT, PEAS AND BEANS RAISED IN THE UNITED STATES AND TERRITORIES IN 1850 AND 1860, AS COMPARED WITH INDIAN CORN.

	1850. Bushels.	1860. Bushels.
Wheat	100,485,944	173,104,924
Rye	14,188,813	21,101,380
Oats	146,584,179	172,643,185
Barley	5,167,015	15,825,898
Buckwheat	8,956,912	17,571,918
Peas and Beans	9,219,901	15,061,995
Total	284,602,764	415,309,200
Indian Corn	592,071,104	838,792,740

It will be seen from the above table that we raise nearly five bushels of Indian corn to one of wheat, and more than double the aggregate production of wheat, rye, oats, barley, buckwheat, peas, and beans. Such was also the case in 1850.

It will be seen, however, that less wheat was raised in 1850 in proportion to Indian corn than in 1860. In other words, vastly as the production of Indian corn has increased in ten years, the production of wheat has increased in still greater proportion.

We produce more bushels of oats than of wheat, but in proportion to Indian corn the increase is not as great in 1860, as compared with 1850, as in the case of wheat.

The production of no other grain has increased so much in the last ten years as barley. It will be seen that we produce three times as much in 1860 as in 1850, while the production of Indian corn has not quite doubled.

Buckwheat, peas, and beans have also greatly increased, but only a fraction more than Indian corn.

The principal corn-growing States are Illinois, Missouri, Ohio, Indiana, Kentucky, Tennessee, Iowa, Virginia, Alabama, Georgia, North Carolina, Mississippi, Pennsylvania and New York.

The following table shows the production of Indian corn in these States in 1860, 1850, and 1840:

PRODUCTION OF INDIAN CORN IN THE PRINCIPAL CORN-GROWING STATES IN 1840, 1850, AND 1860.

States.	1840.	1850.	1860.
Illinois	22,634,211	57,646,984	115,174,777
Missouri	17,52,524	36,214,537	72,892,157
Ohio	38,668,144	59,078,695	73,543,190
Indiana	28,155,337	52,964,363	71,583,919
Kentucky	39,847,120	58,672,591	64,043,433
Tennessee	44,986,188	52,276,223	52,059,925
Iowa	1,406,241	8,656,799	42,410,686
Virginia	34,577,591	35,254,319	38,319,999
Alabama	20,947,004	28,754,048	33,226,283
Georgia	20,905,122	30,080,099	30,776,293
North Carolina	23,893,768	27,941,051	30,078,564
Mississippi	13,161,237	22,446,552	29,057,682
Pennsylvania	14,240,022	19,835,214	28,196,821
New York	10,972,286	17,858,400	20,061,049

Tennessee was the greatest corn-producing State in 1840, Ohio in 1850, and Illinois in 1860.

Kentucky was the second greatest corn-producing State in 1840, and also in 1850, while she yielded the honor to Ohio in 1860.

Virginia stood third as a corn producing State in 1840, Illinois in 1850, and Missouri in 1860.

Ohio stood fourth in 1840, Indiana in 1850, and again in 1860.

Indiana stood fifth in 1840, Tennessee in 1850, and Kentucky in 1860.

North Carolina stood sixth in 1840, Virginia in 1850, and Tennessee in 1860.

Illinois produces nearly one-seventh of all the corn raised in the United States and Territories.

The six States of Illinois, Missouri, Ohio, Indiana, Kentucky, and Tennessee, produced, in 1860, 449,332,502 bushels of Indian corn, or more than half the entire production of the United States and Territories.

It will be observed from the above table that Iowa has increased her production of Indian corn during the last twenty and ten years, more than any other of

the great corn-growing states. In twenty years she has increased from less than one and a half million bushels to more than forty-one million bushels. This young State produces nearly half as much corn as all New England and the Middle States.

MANURES FOR THE CORNFIELD.

A large space in the report is devoted to this subject. It is asserted that at the present price for Indian corn, artificial manures—superphosphate of lime, sulphate of ammonia, Peruvian guano, "cancerine," &c—can be used with considerable profit; but the main dependence of the farmer must still be the barnyard manure. The light concentrated fertilizers should be used as auxiliaries to the barnyard manure. In this way they will prove of great advantage. Anything which increases the crop of Indian corn increases the means of making more manure, and that of a better quality.

OATS.

More oats than wheat is raised in the United States by over one million bushels. In 1860 there were 172,643,185 bushels of oats raised, against 146,584,179 bushels in 1850. New York is the greatest oat growing State in the Union, producing 35,175,134 bushels. Pennsylvania is next. The four States of New York, Pennsylvania, Ohio and Illinois produce more oats than all the other States and Territories. California, which was unreported in 1850, produced over a million of bushels in 1860. Oregon has also increased to an almost equal extent.

BARLEY.

In round numbers the barley crop in 1850 was 5,500,000 bushels, and in 1860 15,000,000, or an increase of 200 per cent. This is due principally to the increased demand for barley for malting purposes. It is a noticeable fact that the young State of California produced more barley in 1860 than any other State in the Union, the amount being 4,415,426 bushels. New York was next, producing 4,186,068 bushels. California and New York produce more barley than all the other States and Territories included.

BUCKWHEAT.

Total production in 1850, 8,956,912 bushels; in 1860, 17,571,818 bushels—nearly double that of 1850; showing a larger increase than any other grain crop. Pennsylvania raised the largest amount, 5,572,024 bushels; New York next, 5,126,307 bushels.

PEAS AND BEANS.

Total production in 1850, 9,219,901 bushels; 1860, 15,001,995 bushels—an increase of over fifty per cent. Of the whole amount the Southern States raised in 1860 over 11,500,000. The increase in the production of peas and beans more than keeps up with the increase in population in all the States and Territories. It was eleven quarts to each inhabitant in 1850, and a little over fifteen quarts in 1860.

IRISH POTATOES.

Total amount raised in 1850, 65,797,896; in 1860, 111,148,367—being about two and three quarters bushels to each inhabitant in 1850, and three and a half bushels in 1860. New York raised the largest amount, being 26,447,394 bushels, or over 5,000,00 bushels more than all the New England States combined.

SWEET POTATOES.

Whole amount raised in 1850, 38,268,148 bushels; in 1860, 42,095,026 bushels. The great bulk of the crop is raised in the Southern States, although New Jersey raised 1,034,832 bushels, being nearly equal to the amount raised in Kentucky and Florida severally. New York only raised a little over 7,000 bushels.

DAIRY PRODUCTS.

Total production of butter in the United States and Territories in 1850, 313,345,306 pounds; 1860, 459,681,372 pounds—an increase of about fifty per cent. Of cheese there was nearly two million of pounds more produced in 1850 than in 1860, the total amount being in 1850, 105,535,893 pounds; in 1860, 103,663,927 pounds. New York makes nearly one fourth of all the butter made in the United States, and more than one-third the cheese, the amount being 103,097,280 pounds butter, and 48,548,289 pounds cheese. Ohio is the principal dairy State of the West. She makes nearly one-third of all the butter produced in the Western States, and over seventy-five per cent of the cheese. Vermont produces more cheese than all the Western States together, exclusive of Ohio. The amount of butter made in the Southern States has increased from forty-four and a half million pounds in 1850 to nearly sixty millions in 1860. The cheese product in the South is exceedingly light, and has fallen off since 1850. In California, in 1850, only seven hundred and five pounds of butter were produced, while in 1860 the product was over three million pounds butter, and over one and a quarter million pounds of cheese.

WOOL.

Total amount raised in the States and Territories in 1850, 52,516,959 pounds; in 1860, 60,364,913 pounds; in 1840, 35,802,114. In 1850 there were over 7,000,000 pounds wool produced in the New England States, and 6,500,000 in 1860, showing a decrease of 500,000 pounds. Vermont raised nearly half the wool produced in the New England States, although the amount raised in 1860, as compared with 1850, shows a falling off of more than 275,000 pounds. New York produces about two-thirds of all the wool grown in the Middle States. In 1850 she produced 10,071,301 pounds; in 1860, 9,454,474 pounds, or over 500,000 pounds less than in 1850. In 1850 the Western States produced 21,552,597 pounds, in 1860, 25,231,810 pounds, an increase of nearly 4,000,000 pounds. Ohio is the greatest wool-growing State in the West, producing over ten and a half million pounds in 1860, or about half a million pounds more than in 1850. The production in the Southern States increased from 8,337,526 pounds in 1850 to 9,867,271 pounds in 1860. In Texas the production increased from 131,917 pounds in 1850 to 1,493,738 pounds in 1860. The increase in the Pacific States is enormous. From 77,329 pounds in 1850 the production of wool in those States increased to 3,489,350 pounds in 1860. California, it is thought, will soon be one of the largest wool producing States in the United States. It is estimated there were 3,000,000 head of sheep in the State in June, 1863. The following table will show the amount of wool produced in the Pacific States in 1860, as compared with 1850:

	1850.	1860.
California	5,520	2,683,109
Oregon	29,686	219,012
New Mexico	32,901	492,645
Washington	.....	19,819
Utah	9,222	74,765
Total	77,329	3,489,350

The Pacific States are the only section in which the production of wool has more than kept pace with the increase of population. Taking all the States and Territories, the amount of wool raised in 1850 was a little over two and a quarter pounds to each inhabitant, and in 1860 less than two pounds.

THE RAILROAD ORDINANCE OF MISSOURI.

THE following is the text of the Railroad Ordinance of Missouri, reported to have been adopted by a majority of 18,167 at the recent constitutional election in that State:

Be it ordained by the people of the State of Missouri, in convention assembled, as follows:

Sec. 1. There shall be levied and collected from the Pacific Railroad, the North Missouri Railroad Company, and the St. Louis and Iron Mountain Railroad Company an annual tax of ten per centum of all their gross receipts for the transportation of freight and passengers (not including amount received from and taxes paid to the United States) from the 1st of October, 1866, to the 1st of October, 1868, and fifteen per centum thereafter, which tax shall be assessed and collected in the county of St. Louis, in the same manner as other State taxes are assessed and collected, and shall be appropriated by the General Assembly to the payment of the principal and interest now due, or hereafter to become due, upon the bonds of the State, and the bonds guaranteed by the State, issued to the aforesaid railroad companies.

Sec 2. A like tax of fifteen per cent shall be assessed and collected from the Hannibal and St. Joseph Railroad Company, and from the Platte County Railroad Company, whenever default is made by said companies, or either of them, in the payment of the interest or principal of the bonds of the State, or the bonds guaranteed by the State, issued to said Companies respectively, which tax shall be assessed and collected in such manner as the General Assembly may by law direct, and shall be applied for the payment of the principal and interest of said bonds as the same may become due and payable.

Sec. 3. The tax in this ordinance specified shall be collected from each company hereinbefore named only for the payment of the principal and interest of the bonds, for the payment of which such company shall be liable, and whenever such bonds and interest shall have been fully paid no further tax shall be collected from such company; but nothing shall be received by the State in discharge of any amounts due upon said bonds except cash or other bonds or obligations of this State.

Sec. 4. Should either of said companies refuse or neglect to pay such tax, as herein required, and the interest or principal of any of said bonds, or any part thereof remains due and unpaid, the General Assembly shall provide by law for the sale of the railroad and other property, and the franchise of the company that shall be thus in default, under the lien reserved to the State, and shall appropriate the proceeds of such sale to the payment of the amount remaining due and unpaid from said company.

Sec. 5. Whenever the State shall become the purchaser of any railroad or other property, or the franchises sold as hereinbefore provided for, the General As-

sembly shall provide by law in what manner the same shall be sold for the payment of the indebtedness of the railroad company in default; but no railroad or other property, or franchises purchased by the State, shall be restored to any such company until it shall have first paid in money, or in Missouri State bonds, or in bonds guaranteed by this State, all interest due from said company; and all interest thereafter accruing shall be paid semi-annually in advance; and no sale or other disposition of any such railroad or other property, or the franchises shall be made without reserving a lien upon all the property and franchises thus sold or disposed of for all sums remaining unpaid, and all payments therefor shall be made in money, or in the bonds or other obligations of this State.

Sec. 6. The General Assembly shall provide by law for the payment of all State indebtedness not hereinbefore provided for, and for this purpose a tax of one quarter of one per centum on all real estate and other property and effects subjected to taxation shall be assessed and collected, and shall be appropriated for the payment of all such indebtedness that may have matured, and the surplus, if any, shall be set apart as a sinking fund for the payment of the obligations of the State that may hereafter become due, and for no other purpose whatsoever.

Sec. 7. At the election to be held on the 6th day of June, 1865, for the purpose of ascertaining the sense of the people in regard to the adoption or rejection of the constitution adopted by this Convention, the question of the adoption or rejection of this ordinance shall be submitted to the voters of this State, who shall be qualified as voters under the provisions of article thirteen of said constitution, and shall take the oath in said article prescribed; and the vote at such election shall be taken and returns thereof made at the same time, under the same restrictions and in the same manner as in said article is provided for the vote upon the question of the adoption or rejection of said constitution. The election herein provided for shall be by ballot. Those ballots in favor of this ordinance shall have written or printed thereon the words, "Shall the railroads pay their bonds? Yes." Those opposed to this ordinance shall have written or printed thereupon the words, "Shall the railroads pay their bonds? No." If the majority of the votes cast at such election shall be in favor of this ordinance, the same shall be valid and have full force and effect as a part of the constitution of this State, whether the new constitution adopted by this Convention be adopted or rejected.

If a majority of such votes shall be against this ordinance, it shall have no validity or force whatsoever.

The Governor of this State shall, by proclamation, make known the result of the election herein provided for.

Adopted, in convention, April 10, 1865.

AMATEUR ENGINEERING.

Says the *Mechanics' Magazine* of London, a somewhat humorous lexicographer once defined man as an animal which carries a stick. The definition is witty but incorrect. Ourang-outangs carry sticks, but they are not therefore men. Another definition was imperatively required, and this time man was defined as an animal who makes bargins. This leaves little to be desired, and yet we propose a third definition. Man is an animal which invents, and in this fact really lies perhaps the great superiority of the genus *homo* over all other created beings. The faculty, too, is possessed by every tribe or nation upon the face of the earth; it is absolutely independent of civilization, being an inborn and inherent attribute, implanted in the human breast by the Deity. The operations of the mind bear little relation to the magnitude of the object on which they are

exerted. The brain thinks, practically without regard to the results following on thought, and, as far as it is concerned, there is nothing either too great or too little for it to work upon. In other words, there was just as much labor involved in determining the means by which the eye could be formed in a needle, as can be expended in arranging part of the plan of a great campaign. Provided a man thinks his hardest, it is a matter of little importance to his powers of ratiocination on what that act of thinking is exerted. The steam generated in a boiler causes the revolution of a wheel, and this revolution may again perchance cause the propulsion of a locomotive engine, or it may enable a steamship to cross the broad Atlantic, or it may give motion to the thousand spindles of a cotton mill. The power originally lies in the fuel, and it is produced by the act of combustion, without any regard to the purpose to which it is subsequently applied. The revolving wheel knows naught of the work it does. The burning coal will burn equally, whether the steam blows to waste through the safety valve, or finds its way to the cylinder; and thus it is with thought, and above all with inventive thought. The magnitude of the results produced bears no relation other than one of haphazard to the amount of mental labor expended on them. Physiologists tell us that there is just as much mental energy, as measured by the waste of the tissues, expended in debating what we shall have for dinner to-day, as in working out any other problem, be it an item in the budget, or a point of detail in the design for a great marine engine, and we are not disposed to differ from these gentlemen. We do not of course wish to imply that, in the operations of daily life, the gentleman who lives at home at ease on his own income, works his brain as hardly as the student reading for honors, or the statesman preparing his speech for the House. All we wish to convey is that, so long as thought is exerted to the fullest, the labor involved in no way depends on the object on which it is exerted for the time being; and thus it happens that the abilities of the engineer or the mechanician are not to be measured by the mere magnitude of the works he produces. The inventor of the chronometer escapement is not a whit behind James Watt, the inventor of separate condensation. The results which have followed on the labors of each differ in their importance because the principle of separate condensation is practically more generally useful, and has contributed more to the common good than the principle of the detached escapement; but it requires no very profound speculation to perceive that this result is wholly independent of the amount of mental labor expended by James Watt and by Harrison, in carrying out their respective ideas, and, therefore, we are correct in stating that equal praise is due to each man as an inventor.

In every civilized nation may be found a numerous body of men, whom we may for the nonce style amateur engineers. These men regard the act of inventing as the great object of their lives, and, in a modified sense, Sir WILLIAM ARMSTRONG's far from elegant simile is applicable to them:—"They can no more help inventing than a hen can help laying eggs." Of course we might draw a great many distinctions, as, for instance, between the individual whose proximate motive is the love of science, and he who invents because he expects to make a fortune. We do not, however, mean to have anything to do just now with these things. We shall speak merely of the community—for so we may term it—as a

whole, as a corporate body, working very hard indeed for its own, and intentionally, at least, for the public good. It matters nothing that some of its members devote themselves to civil, others to mechanical engineering, others, again, to inventions in natural philosophy—we use the words in the widest sense—all alike work, and experience all the miseries of wrath and tribulation because they are not appreciated by an ungrateful world. Unfortunately for the inventor, however, there is a great deal to be said on both sides, and, as many amateur engineers read our pages, we trust that a word in season may prove both most useful and comforting. The true amateur engineer is unsuccessful as a rule, simply because he regards every subject from but one point of view, and that his own, standing on a certain coign of vantage, he regards the world of mechanical science in but one aspect, and this, it is almost needless to say, is the theoretical. Occasionally the theory is perfectly sound; far more frequently it is utterly false and opposed to fact. In either case, the result is the same pretty nearly.

Our inventor is always either before or behind the day in which he lives. Thus the result of his labors is either a design for a machine to effect some object already effected much better by machinery actually in existence, or for an arrangement of mechanism which the resources of modern art are insufficient to carry out. Thus the story is told of a man, a shoemaker, we believe, by trade, who, after four years' thought, succeeded in producing something very similar to an ordinary power loom. He had betrayed the secret of his soul to no mortal until the moment when he had reached what he thought perfection. He then carried his model to a gentleman residing in his neighborhood. Fancy the effect produced on the unfortunate inventor when he was introduced to an establishment where some two hundred power looms were actually at work! Such a circumstance could hardly happen in these latter days of exhibitions, when every man has at least a fair chance held out to him of making himself acquainted with what is being done around him in iron and wood. Yet, even now, events of a similar character occur with startling frequency. A little knowledge is truly but too often a dangerous thing. Practical difficulties of manufacture are seldom suffered to stand in the way of the amateur. Thus we find castings designed from which the cores cannot possibly be extracted; huge girders for bridges proposed which could never be got by any earthly means from the makers' yard to the locality where they are required; wheels and bearings accurately laid down on paper which would wear themselves out by their own friction in a week. One hour spent in looking over specifications at the Patent-office will afford stronger evidence, and a more powerful practical illustration of the existing state of amateur mechanical science in this country and on the continent than whole pages of assertion. We do not mean to state that the men who produce these things are not clever—it may be talented; far from it. We have not the least doubt—in point of fact no doubt can reasonably have existed—that every scheme, be it bad or good, involves the expenditure of a great deal of mental labor; but mental labor alone cannot impart any value to an invention.

The worth of a design can only be properly estimated in pounds, shillings, and pence; and thus it is that comparative trifles, such as a snuff-box or a candlestick, sometimes bring in a fortune, while things of a thousand times the apparent importance are absolutely worthless. The inventor of the child's perambulator

sold his patent for £10,000, and it would be very easy to pick out a thousand similar cases. The amateur engineer is not able to compete with his professional brother as an inventor, because he is lacking, not in talent, but in that special knowledge by which means can be best adapted to the production of a given end, and this knowledge cannot be gained from books. It must be derived from personal observation. There can be no doubt that many men possess even more than the ordinary amount of the knowledge which books can teach concerning mechanism. Yet this knowledge is useless because the possessor does not know how far it is or is not applicable to particular purposes. The result is that, when such men invent, the labor of their brain is practically wasted, and then once more we hear a great deal about an ungrateful world. The word "amateur," after all, is merely a relative term, and many men practising successfully as engineers are amateurs in everything out of their own peculiar line of business. We may give up the general inventor, the man who schemes everything, as a hopeless case. Such an individual must possess transcendent talent, coupled with enormous experience and a thorough knowledge of first principles, in order that he may have a chance of success. If he has these things, of course, all men ultimately bow down and worship him. In their absence he sinks but the more the more he invents, and the greater number of patents he secures. But the case is different with the particular inventor—the man who devotes all his attention to some specific purpose. There is no reason why he should remain an amateur one moment longer than he wishes. An accurate knowledge of the principles on which every mechanical combination, statical or dynamical, should be constructed; a perfect appreciation of the laws of virtual velocities, and of the conservation of force, are easily acquired. Once thoroughly mastered, the inventor is virtually safe from the quicksands in which so many of his class flounder helplessly all their lives.

These things taken to heart and thoroughly well digested, some particular machine or combination of machinery may be selected on which the inventive faculty is to be exerted. Everything, to the minutest detail connected with this machine should, then, be learned as expeditiously as may be—its history from the earliest moment, the principles which govern its action, and above all, the practical details of its manufacture, and price of the labor and material expended upon its production by different makers. Thus trained, the inventor can go on his way rejoicing; and the chances are that he may then produce something which will prove really useful. As far as that particular machine is concerned, he ceases to be an amateur, and really becomes an engineer in the fullest sense of the word. The history of nearly every practically useful machine of modern days proves that it has been the result of just such a mental process of education as that to which we have just alluded. WATT could not have improved the steam-engine until he made himself acquainted with at least the broad principles on which the action of steam depends. The wrought iron tubular bridges over the Menai Straits are purely the result of inductive reasoning. The self-acting mule is the offspring of a mind trained in the art of mechanical combination to the highest possible finish. So long as men wholly or almost wholly ignorant, not only of scientific principles, but of the common-place question of profit and loss, persist in inventing, they must expect disappointment—and they deserve it. Many,

doubtless, who read these pages are not, and never will be, engineers; but most men are inventors of something; and they may rest assured that there is no golden road to success in any pursuit; least of all in engineering. If, then, men will invent at all, let them do so with their eyes open, knowing precisely and accurately *everything* connected with the object of their labors. Be it the steam-engine or a candlestick, the principles of its action first, the details of the methods of its manufacture afterwards. If this task is too great, it is better that the inventor should cease to deserve that name as soon as possible.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

TRADE WITH THE SOUTH FREE.

PROCLAMATIONS BY THE PRESIDENT.

We gave in our last number the Proclamation of the President, under date of April 29th, removing certain restrictions on the trade with the South, and the rules and regulations of the Treasury Department in pursuance of the proclamation. The President has since then issued two further proclamations in the same liberal spirit, annulling all restrictions upon internal, domestic and coastwise intercourse and trade, and also on foreign commerce east of the Mississippi, except contraband of war. Below will be found copies of these important official documents:

PROCLAMATION DATED MAY 22, 1865.

Whereas, by the proclamation of the President, of the 11th day of April last, certain ports of the United States therein specified, which had previously been subject to blockade, were, for objects of public safety, declared, in conformity with previous special legislation of Congress, to be closed against foreign commerce during the national will, to be thereafter expressed and made known by the President;

And whereas, events and circumstances have since occurred which, in my judgment, render it expedient to remove that restriction, except as to the ports of Galveston, La Salle, Brazos de Santiago, Point Isabel and Brownville, in the State of Texas;

Now, therefore, be it known, that I, ANDREW JOHNSON, President of the United States, do hereby declare that the ports aforesaid, not excepted as above, shall be open to foreign commerce from and after the first day of July next; that commercial intercourse with the said ports may from that time be carried on, subject to the laws of the United States, and in pursuance of such regulations as may be prescribed by the Secretary of the Treasury. If, however, any vessel from a foreign port shall enter any of the before named excepted ports in the State of Texas, she will continue to be held liable to the penalties prescribed by the act of Congress, approved on the 13th day of July, 1861, and the persons on board of her to such penalties as may be incurred pursuant to the laws of war for trading or attempting to trade with an enemy.

And I, ANDREW JOHNSON, President of the United States of America, do hereby declare and make known that the United States of America do henceforth disavow to all persons trading or attempting to trade in any of the United States, in violation of the laws thereof, all pretence of belligerent right and privileges; and I give notice, from the date of this proclamation, all such offenders will be held and dealt with as pirates.

It is also ordered that all restrictions upon trade heretofore imposed in the territory of the United States east of the Mississippi river, save those relating to contraband of war, to the preservation of the rights of the United States to property purchased in the territory of an enemy, and to the twenty-five per cent

upon purchases of cotton, are removed. All provisions of the Internal Revenue law will be carried into effect under the proper officer.

In witness whereof I have hereunto set my hand and caused the seal of the United States to be affixed.

Done at the city of Washington this twenty-second day of May, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and sixty-five, and of the independence of the United States of America, the eighty-ninth.

ANDREW JOHNSON.

By the President:

W. HUNTER, Acting Secretary of State.

PROCLAMATION DATED JUNE 13, 1865.

Whereas, by my proclamation of the 29th of April, 1865, all restrictions upon internal, domestic and commercial intercourse, with certain exceptions therein specified and set forth, were removed in such parts of the States of Tennessee, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, and so much of Louisiana as lies east of the Mississippi River, as shall be embraced within the lines of national military occupation; and whereas, by my proclamation of the 22d of May, 1865, for reasons therein given, it was declared that certain ports of the United States, which had been previously closed against foreign commerce, should, with certain specified exceptions, be reopened to such commerce on and after the 1st day of July next, subject to the laws of the United States, and in pursuance of such regulations as might be prescribed by the Secretary of the Treasury; and, whereas, I am satisfactorily informed that dangerous combinations against the laws of the United States no longer exist within the State of Tennessee; that the insurrection heretofore existing within said State has been suppressed; that within the boundaries thereof the authority of the United States is undisputed; and that such officers of the United States as have been duly commissioned are in the undisturbed exercise of their official functions: now, therefore, be it known, that I, ANDREW JOHNSON, President of the United States, do hereby declare that all restrictions upon internal, domestic and coastwise, intercourse and trade, and upon the removal of products of States heretofore declared in insurrection, reserving and excepting only those relating to contraband of war, as hereinafter recited, and also those which relate to the reservation of rights of the United States to property purchased within the territory of an enemy, heretofore imposed in the territory of the United States east of the Mississippi River, are annulled, and I do hereby direct that they be forthwith removed, and that on and after the first day of July next all restrictions upon foreign commerce with said ports, with the exception and reservation aforesaid, be removed, and that the commerce of said States shall be conducted under the supervision of the regularly appointed officers of customs provided by law; and such officers of the customs shall receive any captured and abandoned property that may be turned over to them under the law by the military and naval forces of the United States, and dispose of such property as shall be directed by the Secretary of the Treasury.

The following articles contraband of war are excepted from the effect of this proclamation: Arms, ammunitions, all articles from which ammunition is made, and gray uniforms and cloth.

And I hereby also proclaim and declare that the insurrection, so far as it relates to and within the State of Tennessee and the inhabitants of the said State of Tennessee, as reorganized and constituted under their recently-adopted constitution and reorganization, and occupied by them, is suppressed; and therefore, also, that all disabilities and disqualifications attaching to said State and the inhabitants thereof consequent upon any proclamations issued by virtue of the fifth section of the act entitled "An act further to provide for collection of duties on imports and for other purposes, approved the 13th day of July, 1861, are removed. But nothing herein contained shall be considered or construed as in anywise changing or impairing any of the penalties and forfeitures for treason

heretofore incurred under the laws of the United States, or any of the provisions, restrictions, or disabilities set forth in my proclamation bearing date the 20th day of May, 1865, or as impairing existing regulations for the suspension of the *habeas corpus* and the exercise of military law in cases where it shall be necessary for the general public safety and welfare during the existing insurrection; nor shall this proclamation affect or in any way impair any laws heretofore passed by Congress and duly approved by the President, or any proclamation or orders issued by him during the aforesaid insurrection abolishing slavery, whether of persons or property; but on the contrary, all such laws and proclamations heretofore made or issued are expressly saved and declared to be in full force and virtue.

In testimony whereof I have hereunto set my hand and caused the seal of the United States to be affixed.

Done at the City of Washington, this thirteenth day of June, in
[L .S.] the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and sixty five, and of the independence of the United States the eighty-ninth.

ANDREW JOHNSON.

By the President:

WILLIAM H. SEWARD, Secretary of State.

PROCLAMATION DATED JUNE 24, 1865.

Whereas, it has been the desire of the General Government of the United States to restore unrestricted commercial intercourse between and in the several States as soon as the same could be safely done in view of resistance to the authority of the United States by combinations of armed insurgents; and whereas, that desire has been shown in my proclamations of the 29th of April, 1865, the 13th of June, 1865, and the 23rd of June, 1865; and whereas, it now seems expedient and proper to remove the restrictions upon internal, domestic and coast-wise trade and commercial intercourse between and within the States and Territories west of the Mississippi River; Now, therefore, be it known, that I, ANDREW JOHNSON, President of the United States, do hereby declare that all restrictions upon internal, domestic and coast-wise intercourse and trade, and upon the purchase and removal of products of States and parts of States and Territories heretofore declared in insurrection lying west of the Mississippi River, (excepting only those relating to property heretofore purchased by the agents or captured by and surrendered to the forces of the United States, and to the transportation thereto or therein on private accounts of arms, ammunition, all articles from which ammunition is made, gray uniforms and gray cloth), are annulled, and I do hereby direct that they be forthwith removed, and also that the commerce of such States and parts of States shall be conducted under the supervision of the regularly appointed officers of the customs, who shall receive any captured or abandoned property that may be turned over to them under the law by the military or naval forces of the United States, and dispose of the same in accordance with the instructions on the subject issued by the Secretary of the Treasury.

In testimony whereof, I have hereunto set my hand and caused the seal of the United States to be affixed.

Done at the City of Washington this twenty-fourth day of June, in
[L. S.] the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and sixty-five, and of the independence of the United States the eighty-ninth.

By the President: ANDREW JOHNSON.

W. HUNTER, Acting Secretary of State.

SPECIAL ORDER OF THE INTERNAL REVENUE DEPARTMENT.

CONCERNING THE COLLECTION OF TAXES IN STATES LATELY IN INSURRECTION.

WASHINGTON, June 21, 1865.

The attention of all officers of Internal Revenue is hereby called to the follow-

ing regulations on the above subject, issued by the Secretary of the Treasury.

JOSEPH J. LEWIS, Commissioner.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, June 21, 1865.

Section 46 of the Internal Revenue Act, approved June 30, 1864, provides that whenever the authority of the United States shall have been re-established in any State where the execution of the laws had previously been impossible, the provisions of the act shall be put in force in such State, with such modification of inapplicable regulations in regard to assessment, levy, time and manner of collection, as may be directed by the Department.

Without waiving in any degree the rights of the Government in respect to taxes that have heretofore accrued, or assuming to exonerate the tax-payer from his legal responsibility for such taxes, the Department does not deem it advisable to insist at present upon their payment, so far as they were payable prior to the establishment of a collection district embracing the territory in which the tax payer resides.

But Assessors in the several collection districts recently established in the States lately in insurrection, are directed to require returns, and to make assessments for the several classes of taxes for the appropriate legal period preceding the first regular day on which a tax becomes due after the establishment of the district—that is to say, in the several districts in question the proper tax will be assessed upon the income of the year 1864, inasmuch as the tax for that year is due upon the thirtieth day of June, subsequently to the establishment of the district. All persons found doing any business for which a license is required will be assessed for the proper license from the first day of the month in which the district is established.

Persons engaged in any business for which monthly or quarterly returns are required to be made will be assessed for the month or quarter for which returns should be made at the first return day after the establishment of the district; and the same principle will apply to those taxes which are payable at different periods. A manufacturer of tobacco, for instance, in a district, established after the first and before the twentieth day of May, will be assessed upon his sales for the month of April.

When any manufactured articles are found in the hands of a purchaser, and it is shown to the satisfaction of the Assessor that the goods were actually sold and passed out of the hands of the manufacturer before the commencement of the period for which he is properly taxable, the articles will not be subject to tax in the hands of such purchaser, unless transported beyond the limits of the States lately in insurrection.

The holder of any distilled spirits, manufactured tobacco, or other article which is liable to seizure on account of the absence of inspection marks, may present to the Assessor the evidence that the articles in his hands, or under the circumstances which obtain in the particular case, are not subject to tax, except as above stated; and, if the Assessor is satisfied, he will cause the packages to be so marked that they may be identified and sold without liability to seizure.

Whenever any Collector shall have reason to believe that the holder of any goods on which tax has not been paid intends to remove the same beyond the limits of the States lately in insurrection, and to evade the payment of the tax, he will seize the goods and take the necessary steps for their condemnation, unless the holder shall give bond, as hereinafter prescribed, for the transportation or exportation of the goods, or shall return the same to the Assessor, and pay to the collector the amount of tax that shall be found due. In all cases in which a seizure shall be made under these instructions, the Department, on being informed of such seizure, will consider the case, and extend such measure of relief as the facts shall justify.

In the States of Virginia, Tennessee, and Louisiana, collection districts were some time since established, with such boundaries as to include territory in which it has but recently become possible to enforce the laws of the United States.

In those districts, the rule laid down above will be so modified as to require the assessment and collection of the first taxes which become due after the establishment of assessment divisions in the particular locality.

Whenever assessments are to be made, based upon transactions which may have been carried on in a depreciated currency, it will be proper for the Assessor to ascertain the amount of the income, or value, or sales, or receipts, in lawful money of the United States, according to the best information which he can obtain as to the average value of such depreciated currency for the period covered by the assessment.

The duties upon cotton and spirits of turpentine are, by a special provision of the statute, made payable by the person in whose hands the articles are first found by officers of Internal Revenue. With reference to those articles, therefore, the rule laid down will not apply, but assessments will be made wherever they are found.

Whenever any person holds, as a purchaser, any articles which, under the Internal Revenue laws, may be transported under bond, and desires to transport the same to any Northern port or place, he may apply to the Assessor to have the amount of tax ascertained and determined. The proper examination having been had, the Assessor will certify the amount of duties thereon to the Collector, and the Collector will thereupon grant a permit for their removal, after the execution of a bond for their storage in bonded warehouse, such permit and bond being in the form required by the regulations for the establishment of bonded warehouses. On or before the tenth day of each month, the Assessor will transmit to the Office of Internal Revenue, a statement showing the amount of duties thus certified during the month preceding, and the Collector will, on or before the same date, transmit a descriptive schedule of all bonds thus taken by him in the course of the preceding month.

When goods arrive in any Northern port under such transportation bond, or under a permit issued by a Collector of Customs, under the regulations of May 9th, 1865, they will be received into the proper warehouse, established under the Internal Revenue laws, in the district into which the goods are brought, and the necessary certificates will be issued for the cancellation of the bond, in the same manner as if the goods were transported from another bonded warehouse. Whenever any person who is assessed for a license is found to have paid a license tax to a Special Agent, appointed under the regulations of the Treasury Department for commercial intercourse with insurrectionary districts, the Collector will issue a license for the year ending May 1, 1866, and will collect only so much as may be due for the time intervening after the expiration of the license issued by the Special Agent.

The amount assessed and thus left uncollected will be abated when the proper claim is presented to the Commissioner of Internal Revenue.

H. McCULLOCH,
Secretary of the Treasury.

CONTENTS OF JULY NUMBER.

ART.		PAGE
1.	The Atlantic Telegraph	9
2.	The Mode of Restoration of the Rebel States to the Union. By Chas. P. Kirkland of N. Y.	19
3.	Our Financial Policy	30
4.	Commercial Law.—No. 22. The Law of Shipping	39
5.	Commercial Chronicle and Review	43
6.	Journal of Banking, Currency, and Finance	59
7.	Statistics of Trade and Commerce	66
8.	Journal of Insurance	67
9.	Postal Intelligence—The Postal Money-order System	70
10.	Agricultural Statistics	73
11.	Railroad Ordinance of Missouri	97
12.	Amateur Engineering	100
13.	Commercial Regulations	87

THE

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE

AND

COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

AUGUST, 1865.

THE DETROIT CONVENTION.

The Commercial Convention at Detroit, after a session of four days, finally adjourned on the 14th of July. Its deliberations were confined principally to subjects relating to the commerce of the States directly lying upon the great lakes, reciprocity, and the Niagara ship-canal. Every other topic was passed over with little or no attention, laid on the table, or approved by silent resolution. The subject of finance, for example, which is vital to all commercial matters, was noticed cursorily. A preamble and resolutions, reported by Judge Tremain, were adopted without debate, to the effect the national debt was sacred, and that in any future adjustment of our tariff and revenue laws, the burden of taxation should be made to fall, as far as possible, equitably upon the necessities and luxuries of the people. But there was no attempt to put forth any suggestion which could apply practically to the problem which the statesmen of the country require all the wisdom and sagacity at their hand for successful solution.

The Committee on Agriculture and Manufactures presented a series of resolutions, which were adopted, declaring that for the purpose of securing a permanent recompense to American labor and its products, as well as from financial necessity, "a discrimination in favor of these productions upon which American labor depends for its present prosperity, should be exercised by the Government when imposing duties upon foreign imports, because when human industry and labor languish, its ability to respond to the excise demands must be correspondingly impaired." This committee, it should in justice be remarked, was in favor of free trade.

There was also a brief report made and adopted, recommending the General Government to improve the navigation of our rivers and keep the harbors in good condition.

But in the way of internal improvements, the Convention seems to have "played fast and loose." With remarkable prodigality it recommended that the State of New York should at once proceed to enlarge its canals to ship capacity, and adjust the tolls as much in favor of western produc-

tion as possible. The Transit Committee went further; canals of these dimensions not being ample enough for them. They declared in their report that the annual increase of the productions of the States bordering upon and tributary to the northern lakes had exceeded the capacity of transportation of all avenues to the Atlantic, and that the canals and various lines of railroads to and from those lakes "are wholly inadequate to the demand of the increased and rapidly growing commerce." Hence they hailed the proposed enlargement of the Welland and St. Lawrence canals; and demanded, that in the event of the negotiation of any treaty of reciprocity between the United States and British Provinces, our Government should be careful to secure a guaranty of a sufficient depth of water to enable ocean steamers of not less than one thousand tons, cargo-carrying capacity, to pass from Port Colborne, C. W., to tide-water. These measures are inconsistent, but the Convention had no time to consider that. If the Erie Canal should be enlarged to ship capacity, or if we have a treaty of reciprocity with Canada, on those conditions there will be no necessity for a ship canal between the two lakes. The canals of Canada, beyond our borders, will be as serviceable as those within our boundaries.

The *animus* of the Convention, it should be remarked, was very unfriendly to the State of New York. Her conduct was maligned and misrepresented repeatedly by the speakers; and one of the resolutions, reported by the Committee on Transit, conveyed the significant threat that she would be deprived of a part of her commerce. It is couched in the following language:

Resolved.—That the State of New York, geographically located on the highway of commerce between the great chain of lakes and the seaboard, having within her borders the metropolis of the nation, is bound by every consideration of interest and true policy, and the courtesy she owes her sister States, to improve and enlarge the *shortest* water communication between the lakes and tide-water; *failing to do so she must not complain if a portion of her great inland commerce shall be directed through other and cheaper channels of communication.*

This sentiment of the Convention found utterance in the remarks of Mr. ASPINALL, President of the Board of Trade of the city of Detroit. He asserted that the State of New York levied an exorbitant tax on the products transported on the canals, which, he declared, oftentimes exceeded the freight on the canals and Hudson River to the city of New York, or transportation on the lake one thousand miles, and sometimes equalled the latter and the ocean freight from New York to Europe altogether.

If by this "exorbitant tax" he meant tolls, this allegation is "altogether" unfounded; and therefore but for the other action of the Convention, would deserve to pass unnoticed. So far from levying an exorbitant tax on Western productions, the Canal Board of this State have generally inclined to the policy of low tolls, seeking only to realize the amount necessary to pay the expenses of repairs and superintendence, and contribute for the interest, etc., of the debt incurred for construction of the canals. During the last few years, when the business done was at its maximum, the tolls were actually lower than they had been at former periods. The forwarders, principally Western men, raised their prices for transportation forty per cent, and the Legislature of Indiana transmitted a communica-

tion on the subject to the Legislature of New York, asking its action to correct the evil.

Mr. J. V. L. PRUYN, of Albany, attempted to place the facts before the Convention. The canals of New York, he declared, are amply adequate to carry the trade to the seaboard for years to come. Not more than half the works and agencies on the Erie Canal are employed; and for some time past they have been so employed at positive loss. These works have not been tested to their fullest capacity. By taking the average it will be found that the works of New York are fully ample for all purposes required. The proposition of a ship canal is premature. New York, he added, borrowed capital for the construction of these works, and gave the benefit of it to the West.

Mr. JOY of Detroit, insisted that it was necessary and absolutely important to have a canal around Niagara Falls capable of bearing ships of 1,500 tons burden. The West in ten years will have two hundred million bushels of wheat and six hundred million of corn to transport; and the condition of our national finances is as good, he said, as it will be for forty years. One single break in the canal, such as occurred last spring, would cost this Western world more than enough to build this canal. Hence, he argued, they had a right to recommend to the Federal Government, in some manner, to give them an outlet to the ocean.

Mr. JOY'S statements, if correct, would prove too much for his purpose. If the products of the "Western world" are to be so enormous, that those holding them are liable, in the event of a break in the canal, to losses more than enough to construct the proposed ship canal, it is manifest that their capitalists are sufficiently able to procure money and build such a canal for themselves. The railroads of the country and many of the canals were so constructed; and it is the height of bad policy, as well as in bad taste, to employ the machinery of a commercial convention and other appliances to lobby Congress and State Legislatures, when Western men are so able to do the work for themselves. If the financial condition of our nation is to be no better for forty years than it now is, Congress will have enough to do without entering upon the work of internal improvements, or subsidising private companies.

But there is a fatal weakness in the assumptions of these men of the West. Like their champion from the East, they are prone to talk with vehemence rather than candidly, to make strong assertions, and to drown the utterances of those who differ from themselves. They give large figures when speaking of their products, and insist that all that is required is transportation to the seaboard. Many of them, however, did not stop at this. They disclosed that what was wanted was to be able to carry their productions from the lakes to Europe, without breaking bulk. All this may be very well. It might enable them to dispense with the use of the ports of New York, Portland, and other towns on the sea-board. But it noteworthy that these unmatured statesmen appear not to have taken into their account that canals and other avenues of transportation, important as we must concede them to be, will not suffice for all the demands of commerce. Without a market somewhere, supply is of comparatively little value. This is the principal difficulty the present season, when the freights are about one-third less than they were in 1864.

If the breaking of bulk between the West and Europe is so serious an evil, the Mississippi river affords a route less expensive and perhaps equally advantageous. Steamers can load at St. Louis, and other ports, pass to New Orleans in five days or more, and thence to New York or Europe. This route is equal to the largest commercial demand.

But the aspersions of the State of New York are undeserved. She was foremost to create a water communication with the lakes when the great West was but the hunting ground of the aboriginal tribes. Michigan and Indiana, Illinois and Wisconsin, Iowa and Minnesota, owe their present importance, if not their very existence, to the commercial facilities provided by the public works of this State. Anticipating an increased demand for facilities of transportation, she authorized the enlargement of her canals,—a work which has only just been completed. This enlargement appears to have been in ample season. In 1862, when the traffic was at its maximum, the Erie canal, according to the statement of the Auditor, would have carried 25 per cent. more freight. This year, by means of the completion of the work, the draught of water has been increased one-sixth; and as a result the transportation done in 1865 will not tax it even to one-third of its capacity. There has been a large falling off in transportation. The Mississippi is open and attracts a large commerce to New Orleans. The foreign demand for our cereals has greatly diminished, and forwarders cannot afford to move their stock except they can find a market. The wise men of the West, next time, should take this into their calculations, before vilifying the State of New York and the facilities afforded by her munificence for their commerce. The enlargement is now complete, and the real demands of the West and Northwest will be answered for the next twenty years.

But the extravagant calculations which found air at Detroit will defeat all these projects. A resolution was adopted to enlarge the Illinois canal to ship capacity, and another report made in favor of constructing a ship canal from Lake Champlain to the Hudson. Every important subject was compelled to bring tribute to the one idea of ship canal. But Congress has approached nearer to legislating on the matter than it soon will be likely to come again; and the State of New York, under present indications, will not enter upon a new enterprise of canal enlargement. The temper of the Convention evidently favored the entire diversion of commerce from this State; and hence its proceeedings were divested of what importance they might otherwise have possessed.

The subject of Reciprocal Trade was discussed on its own merits on the last day of the session. The termination of the present treaty was generally approved; and the following resolution adopted:

Resolved, That this Convention do respectfully request the President of the United States to enter into negotiations with the Government of Great Britain, having in view the execution of a treaty between the two countries for reciprocal intercourse between the United States and the several Provinces of British America, including Columbia, the Selkirk Settlement, and Vancouver's Island, based on principles which shall be just and equitable to all parties, and with reference to the present financial condition of the United States, and which also shall include free navigation of the St. Lawrence and other rivers of British North America, with such improvement of the rivers and enlargement of the canals as shall render them adequate for the requirements of the West in communicating with the ocean.

The Detroit Commercial Convention is now a story of the past. It has

tendered an important service to the country. Four hundred of our leading citizens have come together in familiar converse to discuss matters vital to the best interests of twenty-five millions of men. Regarding commerce, very properly, as of the last importance, their errors lay in that direction. If they could have added somewhat of statesmanship to their discussions, there would have been more prospect of practical results; whereas, now, they have been, to a great degree, beating the air. They only considered the European trade; forgetting that the South is to be opened for a commerce more stable and lucrative than the marts of Europe. The neglecting of the question of finance was unfortunate, tending, as it does, to impair confidence in the wisdom and ability of the men controlling the proceedings.

But the impetus given to the subject of reciprocal trade will compensate for all these shortcomings. It was a step taken in the right direction, and, if followed up, will aid in the adoption and perpetuating of a liberal commercial policy. This is most required at the present time, to enable this country to recover from the depression created by the Great Rebellion, and place us again in the front rank of commercial nations.

THE PLAGUE—DANGER TO COMMERCE.

BY A. N. BELL, M. D.

According to reliable information from various sources a frightful "plague" of some sort is now devastating Russia, and making rapid strides into adjacent countries. But whether it is the historic plague of the East indigenous to the mounds of the Nile—long since domiciled in Russia—again on the track of war, or some new Nemesis to rebuke man for his puny strife, we are not yet fully informed.

The Russian government appears to regard it wholly as a domestic affair, with which other people have nothing to do, and about which, therefore, other people need not trouble themselves. Meantime the plague which sleepeth in darkness, is gathering strength, and ere long, like other deeply laid and long fomented evils, is likely not only to burst the bounds of Russian reticence, but to make its true character known, it may be, to far distant nations.

The following description of the malady by Dr. Tillner, physician to the Grand Duchess Maria of Russia, translated from a recent number of the *Nazione* of Florence, furnishes the most intelligent account of, at least, one form of the plague in St. Petersburg, yet made public.

"The disease appears to be neither a fever of an intermittent or continuous type nor yet a simple typhoid fever; but it certainly is very virulent and dangerous. According to the opinions of Russian physicians, it is the same fever that was observed for the first time in Scotland in the year 1819, and denominated in that country intermittent fever, from the length of the intermissions and from the prolonged attacks. This fever is ushered in by cold shivering, alternating with remarkable heat (from 40 to 41 deg. Centigrade, or 160 deg. F.), the pulse beating 130 per minute. Great prostration and disorder are observable in the nervous actions, although the state of the mental faculties remains unaffected. Frequent pains are felt in the head and limbs, great pain is also felt in the left hypochoodrium, and an examination by palpitation and percussion determines the spleen to have immensely increased in size. Owing to the liver being likewise affected by the malady, the skin is yellow.

"The initiatory attack of the fever lasts from seven to eight days, and terminates with a very copious perspiration. After the first paroxysm, an interval occurs of seven or eight days, during which the patient appears almost as well as ever; but at the expiration of that period a second attack manifests itself like the first, but accompanied with still greater prostration. Sometimes a third paroxysm declares itself after a further interval of seven days, one of the symptons being a burning thirst and complete paralysis, and the patient sinks into the most profound state of prostration.

"The rate of mortality is eight per cent, and the victims of this disease die during the second paroxysm, usually from a kind of general paralysis, or through serious derangement of the nervous system, with decomposition of the blood and an enormous increase in the size of the spleen. The liver also becomes greatly enlarged, but the intestines, on the other hand, are either found healthy or else slightly congested.'

A still more recent account by telegraph to the *London Times*, describes *three* forms of "plague" prevailing at the same time in St. Petersburg.

In October last, spinal meningitis appeared, by which children were the chief sufferers, the mortality being 20 to 50 per cent. The symptons of this affection are described as being very similar to those of the epedemic of cerebro-spinal meningitis which prevailed at Long Branch N. J., and at several places in the interior of Pennsylvania, last year; and of which there were also quite a number of cases in New York and Brooklyn. This is the "plague" now said to be prevailing in Poland and Prussia, the average mortality being about 50 per cent. In November, typhus fever was added to the spinal meningitis, occuring at first periodically and gradually running into a malignant form of recurrent or relapsing fever. The fever lasts about a week at a time, with a recurring interval of equal length. During these intervals of apparent convalescence, patients are frequently discharged from the hospitals, but soon afterwards die of relapse. Owing to this state of things a special committee has been appointed in St. Petersburg to look after the apparently cured, until a sufficient time has elapsed for them to be considered as having passed by the period of fatal relapse. The second or third attack is usually followed by collapse, with decomposition of the blood and general paralysis, which ends fatally. The mortality which was at first 20 per cent has risen to 40. In many cases, malignant pustule, also, has been observed, and all such cases are fatal.

Genuine "Siberian plague" is also said to have been observed. A strong disposition to vomit, which cannot be satisfied, swelling of the abdomen, pestilential carbuncles, and a dark color of the skin are its unmistakable and fatal symptoms, of which over 70 per cent. die in a few hours from the time of attack.

Simultaneously with these accounts of "plague" in Russia and adjacent countries, we have reliable reports of cholera in Alexandria. Like its twin-brother, the plague, the cholera again appears to be rising from its slumbers in a region where it never dies. Cholera was officially declared in Alexandria June 11th, on which day there were three fatal cases. By the end of the first week the deaths increased to 100 per day, by the end of the second week to 200, and on the 27th of June to 350, causing great alarm, and the hasty removal of about 30,000 persons from the city. Later intelligence is looked for with much anxiety.

Fevers, fluxes, eruptions, inflamations, leprosies, *pestilences* of every

kind, whenever they have become epidemic, have been indiscriminately and not inappropriately called plagues. And from the time of the Father of Medicine to the present, populous places characterized by stagnant pools and gutters, filthy streets, close, ill-ventilated houses and impure or insufficient food,—in consequence, it may be, of prices which place wholesome food out of reach of the poor,—these causes associated with sultry, or especially when in conjunction with that mysterious predisposition of constitution following in the wake of war, all combine to warn us of imminent danger. We are pointedly reminded, as it were, of the fulfilment of conditions on our part requisite for a plague. And we are admonished, therefore, to speedily and earnestly enter upon defensive works. Upon no community is this duty more urgent than it is upon the great community of New York and Brooklyn. Recognised in all ages as a commercial commodity, it is nevertheless an accepted truth that a plague can hardly be introduced into a place not fitted for its reception. Upon those who control the local conditions of life and health hereabouts, rests the fearful responsibility of nourishing at the present time the conditions most fitting for the reception of plague, which even now, perchance, is lurking in transitu, in the hold of some filthy ship, awaiting the rich harvest to be gleaned from a soil so fit to receive it as New York. It will be in vain that we have a vigilant quarantine system. Quarantine is powerless to protect any community from internal sources of disease. To the other tempting conditions of plague which have from time to time existed in various degrees of abundance, we now have that one in addition, the "wake of war," which has in all times appeared to be the most potent. True to its history in all ages, the plague is following its natural course into places prepared for its reception in defiance of all efforts from without. And once here, it has nought to do but gloat on the fat of the land. The plague will never despond in *such* a mire!

Brooklyn, August 1, 1865.

AMERICAN MANUFACTURES AND PRODUCTIONS.

The following tabulations are reductions from the returns of the Commissioner of Internal Revenue for the year ending June 30, 1864. They exhibit concisely the rate and amount of taxation on the manufactures and productions of the United States (excepting those States engaged in the rebellion in that year) and the quantities or values of each article taxed. The list is very full, and we feel justified in declaring that we have on no former occasion possessed such extended information on the objects embraced, or had so magnificent a review of the sources of our national wealth and its measure. And yet the information here given applies only to that portion of the Union open to the taxing-power in 1863–64. The result, indeed, is truly astonishing, and exhibits higher figures than any estimate hitherto attributed to the whole Union. With peace restored, and the forces of the nation again in activity—with the accession of the renewed energies of the States that for four years have been wasting themselves instead of lending their aid to the national progress and prosperity—may we not anticipate even more astounding results. In the meanwhile, too,

disloyal men within the loyal States have not scrupled to minimize their taxes by every device known to the expert knave. The manufacturers of tobacco and whiskey, articles on which the highest taxes have been properly laid, and from which the greatest revenue was expected, have been the most perverse among those who have wronged the government of its dues. Millions of money have these derelicts witheld from the national treasury, and left unaccounted for in the nation's ledger quantities and values which would have added largely to the general aggregates. Much of this was to be expected during the experimental period of internal taxation, which the present generation had hitherto been unacquainted with: but with better organization among assessors, and the sure punishment of transgressors, the returns will be more complete, and their statistical value more reliable. Another year or two, indeed, will mend all that is now complained of, and, hereafter, we shall view the commissioner's returns not merely as the measure of our taxation, but as exhibits, as they appear annually, of the progress we make from year to year. Until then we must be content with the present satisfactory, though necessarily incomplete, statement.

The tabulations divide themselves into two parts, the one including articles *taxed by quantity*, and the other articles *taxed by value* as follows:

ARTICLES TAXED BY QUANTITY.

	Rate of Tax.	Amount of Tax.	Quantity Produced.
Barytes, sulphate of.....per 100 lbs.	10c	$20,713 04	207,130 cwts
Caesia, and all imitations of, gr'd. p. 1 lb.	1	4,758 67	475,867 lbs
Cement, made wholly or in part of glue, to be sold in liquid state, per 1 gal.	25	186 30	465 gals
Chocolate, prepared.....per 1 lb.	½	12,611 40	1,261,140 lbs
Cigars, not over $5 per 1,000 per 1,000	150	64,284 04	42,856 mills
do do 10 do.....	200	256,213 00	128,106 "
do do 20 do	250	478,589 65	191,436 "
do over 20 do.....	350	456,338 10	130,382 "
Cloves, and all im. of, ground...p 1 lb.	1	2,325 52	232,552 lbs
Coal..... p 1 ton	3½	572,436 06	16,355,316 tons
Cocoa, prepared.....p lb.	1	4,339 06	433,906 lbs
Coffee, and all substitutes for, ground..	3m	80,198 81	26,732,937 "
Confectionery, when not exceeding 14c. per pound.....	2c	23,854 43	1,192,721 lbs
Confectionery, when over 14c and not over 40c per pound.....	3	427,389 41	14,246,313 "
Cotton, raw { To March 7, 1864..p 1 lb. / After March 7, 1864....	½ / 2	1,268,412 56	126,841,256 "
Deer skins, dressed or smoked.....	2	153 03	7,651 "
Distilled sprts, 1st pf. { To Mar 7,'64 p gl / Aft. " 7,'64...	20 / 60	28,481,797 83	71,709,494 gals
" " " Imported.....	40	176,038 57	440,096 "
Fermented liquors, Ale.....per 31 gal.	60	1,092,089 13	1,820,223 bbls
" Beer.....	60	495,721 29	826,202 "
" Lager.....	60	597,202 64	995,337 "
" Porter	60	38,706 68	64,511 "
Gas, when the product shall not be over 500,000 cub. ft p month p 1,000 c. f.	5	34,718 16	694,363 M.f
Gas, above 500,000, and not exceeding 5,000,000 cub. feet.....	10	123,062 75	1,230,627 "
Gas, above 5,000,000 cub. feet.....	15	556,959 22	3,713,061 "
Gelatine, in solid state.....per lb.	½	357 98	71,596 lbs

Ginger, and all imit. of, ground.....	1	12,584 63	1,258,463	lbs
Glue, in liquid form.....p gal	25	1,355 08	5,420	gals
Glue, in solid form.....p lb	5	24,274 97	485,481	lbs
Gold leaf..... .....per pack	15	9,073 48	60,486	pks
Gunpowder, at 18c per pound....per lb	¼	48,607 26	9,721,452	lbs
Gunpowder above 18c and not exceeding 30c	1	100,073 86	10,007,386	"
Gunpowder, above 30c.....	6	6,620 95	110,349	"
Iron, railroad.....per 1 ton	1 50	175,838 25	117,226	tons
do do re-rolled.....	75	119,225 79	158,968	"
do Band, hoop and sheet, not thinner than No. 18 wire guage	1 50	116,506 20	77,670	"
do Band, hoop and sheet, thinner than No. 18 wire guage.....	2 00	39,486 11	19 736	"
do Plate, not less than ¼ inch thick..	1 50	97,487 04	52,991	"
do do less than ¼ inch thick....	2 00	7,048 01	3,024	"
do all kinds advanced beyond slabs, blooms or loops, and not beyond bars or rods.....	1 50	268,945 50	172,297	"
do cast, used for bridges, build'g, &c.	1 00	33,483 65	33,483	"
do castings not exceeding 10 lbs. in weight, and not otherwise provided for.....	1 50	209,253 70	139,502	"
do cut nails and spikes.....	2 00	184,500 02	92,250	"
do rivets (exceeding ¼ inch in diameter), nuts, wrought railr'd chairs, bolts and horse-shoes.....	2 00	34,778 01	17,389	"
do rivets (exceeding ¼ inch in diameter), nuts, wrought railr'd chairs, bolts and horse-shoes, made from iron on which a duty has been paid.....	50	8,951 48	17,903	"
do bars, rods, bands, hoops, sheets, plates, nails and spikes, made from iron on which a tax of $1.50 per ton has been paid.....	50	10,986 77	21,973	"
do Hollow ware.....	1 50	23,316 90	15,542	"
Lead, white.....per 100 lbs.	25	48,563 88	194,256	"
Leather, band and butt.....per 1 lb.	1	7,334 12	733,412	lbs
do harness.....	7m	101,393 40	14,484,771	"
do harness made from hides imported from east of Cape of Good Hope.....	½c	1,783 88	356,676	"
do offal and damaged.....	¼	93,726 93	18,745,386	"
do rough and sole, from hides imported from east of Cape of Good Hope.....	¼	27,905 92	5,581,184	"
do rough and sole, tanned in whole or in part with oak	1	236,870 70	23,687,070	"
do all other rough and sole tanned with hemlock.....	7m	323,169 97	46,167,139	"
do upper, finished or cur'd, made from leather tanned in the interest of the parties currying such leather, not previously taxed in the rough..	1	207,236 47	20,723,647	"
do oil-dressed.....	2	13,945 44	697,272	"
do patent or enameled..p 1 sq ft.	¼	40,279 25	8,055,850	sq ft
do patent japanned splits, used for dasher leather.....	4m	7,617 30	1,904,325	"
do patent or enameled skirting..	1½c	644 56	42,971	"
do calf skins tanned.....p 1 skin	6	142,796 02	2,879,934	skins

Mineral or medicinal waters, each bottle containing not more than one quart.....per 1 bottle	1	6,975 25	697,525	bots
do containing more than 1 qt ...	2	39 24	1,962	"
Mustard, and all imit's of, grd..p 1 lb.	1	9,760 13	976,013	lbs
Oil, lard.....per 1 gal.	2	108,242 96	5,412,148	gals
do mustard seed.....	2	319 12	15,956	"
do linseed.....	2	99,358 56	4,969,928	"
do all animal and vegetable not otherwise provided for.....	2	9,370 81	468,540	"
do rock.....	10	2,201,573 20	22,015,732	"
do coal, refined or produced by the distillation of coal exclusively.....	8	53,755 60	671,945	"
Pepper, and all imit. of, gro'd..per 1 lb	1	29,078 59	2,907,859	lbs
Pimento, do do do	1	6,938 65	693,865	"
Saleratus and bi-carbonate of soda....	½	32,974 32	6,594,864	"
Salt.....per 100 lbs.	4	298,911 82	7,472,795	"
Screws, wood.....per 1 lb.	1½	62,943 36	4,196,224	"
Snuff.....	20	240,934 24	1,204,671	"
Soap, castile, erasive and palm-oil, not above 3½c per lb....	1m	5,749 88	5,749,880	"
do above 3½c per lb.....	5m	168,173 66	33,634,732	"
do cream, fancy, honey, scented, shaving, transparent and toilet	2c	40,701 65	2,035,082	"
do all other, except soft soap, not above 3½c per lb.....	1m	3,356 67	3,356,670	"
do above 3½c per lb.....	5m	231,019 82	46,203,964	"
Starch, made of potatoes.....	1m	5,369 80	5,369,800	"
do made of corn or wheat.....	1½	30,556 52	20,271,013	"
do made of rice or other materials.	4	335 25	83,812	"
Steel, in ingots, bars, sheets or wire, not less than ½ inch, valued at 7c or less per pound...per 1 ton	4 00	5,380 03	1,345	tons
do valued at 7c and not above 11c..	8 00	35,162 44	4,395	"
do valued at above 11c.....	10 00	51,225 90	5,122	"
Stoves.....per ton of 2,000 lbs.	1 50	100,171 96	66,781	"
Sugar, brown Muscovado, or clarified, produced directly from cane, other than produced by the refiner.....per 1 lb.	2	1,267,616 28	63,380,814	lbs
Tobacco, cavendish, plug, twist, fine cut and manufactured, not otherwise provided for.....	15	5,877,095 11	39,180,634	"
do smoking, prepared with all the stems in.....	5	1,146,329 43	22,926,588	"
do smoking, prepared exclusively of stems.....	5	63,260 20	1,265,204	"
Wine made of grapes.....per 1 gal	5	28,302 80	566,056	gals
Zinc, oxide of.....per 100 lbs	25	28,275 61	113,102	cwts
Total tax.....		$50,236,466 28		

ARTICLES TAXED BY VALUE.

Articles Taxed.	Tax per Centum.	Amount of Tax.	Value of Products.
Binders' Boards	3	$18,092 54	$603,085
Bone, manufactures of, (n. o. p. f.).....	3	15,117 41	503,913
Brass, do do	3	245,459 59	8,181,986
Brass, copper, and yellow sheathing metal rolled in rods or sheets.....	1	76,874 28	7,687,428
Bristles, manufactures of (n. o. p. f.)	3	38,176 26	1,272,542
Calf Skins, American Patent.....	5	3,471 92	69,438

Candles	3	186,228 45	6,207,615
Clocks, time pieces, and clock movements	3	39,165 88	1,305,529
Cloth and all textile, knitted or felted fabrics; of materials other than cotton or wool, before the same have been dyed, printed, bleached or prepared in any other manner	3	20,006 59	666,886
Clothing or articles of dress custom-made to order	1	350,485 90	35,048,590
Confectionery, when valued at more than 40 cents per lb. or when sold otherwise than by the pound	5	14,549 31	290,986
Copper, manufactures of (n. o. p. f.)	3	43,681 40	1,456,047
Cotton, do do	3	1,835,027 75	61,167,592
Cotton, cloth, and all textile, knitted or felted fabrics of, before the same have been dyed, printed, bleached or prepared in any other manner	3	1,713,148 76	57,104,959
Diamonds, emeralds and all other jewelry	3	183,746 62	6,124,887
Flax, manufactures of (n. o. p. f.)	3	73,926 55	2,464,218
Furs of all descriptions, when made up or manufactured	3	113,827 64	3,794,255
Glass, manufactures of (n o. p. f.)	3	303,268 09	10,108,936
Goat Skins, curried, manufactured or finished	4	61,641 59	1,541,039
Gold, manufactures of (n, o. p. f.)	3	35,167 89	1,172,263
Gutta Percha, do do	3	5,435 06	181,169
Hemp, do do	3	214,116 57	7,137,219
Hogskins, tanned and dressed	4	2,095 70	52,392
Horse skins do do	4	3,235 63	80,891
Horn, manufactures of (n. o. p. f.)	3	15,485 55	514,518
Hose, conducting, of all kinds	3	3,9[illegible]5 76	131,192
India Rubber, Manufactures of (n. o. p. f.)	3	223,782 85	7,459,428
Iron, manufactures of (n. o. p. f.)	3	1,891,061 71	63,035,390
Ivory do do	3	25,284 89	841,163
Jute do do	3	14,627 83	487,594
Kid Skins, curried, manufactured or finished	4	3,114 15	77,854
Lead, manufactures of (n. o. p. f.)	3	110,527 13	3,684,238
Leather do do	3	2,492,830 41	83,094,347
Materials (n. o, p. f.) manufactures of	3	6,285,076 32	209,502,548
Marine Engines	3	65,434 20	2,181,140
Morocco Skins, curried, manufactured or finished	4	102,919 86	2,572,996
Paints or Painters' colors	5	25,535 38	510,706
Paper of all descriptions	3	663,447 00	22,114,900
Paper, manufactures of (n. o, p. f.)	3	248,467 72	8,282,257
Parasols and Umbrellas	3	68,769 94	2,292,331
Paste-board	3	5,226 31	174,210
Pickles	5	18,282 73	364,655
Pens	5	22,009 70	440,194
Pottery, manufactures of (n. o. p. f.)	3	47,424 83	1,580,827
Preserved Fruits, in cans and air-tight packages	5	37,837 38	756.747
do Meats do do	5	12,195 51	243,910
do Fish and Shell-fish do do	5	92,725 54	854,511
Sails, tents, shades, awnings and bags, of whatever material made	3	35,945 78	1,198,191
Sheep skins, curried, manufactured, or finished	4	129,981 84	3,249,546
Ships or all other vessels or watercraft	2	167,573 98	8,375.699
Silks, manufactures of (n. o. p. f.)	3	97,652 60	3,255,086
Silver do do	3	36,949 97	1,231,666
Steel do do	3	299,373 02	9,979,101
Tin do do	3	299,368 32	9,978,944
Varnish	5	92,356 40	1,847,128
Willow, manufactures of, (n. o. p. f.)	3	4,116 92	137,231
Wood do do	3	1,679,940 25	55,998,008
Wool do do	3	3,007,885 73	100,262,858

Wool. clothe and all textile, knitted, or felted fabrics of, before dyed, printed, or prepared in any other way	3	580,170 97	19,839,031
Worsted, manufactures of, (n. o. p. f.)	3	67,075 64	2,235,855
Zinc do do	3	7,868 56	262,285
Total taxed by value		$25,400,850 29	$842,769 147
Total taxed by quantity		50,236,466 28	1,678,474,738
Aggregate		$75,637,316 57	$2,521,243,885

In reducing the *quantities* in the total to money value, we have assumed the same rate of taxation as that ascertained in the *ad valorem* series. This is *about* 3 per cent, and is very nearly correct, sufficiently so for all practical purposes. By this means we find approximately the total value of all taxable manufactures and industrial products at the place of production to have been the sum of $2,521,243,385

The total value of manufactures and productions of the loyal States, represented in the census of 1860, according to Dr. Elder, was 1,462,722,947

Showing a nominal increase of $1,058,520,938

but subject to correction for the increased cost of production in 1863-64, consequent on the expanded condition of the currency in that year, etc.

The distribution of the taxation and values of manufactures among the States and Territories was as follows:

	Total taxation.	Value taxed at 3 per cent.	Rank as manuf. States.
Maine	$888,858 47	$29,628,616	14
New Hampshire	833,118 44	27,770,615	15
Vermont	231,680 82	7,722,694	23
Massachusetts	8,277,868 02	275,928,767	5
Rhode Island	1,380,393 76	46,013,125	13
Connecticut	2,273,355 60	75,778,520	9
New England States	$13,885,270 11	$462,842,337	
New York	$16,851,118 01	$561,703,767	1
New Jersey	2,073,529 12	69,117,637	10
Pennsylvania	9,618,462 22	320,615,407	3
Delaware	259,952 41	8,665,080	21
Maryland	1,848,620 94	61,620,698	12
District of Columbia	71,341 33	2,378,044	24
Virginia	18,955 52	631,851	27
Atlantic States, etc	$30,741,974 55	$1,024,732,485	
West Virginia	$248,375 90	$8,279,197	22
Kentucky	3,061,948 06	102,064,769	6
Missouri	2,413,521 93	80,450,731	8
Tennessee	517,073 84	17,235,795	19
Louisiana	1,942,894 04	64,763,134	11
Southern Interior States	$8,183,808 77	$272,793,626	
Ohio	$9,458,937 95	$315,297,932	3
Indiana	2,556,048 95	85,201,632	7
Illinois	8,389,496 02	279,649,867	4
Michigan	762,669 51	25,42 ',317	16
Wisconsin	603,909 78	20,130,326	17
Iowa	369,326 79	12,310,893	20

Minnesota	24,554 87	818,496	25
Kansas	16,039 21	534,640	28
Nebraska	8,949 25	131,642	33
Northern Interior States	$22,184,932 33	$739,497,744	
California	$589,330 24	$19,644,574	18
Oregon	23,969 65	798,988	26
New Mexico	236 20	7,873	34
Utah	6,263 25	208,775	30
Colorado	5,542 64	184,755	31
Nevada	11,516 09	383,869	29
Washington	4,465 74	148,858	32
Pacific States	$641,330 81	$21,377,693	

RECAPITULATION.

	Total taxation.	Value taxed at 3 per cent.	Rank as Manf. Dist's.
Six New England States	$13,885,270 11	$462,842,337	III.
Six Atlantic States and D. C.	30,741,974 55	1,024,732,485	I.
Five Southern Interior States, &c.	8,183,808 77	272,793,626	IV.
Nine Northern Interior States, &c.	22,184,932 33	739,497,744	II.
Seven Pacific States, &c.	641,330 81	21,377,693	V.
Aggregate	$75,637,316 57	$2,521,243,885	

The articles which yielded the largest tax were cigars, coal, confectionery, raw cotton, cotton goods, distilled spirits, fermented liquors, gas, iron, leather, materials not otherwise provided for, oil (petroleum), paper, raw sugar, refined sugar, tobacco, wood-wares, woollen goods, &c. The principal locations of these several manufactures and products, with the amount of tax collected thereon, are given in the following form:

Cigars		$1,255,424 89	
New York	$456,461 47		
Pennsylv'a	292,784 07		
Coal		572,436 54	
Pennsylv'a	$487,192 68		
Ohio	46,864 34		
Illinois	32,385 26		
Maryland	27,554 43		
Confectionery		465,793 15	
New York	$109,303 26		
Illinois	67,754 43		
Ohio	58,602 77		
Pennsylv'a	57,205 87		
Massachu'ts	46,990 36		
Cotton (Raw)		1,268,412 56	
Tennessee	$488,325 80		
Louisiana	436,044 52		
Ohio	94,086 59		
Kentucky	83,050 15		
Pennsylv'a	57,895 38		
Cotton Goods		3,548,176 51	
Massach'ts	$1,128,928 77		
Rhode Isld	593,040 53		
Maine	350,646 71		
New York	315,000 67		
Pennsyl'a	310,554 92		
Con'cticut	306,426 18		
Maryland	127,522 86		
Distilled Spirits		28,431,797 83	
Illinois	$7,262,433 15		
Ohio	6,442,408 03		
New York	5,986,255 30		
Pennsylv'a	2,194,425 94		
Indiana	2,084,402 06		
Kentucky	1,157,864 13		
Fermented Liquors		2,223,719 78	
New York	$780,255 78		
Pennsylv'a	310,287 98		
Ohio	209,685 97		
Illinois	155,590 21		
Missouri	112,428 11		
Massach'ts	97,831 59		
Gas		714,740 18	
New York	$297,330 24		
Pennsylv'a	124,995 53		
Massach'ts	67,274 05		
Ohio	36,105 92		
Louisiana	27,549 64		
Illinois	27,525 33		
Maryland	26,889 64		
California	16,117 14		
D. Columbia	15,809 53		
Missouri	15,702 80		
Iron Manufactures		3,202,855 14	
Pennsylv'a	$944,094 93		
New York	557,603 97		

Massach'ts .	471,459	25			
N. Jersey..	278,475	64			
Conecticut .	242,745	51			
Ohio	199,158	53			
LEATHER			3,717,433	87	
Massac'ts .	$1,615,158	17			
New York	715,835	16			
Pennsylv ..	422,949	14			
MATERIAL (not otherwise provided for), MANUFACTURES OF.....			6,285,076	82	
N. York..	$2,232,165	07			
Massac'ts .	1,131,506	85			
Pennsylv ..	1,028,458	35			
OIL (Petroleum).....			2,201,573	20	
Pennsylv..	$1,334,997	38			
N. York..	241,863	44			
Ohio.....	241,013	46			
Massac'ts.	206,291	51			
PAPER, (and Manufactures of).....			911,914	72	
N. York...	$240,447	71			
Massac'ts ..	226,678	60			
Pennsylv'a .	119,930	25			
Con'cticut..	83,763	35			
Ohio	54,269	59			
SUGAR (Raw).....			1,267,616	28	
Louisiana.	$1,257,195	37			
SUGAR (Refined).....			873,189	85	
New York.	$464 779	68			
Pennsylv'a .	124,587	90			
Massach'ts .	81,339	43			
Maryland ..	56,027	93			
TOBACCO (Manufact'es of)			7,036,684	74	
N. York..	$1,558,086	20			
Kentucky..	1,744,714	81			
Missouri..	1,329,258	51			
Ohio.....	716,567	89			
Pennsylv'a.	360,568	99			
Michigan .	287,007	49			
Illinois....	233,450	91			
Indiana ..	131,857	67			
WOOD-WARES			1,679,940	25	
New York.	$418,132	27			
Ohio	263,445	77			
Pennsylva .	187,905	01			
Massac'tts..	183,740	86			
Illinois	120,577	87			
WOOL (Manufactures of).			647,246	61	
Massac'ts.	$1,191,177	91			
Pennsylv.	495,739	12			
Con'ticut .	473,630	86			
N. York..	390,949	48			
Rhode Isl.	318,950	58			

MARINE INSURANCE.*

NEW YORK JOINT-STOCK AND MUTUAL MARINE INSURANCE COMPANIES.

No new Marine Insurance companies have been organized in this State during the last five years. Twelve only of the large number incorporated in this State since the revolution, are now in existence; the following is a list of these corporations:

Special Charters.

Date of Incorporation.	Name of Company.	Location.	Gross Assets, Dec. 31, '64.
1841, May 22..	Sun Mutual Insurance Company.....	New York	$2,534,140 01
1842, April 11..	Atlantic Mutual Insurance Company....	do	11,810,963 96
do do 12..	Mercantile Mu ual Insurance Company..	do	1,583,572 49
do do 12..	Commercial Mutual Insurance Company.	do	1,035,241 35
do do 12..	New York Mutual Insurance Company..	do	850,780 71
1843, April 18..	Mutual Insurance Company of Buffalo..	Buffalo	402,610 78
1845, May 14..	Union Mutual Insurance Company.....	New York	1,688,078 32
	Organized under the Act of 1849 (*Chap.* 308).		
1854, Feb. 24..	Orient Mutual Insuraece Company.....	New York	681,906 61
1855, Jan. 9..	Pacific Mutual Insurance Company.....	do	1,159,459 53
do Sept. 27..	Great Western Insurance Company.....	do	3,876,985 57
1857, Aug. 14..	Columbian Insurance Company.....	do	5,938,572 76
1859, Dec. 30..	Washington Marine Insurance Company..	do	686,689 91
	Aggregate.....		$32,249,002 50

All of the above Marine companies organized under special charters, possess the privilege of writing Fire risks at their own option; the Ma-

* We take this article from the very able report of William Barnes, Superintendent of the Insurance Department of this State.

tual, of Buffalo, and the Union Mutual, of New York, are however, the only companies now exercising this privilege. The Atlantic, the Mercantile, and the New York, by their original charters, were also invested with the right to transact the business of Life insurance, but this franchise has never been exercised by these corporations, and is now rendered nugatory by the act of 1862 (Chap. 300, § 1), which provides that no corporation engaged in transacting the business of Life insurance in this State shall be allowed to write Fire, Marine, or any other kind of risks.

Fourteen joint stock Fire insurance companies have been empowered by special acts to write Marine risks on certain conditions, or are allowed so to do by their original charters, as per the following list:

Name of Company.	Date of Special Act.
Metropolitan Insurance Company.....	1853, Jan. 31, Chap. 2
Harmony Fire and Marine Insurance Company.	1858, April 17, do 311
Corn Exchange Insurance Company.....	1863, May 5, do 436
Home Insurance Company.....	1864, April 13, do 175
Phenix Fire Insurance Company.....	do do 18, do 227
Security Fire Insurance Company.....	do do 30, do 423
Washington Insurance Company.....	1865, Mar'h 8, do 91
International Fire Insurance Company.....	do do 14, do 114
Republic Fire Insurance Company.....	do do 18, do 151
Manhattan Fire Insurance Company.....	do April 8, do 327
Lorillard Fire Incurance Company.....	do May 10, do 687
Merchants Insurance Company.....	1850, April 20. By original charter
St. Nicholas Insurance Company.....	1852, July 31, do do
Fulton Fire Insurance Company.....	1853, Mar'h 23, do do

The Metropolitan, Harmony, Phenix, Security, and St. Nicholas are the only Fire companies now exercising their Marine privileges.

The establishment of a new company in the department of Marine insurance is surrounded with great embarrassment and difficulty; the requisite knowledge and experience, and the kind of talent required for the successful management of Marine business being more uncommon than in the other branches of insurance. Notwithstanding the extensive and increasing commerce of the United States, and especially of the port of New York, with all parts of the civilized world, only eleven Marine insurance companies are engaged in the transaction of ocean Marine business in this State.

A necessity for additional facilities for Marine indemnity has recently been felt in mercantile circles, coupled, however, with an indisposition to initiate, against powerful competition, the establishment of new corporations, where so much depends on the ability and experience of the managers.

Several of our Fire companies already possessed the privilege of undertaking Inland navigation risks, by the provisions of the general Fire insurance act of 1853, and had been engaged for several years in writing risks on the great lakes or inland seas of the Northwest. These companies had already thus occupied a common field with the Marine companies, and commenced the acquisition of an experience and knowledge of the usages and customs of ocean Marine insurance, which soon resulted in numerous successful applications to the legislature for amendments to their respective charters allowing full Marine privileges. In this manner the business of ocean Marine insurance could be made incidental to an already established Fire and Inland business, and a strong and well organized Fire insurance company could thus make gradual and slow advances upon

the ocean, and increase or decrease its line in that direction as its ability and success might render expedient. In the opinion of the Superintendent many of these companies will, sooner or later, meet with decided and marked success in their new field of underwriting, and will thus furnish the only sufficient justification for the somewhat doubtful experiment of uniting these two classes of risks.

The division, however, had been heretofore inartificial, as Inland navigation insurance, especially upon the great lakes, should be strictly classed in the Marine department (See N. Y. Ins. Report, 1861, p. xiv.); besides, the combination of Fire and Marine insurance in one company had already been so long established in Philadelphia, Boston, Providence, and other American cities, that a complete separation had become almost impossible.

The Superintendent did not last year, under the act of 1864 (Chap. 425), prescribe any new form for the annual statements of Marine insurance companies; the Fire-Marine blank, under which the Fire-Marine insurance companies of other States had heretofore reported, was used for this purpose. Before the next statements are due, a new form, specially designed for Marine companies, will be prepared, after consultation with leading underwriters and commercial men, and the various officers of the different companies. The Marine premiums of last year are reported at the various amounts actually received in *cash* by the different companies, not including notes unless paid in cash during the year.

The Marine companies generally, with the exception of the Columbian, have prepared and filed detailed exhibits of all their assets and liabilities, which will be found in their appropriate places in this Report. The Columbian alleged that it was unable to prepare the required statement, although companies with much larger assets and business have promptly complied with our State laws, and made the exhibits required by the Department. This failure of the Columbian, has led to great embarrassment in the preparation of the different Statistical Tables for the year; the Superintendent has concluded, however, to delay any legal proceedings against the company for this delinquency until the new form for Marine statements has been prepared and definitively settled.

The following Table exhibits a summary analysis of the gross assets of all the Marine companies except the Columbian:

SUMMARY OR CLASSIFICATION OF GROSS ASSETS OF THE MARINE INSURANCE COMPANIES OF THE STATE OF NEW YORK ON THE 31ST DAY OF DECEMBER, 1864.

Name of Co.	Real Estate	Bonds and Mortgages	Cash and Cash Items.	U. S. Stocks and Securities owned	Other Stocks owned
Atlantic.....	$100,000 00	$43,700 00	$1,507,707 08	$3,947,420 00	$1,527,295 00
Columbian* ..	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Commercial...	.....	.....	73,061 19	195,910 00	488,690 00
Great Western	112,196 04	197,307 92	1,857,187 66	.....	394,435 00
Mercantile....	.....	4,000 00	173,679 34	65,600 00	335,645 00
Mutual.....	24,547 03	101,548 16	72,825 77	75,972 00	99 870 00
N. Y. Mutual.	65,456 35	19,000 00	43,300 66	305,350 00	178,618 50
Orient	.....	19,000 00	81,031 94	157,500 00	130,274 00
Pacific	.....	.....	108,978 42	360,874 60	142,410 50
Sun	270,341 04	94,650 00	411,423 15	185,500 00	8 500 00
Union	70,000 00	84,000 00	100,750 71	173,554 00	425,027 50
Washington ..	41,398 54	.....	47,405 92	78,850 00	.....
Aggregate..	$683,939 00	$563,266 08	$4,477,351 84	$5,547,030 60	$3,680,815 50

Name of Co.	Loans on Stocks, etc., as collateral	Premium Notes and Bills Receivable	All other Assets	Total Gross Assets.
Atlantic	$1,087,950 00	$2,876,018 99	$720,812 89	$11,810,963 96
Columbian*	.....	.....	5,938,572 78	5,938,572 78
Commercial	90,025 00	207,281 67	30,273 47	1,035,241 38
Great Western	325.125 00	.....	990,683 95	3,876,985 57
Mercantile	87,390 00	339,405 78	577,852 37	1,583,572 49
Mutual	7,950 00	6,657 19	13,240 63	402,610 78
N. Y. Mutual	32,500 00	164,355 89	41,699 51	850,780 71
Orient	194,500 00	74,465 29	25,135 38	681,906 61
Pacific	43,693 19	382,998 78	120,504 34	1,159,459 83
Sun	220,304 35	782,096 13	561,325 34	2,534,140 01
Union	272,948 19	301,175 34	260,622 58	1,688,078 32
Washington	5,100 00	334,396 01	179,539 44	686,689 91
Aggregate	$2,367,485 73	$5,468,851 07	$9,460,262 68	$32,249,002 30

Statistical Table VI, annexed, gives various items compiled from the statements of the Marine Companies, as follows: (1) Capital; (2) Net Assets, including Capital; (3) Gross Assets; (4) Liabilities, except Capital, Scrip, and re-insurance; (5) Re-insurance, percentage and amount; (6) Gross Income; 7, Gross expenditures; (8) Net cash Premium received; (9) Amount paid for Losses.

The premiums for 1864, consisting only of cash receipts for the calendar year cannot, of course, be compared with the cash-and-note premium income of prior and fiscal years. No data are given by which the amounts paid for the burning and destruction of vessels by rebel pirates can be determined.

The following Marine insurance companies of other States have been authorized to write Marine risks in this State, viz.:

The President and Directors of the Insurance Company of North America, of Philadelphia, Penn., and the—

Narragansett Fire and Marine Insurance Company, of Providence, R. I.

No other Marine companies of sister States are authorized or allowed to do business in this State either for individuals, or as re-insurers for New York companies; and all agents aiding in any manner the transaction of such unauthorized insurance, are liable to prosecution under the statute.

The following Table shows the progress and statistics (in banco marks†) of the Hamburg Marine insurance companies, including private insurances, for a period of twenty-seven years:

RECEIPTS AND DISBURSEMENTS OF THE HAMBURGH MARINE INSURANCE COMPANIES, 1837 TO 1863 INCLUSIVE.

RECEIPTS.

Year.	No. of Co's	No. of transactions.	Charges on the same in banco marks.	Sums insured in banco marks.	Premiums rec'd in banco marks.	Av'ge p. c.
1837	18	3,335	2,126,000	195,667,000	3,048,839	1.56
1838	19	3,535	2,293,500	219,163,600	3,222,625	1.47
1839	19	3,545	2,207,000	246,281,400	3,570,953	1.45
1840	20	3,705	2,303,000	260,696,300	3,776,635	1.45
1841	20	3,705	2,303,000	266,375,200	3,746,648	1.41
1842	21	3,865	4,599,000	233,181,400	3,270,711	1.40

* The Columbian having failed to make a detailed statement, no classified subdivision of its reported gross assets can be made.

† A mark banco is 1s 5½ sterling—$0.3529 Federal currency.

1843	22	4,015	2,849,000	248,977,800	3,444,451	138
1844	23	4,215	2,969,000	270,594,700	3,726,411	138
1845	23	4,215	3,134,000	304,143,400	4,461,454	147
1846	24	4,475	3,485,000	278,040,600	4,174,542	150
1847	23	4,275	3,005,000	333,812,500	4,939,215	1.48
1848	23	4,275	3,005,000	286,793,500	4,778,420	2.01
1849	22	4,095	2,897,000	258,247,200	4,025,956	1.56
1850	22	4,095	2,897,000	278,156,600	4,175,606	1.50
1851	22	4,095	2,897,000	278,916,500	4,171,531	1.50
1852	22	4,095	2,897,000	288,311,500	4,286,628	1.49
1853	23	4,275	3,125,000	357,431,200	5,528,724	1.55
1854	23	5,975	3,825,000	443,457,590	6,958,775	1.57
1855	23	5,975	3,825,000	459,301,660	7,214,065	1.57
1856	25	6,285	4,011,000	564,528,250	8,186,365	1.45
1857	25	7,435	4,893,000	614,027,660	8,526,590	1.39
1858	24	7,235	4,713,000	424,762,160	6,163,670	1.45
1859	20	5,745	3,979,000	459,943,190	6,534,545	1.42
1860	21	5,905	4,075,000	481,863,210	6,538,450	1.36
1861	22	6,055	4,120,000	472,915,660	6,511,950	1.37
1862	20	5,445	3,765,000	464,215,900	6,366,300	1.37
1863	22	5,515	3,759,000	494,821,900	6,543,770	1.32

DISBURSEMENTS.

Year.	Losses p'd.	Expenses and interest.	Total banco m'ka.	Av'ge p. c.	Profit banco m'ka.	Loss banco m'ka.
1837....	2,508,557	289,367	2,797,924	1.43	250,915	.....
1838....	2,561,757	311,242	2,872,999	1.32	349,626	.....
1839....	2,230,608	295,786	2,526,394	1.03	1,044,559	.....
1840....	3,062,503	337,138	3,399,641	1.30	376,994	.....
1841....	3,053,917	330,010	3,383,927	1.27	362,721	.....
1842....	2,704,385	334,871	3,039,256	1.30	231,345	.....
1843....	3,355,419	388,732	3,744,151	1.50	... ..	299,750
1844....	3,515,090	397,242	3,912,332	1.44	.....	185,921
1845....	5,252,431	389,033	5,641,464	1.85	.....	1,180,910
1846....	3,553,899	380,521	3,934,220	1.41	240,323	... .
1847....	3,517,408	403,534	3,920,942	1.17	1,018,303	.....
1848....	4,355,370	443,581	4,798,951	2.03	.....	20,531
1849....	3,210,888	413,700	3,624,588	1.40	401,368	.....
1850....	4,054,017	403,854	4,457,871	1.60	.....	282,265
1851....	3,455,827	401,522	3,857,349	1.38	314,182	.....
1852....	4,593,380	400,139	4,993,519	1.73	.....	705,891
1853....	4,559,308	662,416	5,221,724	1.46	307,000	.....
1854....	5,791,000	867,775	6,658,775	1.50	300,000	.....
1855....	5,341,745	861,820	6,203,565	1.35	1 010,500	.....
1856....	7,286,810	747,055	7,983,865	1.41	202,500	.....
1857....	6,780,525	915,565	7,696 090	1.25	830,500	.....
1858....	6,503,815	989,855	7,493,670	1.76	.....	1,330,000
1859....	5,411,560	869,585	6,281,145	1.37	253,400	.....
1860....	5,750,965	869,985	6,620,950	1.37	.....	82,500
1861....	5,662,045	849,905	6,511.950	1.37	.....	.....
1862....	Not yet ready to be arranged like the preceding.				.....	212,000
1863....	do	do	do	do	.....	.....

EARLY HISTORY OF MARINE INSURANCE.

Water comprises more than three-fourths of the surface of the globe. The ocean, from the earliest ages has been the theme of poetry and eloquence, and it has always tempted the adventurous and daring spirit of man, while its constant swell and continuous flow fitly emblem the eternity of the distant past and the unfathomable future.

The dominion of the sea has, for ages, been accepted as the insignia of the most exalted national rank and power; and that common heritage of

the whole human race and of all nations has often been claimed by one alone ever since the Carthagenians swayed the Mediterranean. Carthage itself, with all its maritime power, yielded to Rome, and another era records the symbolic marriage of the Adriatic Sea with the ancient Venetian Doges. Other centuries witness Spanish and Dutch supremacy on the ocean, and in modern times the Caveat is scarcely yet withdrawn, that "Brittania rules the waves."

The common notion that the ocean is only a vast expanse of fathomless water is soon dissipated by actual experience, or by a scientific knowledge of its physical geography. Its vast area, its numerous rocks and shoals, its currents, and its storms, and all its impediments to safe navigation, not only demand the constant vigilance of man when he uses this magnificent roadway of commerce, but opens a wide field to his investigation and research.

Standing at the base of Insurance economics as the eldest and one of the most important of its now varied departments, and considered as of universal prevalence and undisputed advantage in the mercantile world, the science and practice of Marine underwriting is not only commercially but historically interesting.

The citizens of Tyre were the most celebrated navigators of ancient history; with their ships built of the timber from Mount Lebanon, they even ventured so far as to discover the shores of Britain. The Phœnicians, or ancient Cananites, a name signifying merchants in the Oriental language, planted maritime colonies in the different countries as early as 2,000 years B. C.

The Phœnicians, Carthaginians and Egyptians, the Athenians and other Hellenic nations, have left us no record of their maritime laws, if their sea usages ever became so established and numerous as to require separate collection and preservation.

The first maritime code of which we have any authentic evidence, is that of Rhodes, a beautiful island in the Mediterranean Sea, off the coast of Asia Minor. This code is supposed to have originated during the reign of Jehoshaphat in Judah, about 900 years B. C., and it was therefore nearly contemporary with the era of Solomon in Palestine, The Rhodian laws were adopted by the Romans as authoritative, except where they conflicted with their own special regulations, and we are indebted to the Code of Justinian and the writings of Roman lawyers for the preservation of excerpts from these ancient commercial regulations. One title of the Digest relating to the subject of jettison is entitled "*De Lege Rhodia de Jactu* (14, 2); the Rhodian law has thus furnished for nearly three thousand years the foundation of the principles of general Average prevailing among all commercial nations. But from the endless variety of circumstances and combinations occasionally attending the settlements of general Average and marine losses, the decisions of Average adjusters, resting on mingled law, usage and equity, are not even at this date always uniform and concordant.

The modern contract of Marine insurance was not known to these nations, nor even to the Romans; although the latter nation approached somewhat its main features in the usage which prevailed in cases of warlike stores and provisions conveyed by sea for the Roman troops, the gov-

ernment assuming the risk of loss arising from perils of the sea and from capture by enemies and pirates. The Emperor Claudius also accelerated the importation of grain into Italy during a famine, by assuming the damages which might result from tempests. A workman also who undertook to set precious stones, might also, at his option, burden himself with the loss, through fortuitous events, of the articles entrusted to him, and the same principle was applied in other cases.

The contract of bottomry and respondentia (*fœnus nauticam, pecunia trajectitia, a grosse aventure*), or a loan on the responsibility of the ship or cargo, in the nature of a mortgage, conditioned to be repaid only with a high or unlimited rate of interest, if the voyage should prove successful, was well known to the Athenians and Romans, and minutely governed by many special regulations, some of which prevail even at the present day. The formula of bottomry contract used in France and other countries during the present century has been traced back even to the era of Demosthenes, and has therefere actually been in vogue over two thousand years. The Justinian Code, promulgated in A. D. 529, and the Basilica of the Eastern Empire, compiled in A. D. 877, both limited the rate of nautical interest to twelve per cent per annum. It is asserted that this natural maritime contract was also understood and practiced by the ancient Hindus. It undoubtly formed the ancient and original basis of Marine insurance, although it has now almost fallen into desuetude among modern commercial nations, having been superseded by the contract of insurance and other new mercantile inventions and usages of modern times.

About the year A. D. 350, a party of Roman emigrants destined for Constantinople, were shipwrecked off the coast of Salerno, in Southern Italy, and the adjacent harbor of Amalfi having attracted their attention, they at once began to lay the foundations of that celebrated city which was destined soon to become the most powerful commercial emporium of this epoch. Its maritime Code, compiled in 1063, known as the *Amalfitan Table* (now entirely lost), became dominant on the shores of the Mediterranean and throughout the Levant. The High Court of Admiralty of Amalfi even obtained authority and sanction as a tribunal of nations.

An Ordinance on navigation was adopted at Barcelona as early as 1258.

The earliest code of maritime law in modern Europe, now extant, is the *Consulat de la Mer, Consulado del Mar* or *Consolato del Mare.* It is a singular fact that the origin of this authoritative compilation is unknown, although it has ruled the Mediterranean Sea and the shores of Europe for centuries, and formed the basis of nearly all subsequent maritime codes. Its origin seems to have been most authentically traced to Barcelona, in Spain, then ruled by the Kings of Aragon, where it was first promulgated in the Romana or Catalan tongue, in the twelfth or thirteenth century. It was a complete digest of the then existing maritime laws and usages, and contained two hundred and ninety-four chapters. The commercial republics and flourishing cities which arose in Italy and on the Mediterranean after the destruction of the Roman Empire in the West, Pisa, Genoa, Venice, Ancona, Marseilles, adopted the Consolato del Mare, or

promulgated special marine ordinances of their own, mainly founded on the Consolato.

The *Jugemens, Roole, or Role d' Oleron*, was compiled under the patronage of Queen Eleanor, Duchess of Guienne, and named from her favorite island of Oleron, at the mouth of the Charente, on the shore of France. The Ordonnances or laws of Wisbuy are supposed to have been promulgated, in the year 1288, by the rich and famous commercial city of that name, situated on the island of Gothland, off the coast of Sweeden. Both these Codes claim almost as ancient an origin as the Consolato itself, but neither of them refer to the modern contract of Insurance.

In the latter part of the seventh century, the Roman fugitives who had taken refuge from the Northern barbarians on the desolate Venetian islands on the shores of the Adriatic Sea, compelled by their necessities, began to acquire commercial importance, and when the maritime supremacy of the other Italian cities, Amalfi, Pisa, and Genoa declined, Venice rose to the first rank as a naval power, and from the most distant shores of the Black Sea to the coast of England, she enjoyed an extensive and flourishing commerce, and obtained a recognized superiority in navigation and naval architecture over all other European or Asiatic nations. In the year 1177, Pope Alexander III., having been compelled to seek a refuge in Venice, granted to the Empire, with his ring, the sovereignty of the sea. In 1255, a maritime statute, which is still extant, was adopted, consisting of one hundred and twenty nine articles, entitled "*Statuta et Ordinamenta super Navibus.* The pompous ceremony of the marriage ring annually thrown into the Adriatic, in celebration of the espousals, was no idle and meaningless rite of that long line of Venetian Doges, which ruled for eleven hundred years. (A. D. 679 to 1797.)

The Hanseatic League, which is supposed to have originated about the year 1241, by the Union of Hamburgh and Lubeck, soon embraced, with the permission of their respective sovereigns, eighty-five commercial cities, especially those of the North and Baltic seas. The laws of Oleron and Wisbuy constituted, at first, their marine Code, but, in 1591, a maritime code was promulgated by the Hanse towns, which was afterwards enlarged, and known as the *Jus Hanseaticum Maritimum.* This imperial League flourished for more than three hundred years; its objects were to repress piracy, procure restitution of shipwrecked property, facilitate the safe navigation of the seas, and establish trade, fisheries, commerce, and manufactures. Bruges, in West Flanders, was established in 1252 as one of its leading cities, and soon became the commercial centre of Northern Europe. In 1272, a colony or agency was established at Novogorod, Russia, and in 1278, one at Bergen. Norway, Denmark, Sweden, and Germany were subjected to the sway of these merchant princes, who loaned ships of war to kings, and for many years exerted a controlling power over several nations, and almost monopolized, with their numerous mercantile marine, the commerce of England and Northern Europe. About the year 1250, the German merchants of the Teutonic Hanse, or "Esterlinge," were encouraged by Henry III. to settle in England, and were granted a patent, erected into a corporation, under the title of "The Steel-Yard Society," and endowed with special privileges, which they retained for more than three centuries, and until the reign of Edward VI.

when the national jealousy became excited against them, their privileges were withdrawn, and England began to feel the first throbs of that intense ambition for commercial and manufacturing supremacy which afterwards became so signally successful. Henry VIII., from a mistaken policy, banished thousands of Belgian manufacturers; and, finally, under Elizabeth, the connection of England with the League was dissolved by the seizure and confiscation of sixty Hanseatic vessels engaged in smuggling; and the English, who had previously purchased Hanseatic ships built in Baltic ports, commenced learning the art of naval construction and the building of their own vessels. The Act of Navigation, which secured the carrying trade to English shipping, was also passed in 1660. (12 Car. II., Cap. 181.)

The Dutch gradually supplanted the Hanseatic League, which was formally dissolved in 1630, and Antwerp and Amsterdam became, for a brief period, great ship-building marts and the acknowledged centres of the commercial world. Holland, by her manufactures and commerce, her colonies and shipping, outranked any other nation.

The justly celebrated *Ordonnance de la Marine*, originally inspired by the genius of Colbert, and subsequently illumined by the Commentary of Valin, was compiled under Louis XIV., in 1681, and attained great celebrity and authority as a marine Code, most of its legal principles remaining unchanged to the present day. One article interdicted the practice of Life insurance.

Other marine codes and compilations of lesser note were published, among which were the *Reglemens* of Charles V., published at Brussels, in 1551; the *Guidon de la Mer*, of Rouen, composed about the year 1600; the *Notabilia de Navibus et Naulo, item de Assecurationibus*, by Francesco Rocci or Roccus of Naples, published in 1655; the *Us et Coutumes de la Mer*, by Stephen Cleirac, published at Bordeaux, in 1661, &c.

Want of space will not permit even the mere enumeration of the many eminent publicists, jurisconsults, and judges, whose united labors and researches have contributed for centuries to the gradual erection of the modern structure of Maritime law, the foundations of which are laid on the broad and solid basis of natural reason and justice. It is somewhat noticeable that England, the leading commercial nation of the world, has never promulgated any authoritative Maritime Code. The *Lex Mercatoria*, or Law Merchant, although never enacted by Parliament, constitutes a part of the Common Law, and as compiled from the general usages and laws of all commercial nations, is expounded by her admiralty and other courts of justice.

These mediæval Codes embodied the concentrated wisdom of those early days, and still constitute the foundation of the present maritime laws of all civilized states, and are justly considered as forming, to a considerable extent, a portion of the *jus gentium*, or law of nations.

Before the practice of Insurance came into use, when, for any reason, the nautical loan was not resorted to by the merchants of the earlier middle ages, a division of freight among different vessels, as well as part ownership of ships, was devised as and expedient to lessen the risks from the many perils of the sea, which were so much more common before the discovery of the mariner's compass (A. D. 1302.)

Marine insurance, which is the earliest kind of insurance known, undoubtedly had its origin in some of the maritime cities of Europe about the 14th century. Modern researches have discovered strong evidence of its earliest existence and practice in the opulent city of Bruges. The Chronicle, of Flanders (A. D. 621 to 1725), published in 1736, records as follows:

"At the request of the inhabitants of Bruges, in 1310, he (the Count of Flanders) permitted the establishment, in this town, of a Chamber of Insurances, by which the merchants were enabled to insure their merchandise exposed to the risks of the sea or other hazards, for the consideration of a few pence per cent, as is practised to the present day. But in order that so useful an establishment to the merchants might not be dissolved as soon as founded, he enacted various laws and forms which the insurers as well as the merchants were bound to conform to."

The rate of premium for Marine insurance between London and Pisa, about the year 1400, appears, by the wo k of the Florentine merchant, Uzzano, to have been from twelve to fifteen per cent, and the same rate from Bruges, in Belgium.

One of the first laws in Europe, relating to insurance, seems to have been an ordinance of twenty chapters, still extant, promulgated by the magistrates of Barcelona, in 1435, regulating marine insurances, and this act, in some of its provisions, implies the previous existence of Marine underwriting.

A law was promulgated upon insurances in Flanders in the year 1537.

In 1593, Philip II., King of Spain, made an ordinance relating to insurances on the Exchange at Antwerp; and the *Coutoumier pour les Assurances*, of Amsterdam, consisting of thirty-six articles, was promulgated in 1598.

The treatise or Notes of Roccus on Insurance was first published in 1655.

In 1629, a scheme was projected in the United Provinces or Republic of Holland, during the height of the war with Spain, for a general Chamber or Company of Insurance for Marine risks, and the project was developed with almost all the completeness of the present era. It was proposed, however, to make the insurance compulsory, and after considerable discussion and examination by the States General, the scheme was abandoned in consequence of the objections of the merchants of the maritime towns. It may be of some interest to the Marine underwriters of the present day to reproduce some of the proposed rates of premium

For the Sound and Norway, summer 2½; winter, 3½ per cent.
For Bergen in Norway, Drontheim and Stavanger, in summer, 3 per cent; winter, 3½ per cent.
For Muscovy, Outward bound, 3½; homeward, 4 per cent.
For Greenland and Spitzbergen, 3 per cent.
For Hamburgh, 2 per cent; for Emden and Bremen, 1½ per cent.
For Scotland, Newcastle, Hull and neighborhoods, 2½ per cent.
For the Thames, 2½ per cent.
For Plymouth to 'La Pointe de l'Anglerre,' 3 per cent.
For Ireland and its neighborhood, 5 per cent.
For Nantes, La Rochelle and neighborhood, 4½ per cent.
For Bordeaux, 5 per cent, etc., etc.

The first English statute relating to Marine insurance was passed in 1601. Special commissioners were appointed to meet weekly "in the

office of the Assurances," to hear and decide summarily all Marine insurance litigation. The act was entitled "An act concerninge matters of Assurances amongste Merchentes," the Preamble to which is worth reciting as an epitome of the knowledge on this subject in England at this early day:

"Whereas it ever hathe been the policie of this relme by all good meanes to comforte and encourage the merchante, therebie to advance and increase the generall wealth of the relme, her majestie's customes and the strengthe of shippinge, which consideracion is nowe the more requisite because trade and traffique is not at the presente soe open as at other tymes it hathe bene. And whereas it hathe been tyme out of mynde an usage amongste merchantes, bothe of this relme and of forrayne nacyons, when they make any greate adventure (speciallie into remote partes) to give some consideracion of money to other persons (which commonlie are in no small nomber) to have from them assurance made for their goodes, merchandizes, ships and things adventured, or some parts thereof, at such rates and in such sorte as the parties assurers and the parties assured can agree, whiche course of dealinge is commonlie termed a policie of assurance; by means of whiche policies, if it cometh to passe upon the loss or perishinge of any shippe, there followethe not the undoinge of any man, but the losse lightethe rather easilie upon many than heavilie upon fewe, and rather upon them that adventure not than those that doe adventure; whereby all merchantes, especiallie the younger sorte, are allured to venture more willinglie and freelie." (43 Eliz. Cap. 12).

The business of Marine insurance was carried on at this date, as a trade or business, solely by individual underwriters who became personally responsible for different sums in cases of loss to ship or cargo from the perils of the sea.

One company, the Hand-in-Hand, still in existence, was chartered in 1696 for Fire insurance, and one company for Life insurance, the Amicable, was incorporporated in 1706. These two corporations are the oldest Fire and Life insurance companies in the world.

In 1720, the first Parliamentary committee sat to inquire into the subject of Insurance, to investigate the practice of Marine underwriting as then existing, and to hear certain complaints made as to several unjustifiable undertakings and projects, whereby great mischief might accrue to the public. It was during this year (1720) that on the petition of many merchants and traders and the payment of a very heavy sum (£300,000 sterling each, afterwards reduced one half) to the Exchequer for deficiencies in the civil list, that the "Royal Exchange Assurance for insuring Ships and Goods at Sea or going to Sea, and Lending Money upon Bottomry," and the "London Assurance for insuring Ships and Goods at Sea or going to Sea, and for Lending Money upon Bottomry," (described in a supplemental Charter as "The Corporation of the London Assurance of Houses and Goods from Fire,") were incorporated with special and exclusive privileges as all other corporations, which monopoly they actually held until the recent act of 1824. These two corporations are the oldest Marine insurance companies in the world. The restrictive act which limited the number of partners in a trading concern was repealed, thus opening the field for a numerous combination of individual underwriters. Other Marine insurance companies were also chartered and organized under the Joint-Stock Companies Act of 1844, and the Companies Act of 1862.

In 1746 wager policies of Marine insurance, "interest or no interest," were prohibited (19 Geo. II., Cap. 37; 28 Geo. III. Cap. 56).

"Lloyd's Coffee House," in Lombard street, London, known, for many years, all over the world wherever the sea washed the shore of any civilized nation, was established about the middle of the last century as the headquarters or exchange of the Marine underwriters. The rooms of the private underwriters were subsequently changed to commodious apartments in the Royal Exchange. Since the act of 1824, more than five individuals can become associated together in business at "Lloyds." A capital of at least £5,000 sterling is required, however, as a necessary qualification for membership. The association numbers about two hundred members.

FINANCES OF THE STATE OF NEW YORK.

THE State of New York has an area of 47,000 square miles, and in 1860 contained 3,880,735 inhabitants, being 82.56 to the square mile, and about one-eighth the total population of the United States.

POPULATION.

The progress of the population by decimal periods has been as follows:

Census.	Population.	Proportion to pop. of U. S.	Proportion to sq. m.	Ratio of Increase.	
1790.....	340,120	8 65	7.23	1790—1800.....	72.51
1800.....	586,756	11.05	12.48	1800—1810.....	63.45
1810.....	959,049	13.25	20.40	1810—1820.....	43.14
1820.....	1,372,812	14.24	29 21	1820—1830.....	39.76
1830.....	1,918,608	14,91	40.70	1830—1840.....	26.60
1840.....	2,428,921	14.23	51.68	1840—1850.....	27.52
1850.....	3,097,394	13.36	65.80	1850—1860.....	25.29
1860.....	3,880,735	12,34	82.56		

Supposing the same rate of increase as obtained in 1850-1860, viz., 2½ per cent per annum, has continued the present term, the populaton in June 1864 would be 4,268 808, and in 1865 4,365,827. The actual results of the census taken in June 1865, however, will probably, if correctly taken, show a larger increase, the population of the cities having increased with unwonted rapidity during the war. The population of New York City which in 1860 had 805,000, has now probably 1,200,000; and Brooklyn which in 1860 had 266,000, at least 450,000.

COMMERCE—INTERNAL AND FOREIGN.

The State canals and the Erie and Central railroads, are the great avenues of the internal commerce of the State. The traffic on these in the years 1860 64 has increased enormously, and year by year, as given in the following tables:

AGGREGATE TONS CARRIED

	State Canals.	Erie R. R.	N. Y. Cen. R. R.	Total.
1860.....	4,650,214	1,139,554	1,028,183	6,817,951
1861.....	4,507,635	1,253,418	1,167,802	6,928,855
1862.....	5,598.785	1,632,955	1,387,433	8,619,173
1863.....	5,557,692	1,815,096	1,449,604	8,822.392
1864.....	4,852,941	2,170,798	1,557,148	8,580,887

AGGREGATE TONS CARRIED ONE MILE.

	State Canals.	Erie R. R.	N. Y. Cen. R. R.	Total.
1860	809,524,596	214,084,395	199,231,392	1,222,840,383
1861	863,623,507	251,350,127	237,832,374	1,352,366,508
1862	1,123,548,430	351,092,285	296,963,492	1,771,604,207
1863	1,034,130,023	403,670,861	312,195,796	1,719,996,680
1864	871,335,150	422,013,644	314,081,410	1,607,430,204

ESTIMATED VALUE OF TONNAGE CARRIED.

	State Canals.	Erie Railway.	N. Y. Central R. R.	Total.
1860	$170,849,198	$79,768,780	$71,972,810	$322,590,798
1861	130,115,893	75,205,080	70,038,120	275,359,093
1862	203,234,331	114,306,850	97,120,310	414,661,491
1863	240,046,461	145,207,680	115,968,320	501,222,461
1864	274,400,639	238,787,780	171,286,628	684,475,047

From these tables we learn that that the tonage carried on the canals and railroads increased in five years from 6,817,951 to 8,580,887, or 1,662,636 tons (24 per cent); the tonnage carried one mile from 1,222,840,383 to 1,607,430,204, or 384,589,821 tons (30½ per cent.); and the value of the tonnage carried from $322,590,798 to $684,475,047, or $361,874,249 (112 per cent). The prices of 1864, however, were to those of 1860 as 80 is to 47, those being the values in dollars per ton in the years respectively. Reckoned at the values of 1860, the tonnage of 1864 would be worth $403,300,689, or an increase of $80,710,881, or about 25 per cent.

The foreign commerce for the port of New York, for the same five years, is exhibited in the following table:

	Merchandize.		Specie.	
	Imports.	Exports.	Imports.	Exports.
1860	$229,408,180	$103,492,280	$8,552,330	$42,191,171
1861	125,680,377	138,594,901	37,088,413	4,236,250
1862	173,262,040	156,934,822	1,390,277	59,437,021
1863	186,088,766	170,718,768	1,525,811	49,754,066
1864	215,860,138	221,822,542	2,265,622	50,825,621

We have given the above tables of the commercial movement as an index of our industrial progress during the years embraced. No definite statistics of special industries have been collected since the census of 1860, and hence no detailed comparison is possible. Sufficient has, nevertheless, been shown to form some tangible opinion of the progress of the State in material prosperity, and that its resources are amply proportionate with the measure of its financial securities.

VALUATION AND TAXATION.

The assessed valuation of the total property in the State subject to taxation in 1860 and 1864, was as follows:

	Real Estate.	Personal Property.	Corrected Aggregate.
1860	$1,119,933,484	$320,617,852	$1,441,344,833
1864	1,141,075,947	388,655,898	1,531,611,470
Increase	$21,142,463	$68,038,546	$90,266,638

The amount of taxes assessed on the valuations of the same years was as follows:

	1860.	1864.	Increase.
Town	$2,776,803	$12,489,553	$9,712,750
County	10,733,581	19,504,043	8,768,462
School	1,064,473	1,125,750	61,277
State	4,376,164	6,754,499	2,378,335
Total	$18,956,021	$39,873,945	$20,917,924

From these tables it will be seen, that while in the four years embraced the valuation has increased scarcely six per cent, the taxes imposed have increased more than 100 per cent. This increase has been chiefly in local taxes, and has been necessitated mainly by the demands for war purposes. The rate of taxation in 1864, however, averaged only 2¾ per cent on the valuation, and at such rate, when compared with many other States, or with several counties of this State, this is not burdensome. The highest rate in any one county was that of Warren, 11.67 per cent, the lowest, in Cattaraugus, 89 cents per $100.

Most of the counties also involved themselves in debts of considerable magnitude, but as the State has since assumed those contracted for war purposes the satisfaction of these will become a general burden, and be distributed among the whole population. The limit of this assumption is $30,000,000, which will require for interest $2,100,000 annually.

STATE DEBT.

The entire debt of the State at the close of the fiscal year ending Sept. 30, 1864, was as follows:

General Fund Debt	$6,278,954 37
Canal Debt	22,441,770 25
Total Debt	$28,720,724 62

The following are the components of the State Debt, chargeable upon the General Fund Debt Sinking Fund:

STATE STOCK.

Amount issued on account of the Astor debt, per chapter 802, Laws of of 1827, and chapter 86 Laws of 1832, redeemable at pleasure, 5 per cent (of which there is held by the Commissioners of the Canal Fund, in trust for the sinking funds, the sum of $450,221.28; and by the Comptroller, in trust for the School and Literature Funds $44,755.91)		$561,500 00
Amount issued to the Ithaca and Oswego Railroad Company, per chap. 295, Laws of 1838, and chap 344, Laws of 1840, redeemable July 1st, 1865, 5½ per cent		28,000 00
Amount issued to the Hudson and Berkshire Railroad Company, per chap. 178, Laws of 1840, redeemable July 1st, 1865, 5½ per cent.		150,000 00
Amount issued on account of the deficiency in the General Fund Debt Sinking Fund, per chap. 216, Laws of 1848, redeemable as follows, viz		
5 per cent, May 1st, 1868	$442,961 05	
6 do January 1st, 1868	500,000 00	
7 do July 1st, 1870	700,000 00	
5 do July 1st, 1875	900,000 00	
6 do July 1st, 1878	800,000 00	
5 do At pleasure	348,107 00	
6 do At pleasure	1,189,780 77	
		4,880,848 82

COMPTROLLER'S BONDS.

5 per cent, issued per Revised Statutes, in 1844, for loans from the Railroad Sinking Funds, payable on demand	$28,697 94
5½ per cent, issued per revised Statutes in 1842, for a loan to the treasury, payable on demand	11,000 00
6 per cent, issued per Revised Statutes in 1846, for loans from the Railroad Sinking Funds, payable on demand	9,337 74
6 per cent, issued per Revised Statutes, in 1846, for	

a loan to the treasury of moneys held by the Comptroller in trust for the Delaware Academy, payable on demand	4,825 00	
6 per cent, issued per chapter 208, Laws of 1848, and Chapter 37, Laws of 1850, for the benefit of the Stockbridge Indians, payable at pleasure	36,000 00	
6 per cent, issued per chapter 225, Laws of 1849, to discharge the claims of the Canal Fund upon the General Fund, redeemable July 1st, 1866	385,000 00	
		474,910 68

INDIAN ANNUITIES.

Amount of Indian annuities, payable to sundry Indian tribes, under the several treaties with them, being $7,361 67, which would require an investment, at 6 per cent, to produce the sum of	122,694 57
Debt paying interest	$6,217,954 37
Not paying interest	61,000 00
Total debt	$6,278,954 37

TEMPORARY LOANS TO THE TREASURY.

Amount of Comptroller's bonds issued to the Commissioners of the Canal Fund, for temporary loans, in anticipation of the State tax, levied in pursuance of chapter 184, Laws of 1864, 3 per cent	$3,000,000 00

CONTINGENT STATE DEBT.

Amount of State stock issued and loaned to the following railroad companies, viz :		
Tonawanda, per chapter 200, Laws of 1840, redeemable July 1st, 1865, 5½ per cent		100,000 00
Shenectady and Troy, per chapter 299, Laws of 1840, redeemable July 1st, 1867, 6 per cent		100,000 00
Long Island, per chapter 193, Laws of 1840, redeemable August 1st, 1861, 6 per cent, which redemption is deferred to August, 1876, and the rate of interest reduced to 5 per cent, per chapter 36, Laws of 1858		68,000 00
Tioga Coal, Iron Mining and Manufacturing Company, per chapter 296, Laws of 1840, redeemable July 1st, 1865, 5½ per cent		70,000 00
Total		$338,000 00

The amount paid from the treasury on account of the General Fund Debt Sinking Fund during the year 1864, was as follows:

Redemption of State stock	$240,700 00	
Interest on State Debt	350,235 68	
Indian annuities	7,444 43	
		$598,380 11
Balance in the Treasury Sept. 30, 1863	$388,678 56	
Received into the Treasury from the canal revenues, (under Const. § 2, art. 7)	350,000 00	388,678 56
Balance due the Treasury Sept. 30, 1864		$209,501 55

The following statements from the Canal Departments show the receipts and payments on account of the canals during the fiscal year, and the details of the canal debt.

Receipts during the year:

From tolls collected on all the canals	$4,308,781 20
Rent of surplus waters	1,511 92
Interest on current canal revenues	30,002 19
Miscellaneous receipts	5,970 31
	$4,346,265 52

Payments during the year:

To Canal Commissioners, for repairs,.....	$166,069 98	
To contractors, for repairs	498,938 41	
To superintendents, for repairs.....	284,115 71	
To collectors, for salaries, clerk hire, pay of inspectors, and expenses of collector's offices.....	59,820 29	
To weigh-masters.....	9,256 88	
For salaries chargeable to annual revenues, refunding tolls, printing, and other miscellaneous payments, .	61,208 19	
		1,028,909 46
Surplus revenues		$3,317,356 06
Payments to Sinking Fund, under section 1, article 7..	$1,700,000 00	
" " " 2, " 7..	350,000 00	
" " " 3, " 7..	1,116,242 66	
" to the treasury, " 3, " 7 to defray the expenses of Government.....	151,113 40	
		3,317,356 06

By comparing the receipts with those of the preceding year, which were $5,118,501.35, it will be seen that there is a falling off to the extent of $772,235.83.

STATEMENT OF THE CANAL DEBT, 30TH SEPTEMBER, 1864, SHOWING EACH DESCRIPTION OF STOCK, THE AMOUNT REDEEMABLE IN EACH YEAR, AND THE ANNUAL INTEREST ON THE SAME.

When due.	7 per cent.	6 per cent.	5 per cent.	Total.
1837		$160 00	.....	$160 00
1860	.....	....	$10,000 00	10,000 00
1863	.....	.....	40,000 00	40,000 00
1864	.....	63,800 00	.....	63,800 00
Pays no interest ..	.....	$63,960 00	$50,000 00	$113,960 00
1864	$1,200,000 00	.....	.....	$1,200,000 00
1865	.....	$1,544,224 76	.....	1,544,224 76
1866	.....	743,000 00	$192,585 49	935,585 49
1868	.....	.....	1,212,000 00	1,212,000 00
1871	.....	.....	236,000 00	236,000 00
1872	.....	3,050,000 00	.....	3,050,000 00
1873	.....	6,000,000 00	.....	6,000,000 00
1874	.....	2,250,000 00	4,500,000 00	6,750,000 00
1875	.....	500,000 00	.....	500,000 00
1877	.....	900,000 00	.....	900,000 00
Debt paying inter't.	$1,200,000 00	14,987,224 76	$6,140,585 49	22,327,810 25
Debt not paying int.	.....	63,960 00	50,000 00	113,960 00
Total debt.....	$1,200,000 00	15,051,184 76	$6,190,585 49	22,441,770 25
Annual interest ...	$84,000 00	$899,233 49	$307,029 27	$1,290,262 76

ANALYSIS OF THE FOREGOING TABLE.

Principal of debt, and sections of art. 7 of the Constitution.		Annual interest of the debt.	
Section 1, 7's.....	$1,200,000 00	$84,000 00	
6's.....	1,494,224 76	89,653 48	
5's.....	5,212,000 00	260,600 00—	$434,253 48
Section 3, 6's.....	11,000,000 00	660,000 00	
5's	736,000 00	36,800 00—	696,800 00
Section 10, 6's.....	250,000 00	15,000 00	
5's.....	192,585 49	9,629 28—	24,629 28
Section 12, 6's.....	2,243,000 00	134,580 00—	134,580 00
	22,327,810 25	.....	$1,290,262 76

The interest on the debt is about 5¾ per cent.

Of the above debt paying interest, there was held on the 30th September, 1864,

On the United States account	$20,486,092 89
On foreign account	1,841,727 36
	$22,327,810 25

RECAPITULATION OF THE FOREGOING STATEMENT OF THE CANAL DEBT, PAYING INTEREST ON THE 30TH SEPTEMBER, 1864.

Under article 7, section 1 of the Constitution	$7,906,224 74
" 7, " 3 "	11,736,000 00
" 7, " 10 "	442,585 49
" 7, " 12 "	2,243,000 00
	$22,327,810 25

FUNDS UNDER STATE MANAGEMENT.

The several funds which are managed at the Treasury are as follows: The General Fund. The General Fund Debt Sinking Fund. The Common School Fund. The United States Deposit Fund. The College Land Scrip Fund; and certain trust funds of small amount.

The total receipts and disbursements of these funds for the year ending September 30, 1864, were as follows:

	Receipts.	Disbursements.
General Fund	$7,755,069 51	$7,417,512 [illegible]
Metropolitan Police Fund	2,067,629 95	2,467,629 95
Soldiers' Allotment Fund	36 00	36 00
Free School Fund	1,120,968 99	1,117,906 [illegible]
General Fund Debt Sinking Fund	350,000 00	598,380 11
Common School Fund	425,703 23	325,485 [illegible]
Literature Fund	142,667 02	41,243 [illegible]
United States Deposit Fund	429,321 54	370,201 [illegible]
Bank Fund	33,509 86	37,683 44
Tioga Coal, &c., Sinking Fund	1,546 27	.....
Tonawanda Railroad Sinking Fund	2,839 20	.....
College Land Scrip Fund	64,762 40	.....
Canal Fund	5,091,653 35	5,829,855 34
Canal Repair Trust Fund	5,711 26	4,000 00
Total	$17,521,418 58	$17,809,735 16
Transfers	1,073,316 22	1,073,316 22
Net total	$16,448,102 36	$16,736,418 94

Of the above funds all are self-supporting, except the two first, deriving their incomes from public works or invested capital. The Metropolitan Police Fund is properly a local institution, and is managed by the State simply to keep the Department supported by it from local influences. The actual expenses of the State are shown in the General Fund.

PRICES OF GOLD AT NEW YORK.

The tables which follow, and which have been compiled with great care, exhibit a concise review of the Gold Market at New York, from the suspension of specie payments, at the close of 1861, to the end of June, 1865, embracing a period of three and a half years. From January 1, 1862, to and including June 30, 1864, the prices are based on the daily sales of the New York Stock Exchange; from June 21, 1864, to June 30, 1865, on the sales at the Gold Room. This change of the sources of information was rendered necessary by the total cessation of sales at the Stock Board immediately after the passage of the Gold Bill in Congress, and the infrequency of sales thereat up to the present day.

The historical value of such tables as these cannot be questioned. To the banker and merchant they present facts to which they have frequent necessity to refer. The lawyer will find them useful in cases involving the question of values. To the general public they will, at least, be matters of interest in reviewing the difficulties and sacrifices to which the little figures they present have subjected them. The propriety of their appearing in this condensed form, therefore, needs no apology.

The fluctuating price of gold, as of other commodities, rests primarily on the relations of demand and supply. The supply is the amount in bank and private hands, increased or decreased by imports and exports. The demand is the amount wanted in commerce. To show how the movements of treasure may have affected the price during the years embraced in the tables, we have appended to them a series of statements showing—(1.) The receipt of gold from California; (2.) The imports of gold from foreign countries; (3.) The export of gold to foreign countries; (4.) The amount of gold demanded and paid for custom duties; and, (5.) The amount of gold paid out by the Sub-Treasury for interest on the National debt. The co-operation of these in producing the result or price would be found in the daily fluctuations, were there not other elements to which reference must be made, and of all that have been operative, during the three and a half years past, the varying phases of confidence in the Government, the issues of the currency, with which gold is compared, are certainly most conspicuous. A defeat, or the fear of a defeat, or a want of success, would certainly run up the price of gold, even if the supply was in excess of the demand. We must, therefore, look further than the primary causes of fluctuations, (demand and supply), if we would fathom their mysteries; we must read them, also, by the light of the chronicle of events.

We do not, however, propose to write a history. The few words here given were necessary to explain the nature of the tabulations to which they are introductory.

DAILY HIGHEST AND LOWEST PRICES OF GOLD AT NEW YORK—1862–65.

1862.

Day of month.	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.
1.....	*Holiday.*	103⅜-103⅝	102⅜-102⅝	101⅞-102	102⅜-102¼	S.	108¾-109¼	115⅛-115¾	116⅛-117	122 -123¾	129⅛-131¼	128⅜-131⅜
2.....	.....	S.	S.	102 -102¼	102¼-102⅜	103⅛-103⅝	108⅞-109⅛	115 -115⅜	116⅜-116¾	122¾-123	S.	131 -131⅜
3.....	.....	103⅞-103¾	102 -102⅜	101¾-101⅞	102⅜-102¾	103½-103¾	109⅛-109⅜	S.	117¼-118	122¼-122⅝	130¾-131¼	131 -132
4.....	.....	103½-103⅝	101⅞-102	101⅜-101⅞	S.	103½-103⅝	*Holiday.*	114⅝-115	117¼-117⅝	122⅜-123	129½-131⅛	133 -134
5.....	S.	103⅛-103⅜	102 -102	101⅞-102	103¼-103¾	103⅝-104	109⅜-109⅞	114⅜-114¾	118⅛-119⅜	S.	131¼-132¼	131⅜-132⅜
6.....	.....	103⅛-103⅜	102 -102⅛	S.	102⅝-103⅛	104 -104¼	S.	114⅜-114⅝	118¾-119¼	122⅞-123⅜	131⅛-132	130⅜-132
7.....	.....	103⅜-103⅝	102 -102⅜	102⅛-102¼	102⅜-102¾	104 -104⅜	110 -110¼	114 -114⅞	S.	123 -123⅞	131⅜-132	S.
8.....	.....	103⅜-103⅝	101¾-101⅞	102 -102⅛	102¾-103	S.	111¼-111⅞	112¾-114	118¾-119¼	124½-124⅞	132 -132⅜	131⅜-131⅝
9.....	.....	S.	S.	101¾-101⅞	103⅛-103¼	104¼-104¾	113½-116⅜	112⅜-112⅞	118⅜-118⅞	125½-126⅜	S.	132⅝-133
10.....	.....	103⅛-103⅞	102 -102	101¾-102⅞	103⅜-103⅞	104¼-104¾	115⅞-117⅜	S.	118⅛-118⅜	127⅜-129	132¾-133½	132½-132⅝
11.....	.....	103⅞-104	101⅝-101¾	101⅞-102	S.	104⅜-104⅝	114⅜-116	112⅝-113⅜	118⅛-118⅞	128 -128¼	131 -132¾	132½-132¾
12.....	S.	104 -104¼	101⅜-101⅝	101¾-102	103¾-103⅝	104¼-105¼	S.	113⅛-114¼	118⅜-118⅝	S.	131¾-132	131½-131¾
13.....	103 -103	104¼-104¾	101½-101⅜	S.	101¼-103⅛	105¼-105½	113⅛-114⅜	114⅜-114⅝	118 -118¾	129 -129¼	131⅛-132	131⅜-132
14.....	102¾-103¼	104⅜-104⅝	101½-101⅝	101¾-101⅞	103¼-103¾	105⅛-105¾	115⅛-116⅜	114¼-115⅞	S.	131 -133	132 -133	S.
15.....	102⅜-102¾	104⅜-104⅝	101⅜-101⅜	101¾-101⅞	103⅜-103⅝	S.	116¼-117	114¾-115⅛	117⅜-117⅝	132 -132⅜	131¾-132	131⅞-132¼
16.....	102⅛-102⅜	S.	S.	101⅝-101⅞	103 -103⅛	106¾-106¾	116¼-117¼	114⅜-114⅝	116⅛-117⅜	132 -132⅜	S.	132 -132⅝
17.....	101⅞-102	103¾-103⅞	101⅜-101⅜	101¾-101⅞	103 -103⅛	106 -106¼	117¾-118⅞	S.	116¾-117⅜	132 -132¼	132 -132⅜	132⅛-133
18.....	101⅜-102	103⅜-103⅝	101⅜-101¼	101¾-101⅞	S.	105¾-105⅞	119 -119¼	115¼-115¼	116¾-116⅞	130 -130¼	131¾-132	132⅛-132⅜
19.....	S.	103 -103⅛	101⅛-101⅜	101⅜-101⅞	103¼-103¼	106 -106¼	118¾-118⅞	114⅜-115⅛	116⅞-117	S.	130 -131	132⅜-132½
20.....	102¼-102⅜	103¼-103⅜	101¼-101⅜	S.	103¼-103⅜	106¼-106⅜	S.	115 -115¼	116¾-117¼	128¾-129¾	130¼-130¾	132 -132⅜
21.....	102¼-102⅜	103⅛-103⅜	101⅛-101⅜	101¾-101⅞	103⅜-103⅜	106⅜-106⅝	119⅜-120	115¼-115⅞	S.	128¾-129⅜	130⅜-130⅝	S.
22.....	102⅝-102⅞	103 -103	101⅜-101⅜	101⅝-101⅞	103½-103⅝	S.	119⅜-120¼	115¼-116⅛	117⅛-117⅜	133 -133⅜	130⅜-130¾	132⅛-132⅝
23.....	103⅜-103¾	S.	S.	101⅝-101⅞	103¼-103⅜	106¾-108	119 -119¼	115⅜-115⅞	117⅜-118⅜	132¾-133	S.	132⅛-132¼
24.....	103¾-103¾	103 -103¼	101⅛-101⅜	101¼-101⅜	103⅜-103⅝	108¼-108¾	117 -118¼	S.	118⅛-119	131 -132	130½-130¾	132 -132⅛
25.....	103 -103¼	103 -103½	101¼-101¼	101¼-101¾	S.	108¼-108¾	114¼-116¼	115¼-115¾	120 -120⅜	130 -131¼	129⅞-130	*Christmas.*
26.....	S.	102⅞-103⅛	101¼-101¼	101¼-101⅜	104 -104	108⅞-109¼	117 -117⅜	115¼-115⅞	120¼-120⅜	S.	129¼-129⅜	131⅞-132
27.....	103 -103¼	102⅛-102¼	101¼-101⅜	S.	104 -104¼	109⅛-109⅜	S.	115¼-115¾	121⅛-121⅜	130 -131¼	*Thanksg'g*	131⅞-132⅛
28.....	103¾-103¾	102⅜-102⅜	101¼-101⅜	101⅜-101⅝	103⅞-104	109 -109⅜	116⅛-117¼	115⅜-115⅝	S.	131¼-132¼	129¾-130⅛	S.
29.....	103¼-103⅜	.....	101⅜-101⅜	101¾-101⅞	103¼-103⅞	S.	115⅞-116⅜	116 -116	121⅝-123⅛	131¼-131¾	129 -129¼	131⅞-132¼
30.....	103⅛-103⅜	.....	S.	102 -102	103½-103¾	108⅞-109¼	114⅛-115⅞	115⅜-115¾	121⅜-124	130¼-130⅝	S.	132⅛-133
31.....	101⅜-103⅛	.....	101⅜-101⅜	.....	103½-103¾	.....	111⅝-115⅜	S.	.....	129⅜-130	.....	133⅛-133⅝
Month..	103⅝-103¾	103½-104¾	101⅜-109⅜	101⅛-101¾	102⅛-104⅛	103¾-109⅜	108¾-120⅛	113⅜-116¾	116⅜-124	122 -133⅜	129 -132¾	132⅜-134

1863.

Day of month.	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.
1	*Holiday.*	S.	S.	156 -157¼	150¾-151¼	146 -147¾	144¼-145	129¾-130¾	126¾-127¾	140¾-140¾	S.	148¼-148¾
2	133½-133¾	156¾-159	171½-171¾	153¼-157	149¾-150½	146¾-147¾	143¾-144¼	S.	127¼-128	142¾-143¼	145¾-146¼	148¼-148¾
3	133¾-134¾	154¾-155¼	171 -171¾	153 -153¾	S.	146¾-146¾	144 -144¼	127¼-127¾	129¾-131¼	142¾-143¾	146¼-146¾	151½-152½
4	S.	157 -158½	165 -168	154¾-155¾	148¼-150	146 -146¾	*Holiday.*	128¼-128¾	133¼-134½	S.	146 -146¼	152¾-153¾
5	134¼-135¼	156¾-158	157 -158	S.	148¾-151¾	146 -146¼	S.	127¾-127¾	131½-131¾	144 -144¼	146¼-147¼	151¾-153
6	134 -134¾	157¼-158½	150 -154	151 -152¾	152¼-154	145¼-145¾	138 -139¼	*Thanksg'g*	S.	146 -147¼	148 -148¾	S.
7	134 -135	156¾-157¾	154¾-155¾	150 -152¾	154¼-154¾	S.	132¾-133½	127 -127¾	133 -133¼	146¼-146¾	146¼-147¾	151 -153¼
8	135¾-137	S.	S.	145¾-147	154¼-154¾	143 -143	131¾-131¾	126¼-126¾	132 -132¾	145¾-146	S.	148¾-149¼
9	136 -138¾	154¾-156¼	155¾-157¼	146¼-148	149 -150¼	142½-142¾	131¼-131½	S.	132¾-132¾	146¾-147	146¼-146¾	148¾-148¾
10	136¾-138¾	153¾-153¾	160 -163	146¼-149	S.	140¼-140¾	132¼-132¾	126¼-126¾	131¼-131¾	148¾-148¾	145 -145½	148¾-149¼
11	S.	152¾-153¾	457½-158¾	150¾-152¾	148¼-149	141¾-142	132¾-132½	126¼-126¾	129¾-129¾	S.	145¾-145¾	151 -151¾
12	140¾-142¼	154¼-154¾	158¾-160¾	S.	148¾-149¼	141¼-141¾	S.	126¾-126¾	128¾-129	149¼-150¼	146¾-147	150¼-150¾
13	142 -144	155¾-156	159 -161¼	157 -157¾	149¾-149¾	142¼-142¾	131¼-131½	126¼-127	S.	153¾-155	147 -147¾	S.
14	146¾-148	455¼-156	157¾-158¾	155 -155¾	149¾-150	S.	131¼-131¾	125¼-126¾	130¾-131½	152¼-153¾	146¼-147	149¾-150¾
15	148¼-148¾	S.	S.	152 -154	149¾-150	144¼-146	129¾-129¼	125¾-125¼	131 -132¼	156 -156¾	S.	150¾-150¾
16	145½-145¾	155¾-157¼	154½-155¾	152 -153¾	149¾-150¼	147¾-148¾	126 -126½	S.	131¾-132¼	154¼-154¼	147 -147½	149¼-149¾
17	146¾-147¾	158¾-159¼	154¼-155¼	153¼-153¾	S.	145½-145¾	125¾-126	125¼-125¾	132¼-132½	149¼-150	147¾-148¾	150¾-150¾
18	S.	160¾-162	153¾-155	151¼-152¾	149¾-150	143½-144¾	125¾-125¾	125½-125½	133 -133¾	S.	149¾-150	151¾-152¾
19	147¾-148¾	161¾-164	154¾-155¾	S.	148½-149¼	143 -143¾	S.	124½-125¼	133¾-134	150¾-151¼	151 -152¾	151½-153
20	147¾-148¾	163¾-163¾	154½-155	148¾-150¾	148¾-149	143¾-143¾	123¾-125¾	124¾-124¾	S.	149¾-149¾	152¼-153¾	S.
21	147¾-148¾	162 -163¾	153¾-154¾	146 -147	148¾-150	S.	126 -127¾	125¼-125¾	130 -130¼	143¼-146	153¾-154	152¼-152½
22	147¼-148¾	S.	S.	145¾-147	148¼-149¾	143¾-143¾	124¾-125¾	124¾-124¾	137¼-138¾	142¾-144¼	S.	152¾-152¾
23	147 -148	163¾-164½	151 -153¾	148¾-150	148¾-149¾	143¾-143¾	125¾-126½	S.	137¼-138¾	145¾-146¾	153 -154	152 -152¾
24	148¾-150	167¾-171¼	145¼-159	151¼-153	S.	143¼-144	126¾-126¾	124 -124	136¾-137	146¾-147	150½-152	151½-151¾
25	S.	171¼-172¾	139¾-141¾	153 -154	145¾-146½	144¾-145¾	125¾-125¾	122½-123¼	138 -138½	S.	148¾-149	*Christmas.*
26	148¾-151¾	169¼-173¾	139 -140¾	S.	148¾-145	144¾-145	S.	122½-123¼	139 -139¾	149¼-149¾	*Thanksg'g*	151¾-151¾
27	153¼-154¾	169¾-171	140 -140¾	150 -153¾	143¾-144¾	145 -145¾	127¼-128	124½-127¾	S.	146 -147¼	148 -145¾	S.
28	153¾-154	171¼-172¾	142¼-143¼	149¾-150½	143¼-143¾	S.	127¾-127¾	124 -124¾	139¼-139¾	145¾-146¾	144¾-144¾	151¾-152¾
29	153 -155¾	——	S.	150 -150¾	144¾-145¾	146¼-147¼	127¾-127¾	124¾-124¾	142¼-143¾	147 -148	S.	152¾-152¾
30	153 -158¼	——	144¼-147¼	*Nat'l Fast.*	144¾-145¾	146½-146¾	127¾-127¾	S.	141¼-142	146 -146½	148¾-148	151¾-152½
31	159 -160¾	——	148¼-150	——	S.	——	128¾-129	127 -128¼	——	145¾-145½	——	151¾-151¾
Month..	133¾-160¾	152¾-173¾	139 -171¾	145¼-154¾	143¾-149¾	140¾-148¾	123¾-145	122¾-130¾	126¾-143¾	140¾-156¾	148 -154	148¾-152¾

DAILY HIGHEST AND LOWEST PRICES OF GOLD AT NEW YORK—1862-65—*Continued.*

1864.

Day of Month.	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.
1	*Holiday.*	157¼-157⅝	159 -160	166⅛-168¼	S.	.....	222 -250	251 -259	243 -246½	190 -193⅝	230 -241½	225½-229
2	151½-152	157¼-157⅜	159½-	166⅛-166¾	176 -177½	.....	230 -250	256 -258¾	248½-254¼	S.	229½-246	230¼-233¾
3	S.	157¾-158	160⅛-161	S.	177 -179¾	.....	S.	256½-258¾	236 -243½	189 -191¾	227¼-236¾	228¾-231
4	.....	158 -	160½-161¼	166¼-166¼	179½-179¼	.....	*Holiday.*	.....	S.	190 -192¼	231½-238½	S.
5	151½-151⅝	157¾-158¼	161½-161⅞	167⅛-167¾	177¼-177½	S.	235 -249	257½-261¼	235 -243¼	189½-191¼	235½-244¾	227 -229¾
6	151¾-	.....	S.	168¾-170½	174 -176¾	194 -	248 -261¼	259¼-261¾	240¾-242	192¼-197	S.	230 -234¾
7	151⅞-152¼	S.	161⅝-161¾	170½-171	172¾-172⅞	.....	262 -273	S.	240⅞-242¾	198 -204	238½-245¾	238½-243
8	151¾-152¼	158¾-159¼	162½-163¼	169¾-	S.	193 -198¼	266¾-276½	256¾-259¾	235¾-241	196¾-208¼	245¾-249¼	239 -242¾
9	.....	159¾-159¾	167 -167¾	169¾-	169¾-171	.....	260 -275	252½-255¾	234½-236	S.	246 -260	239¾-243½
10	S.	159¼-	164¾-	S.	168 -168¾	198½-198¾	S.	254¼-255¼	218 -228½	196 -199	243 -253	234½-239¼
11	153¾-153¾	159¾-159¾	164¼-164¾	.....	174¼-176¼	.....	276 -285	253¾-256¾	S.	198¾-203½	236¾-244¼	S.
12	153¾-154¼	159 -159¼	160¼-162	173¾-175	173 -174¼	S.	271 -282	255½-257½	215¾-225	202¼-204¾	242½-245	232¼-237¼
13	153¾-153¾	159¾-159¾	S.	175¾-175¾	170 -173¾	195¾-	268¾-273	254½-256¼	217¾-228	203⅞-209¾	S.	233¼-235¼
14	154¼-154¾	S.	160½-160¾	176 -177¼	172 -172¼	.....	258 -268	S.	223½-228	208 -217¾	243 -246½	233½-235½
15	155¼-155½	159¾-160¾	162¼-162¾	173¾-173¾	S.	197¾-	244 -256	255¾-256⅞	228¼-229¼	218¼-220	238¾-244	234½-237¾
16	155¾-156¼	160¼-161	161¾-162	171 -171¼	173½-173¾	197¼-	248¾-261¼	255⅛-256¾	224½-228	S.	228½-240	233¾-234¾
17	S.	159⅞-160	161⅛-161¾	S.	177 -178	196½-196⅞	S.	255¾-257	220¾-223½	218¼-222½	238¼-240	235½-231½
18	159¼-159¼	159⅝-	163 -	170¾-	181 -181¾	195¼-195½	254¼-261½	257 -258	S.	206¼-215	210 -219	S.
19	159¼-159½	158 -158¾	163 -	167 -168	181½-181½	S.	258½-268¾	257 -257½	223½-226¾	207½-211¼	216 -235½	212¾-217¼
20	158¼-158¾	159¼-159¼	S.	167 -167½	181 -	198 -198¼	261 -263¾	256½-257¾	223 -230¾	206¼-211¼	S.	220½-227
21	156¼-157	S.	.....	166½-167¾	181¾-	199 -208	256¼-260	S.	220 -229	207½-209	217¾-221¼	222¼-226
22	156¾-157½	159 -	.....	173½-174¾	S.	210 -220	250½-257¾	256⅞-257¼	216 -221¼	209½-218½	224 -229	221 -224¼
23	156 -156¾	157¼-157¾	164¼-165¾	174¾-177½	182¾-	205 -223	253¾-256	257½-258¾	211 -217	S.	230¼-238¼	220¼-223¾
24	S.	157¼-157¾	166¼-	S.	.....	213 -217	S.	254½-257	200 -212	212¼-216¾	*Thanksg'g*	220¾-222
25	157¾-157¾	158¼-158¾	*Good Friday*	179 -182¼	184¼-184¾	214 -220	255¾-258¾	254¾-255¾	S.	214¾-218¾	216¾-221¼	*Christmas.*
26	158 -158¾	157¾-158¾	169¼-169¾	181¼-184¾	183 -183¼	S.	257¾-259½	253¾-256	185 -198¼	212¾-217	219¼-224¾	*Holiday.*
27	157 -	157¾-158¾	S.	181 -181¼	186 -186¼	221 -240	254 -257¼	245 -253	192¼-195	214¾-216¾	S.	216 -218
28	157¼-157¼	S.	.....	177¾-180¼	186 -	234 -240	244 -252	S.	196 -205	215¼-217¾	220¼-223¼	216¼-224
29	156¾-157¾	159 -159¼	165¾-165½	.....	S.	235 -250	250 -253½	235½-245	194¾-202	217¾-221¼	222 -226¼	223 -226½
30	156¾-157¼	.....	163¾-164¼	179¼-180	.....	245 -250	253 -256	231¼-236	191 -194¼	S.	227¼-228	226 -229¼
31	S.	.....	164¼-	... .	190 -	.....	S.	234 -243	.....	221¼-227¾	.....	224¼-227¾
Months	151¼-159¾	157¼-161	159 -169¾	166¼-184¾	166 -190	193 -261	223 -285	231¼-261¾	191 -254¼	189 -227¾	210 -260	214 -243¾

DAILY HIGHEST AND LOWEST PRICES OF GOLD IN 1865—(to June 30.)

Day of Mo.	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.
1..	S.	202½-205⅝	199¾-201	151 -152¼	142⅝-145¼	*Lincoln Commemoration.*
2.....	*Holiday.*	203¾-206	196¾-198¾	S.	140¾-142¼	137½-138¾
3.....	226 -229¾	205¼-209¾	196¾-199	145¾-148	141¼-141⅞	136⅝-137
4.....	231 -234½	208⅝-214½	199 -200	146¾-148¾	142 -143⅞	S.
5.....	226¾-229½	S.	S.	148 -154½	142¾-143⅞	135¼-136¾
6.....	227 -228¼	212 -214½	198 -199½	150¼-152½	142¾-143⅝	136¼-137⅛
7.....	226¾-227½	212½-216¼	197½-199	147¾-150¼	S.	137 -137⅝
8.....	S.	210¾-213¾	195⅝-197¾	146¾-150¼	138¼-142	137¾-138
9.....	226½-227	211¼-214	193¾-196¾	S.	135¾-137¼	137½-138
10.....	222½-228⅞	210¼-211⅞	186¾-191¼	143¾-145⅝	131¼-135⅝	137⅜-137¾
11.....	220 -223¾	204⅝-209	188⅜-191⅜	146 -147	128¾-131⅝	S.
12.....	216½-219¾	S.	S.	145¼-146	130¾-133¼	138¼-141
13.....	218¼-222	205¾-207	185¾-191⅜	146 -147¾	129¼-130¾	140¾-143
14.....	217¾-221	207¼-208¾	177¾-185	*Good Friday. President assassinated. — Business suspended.*	S.	141⅝-143
15.....	S.	204¾-206½	174¼-178¾		129¾-130⅜	143¼-147⅝
16.....	218¼-221½	203 -205	170¾-176⅞	S.	130⅞-131¾	143¼-145¼
17.....	214¾-217	203¼-204¾	160 -169	148¾-153	129¾-131⅝	143¾-145¾
18.....	215 -217	204 -205½	163¼-166¼	146¼-147¾	129¾-131	S.
19.....	208 -214½	S.	S.	*Business suspended.*	130¾-131½	140 -143⅝
20.....	201¾-207¾	198¾-202¼	160¼-167⅞	*Do. do.*	130¼-131	137¾-139¾
21.....	197¾-206	196⅞-199¾	154⅝-159¼	147¼-149⅝	S.	139⅛-141⅞
22.....	S.	*Holiday.*	156 -159	149⅝-150½	130½-131¼	140½-141¾
23.....	197⅞-202¾	198¾-201¾	150¾-157	S.	131¼-132⅝	141⅝-142¼
24.....	197⅞-208¾	198⅞-200¼	148¾-152⅜	*Business suspended.*	135⅛-136	141⅝-142¾
25.....	204¼-207½	198 -199⅞	153¾-157⅞	*Do. do.*	136 -138⅝	S.
26.....	202 -207	S.	S.	150¾-152	135¾-138	140 -141⅝
27.....	208¾-215	199¼-201¾	153 -155¾	147⅞-149¾	135⅞-136⅞	141¼-142
28.....	213 -220	200¾-203½	153¾-154⅝	146¾-148	S.	139½-141¾
29.....	S.	.....	151 -152¾	146 -146½	136 -137	138¾-139¼
30.....	211 -214¼	.....	149⅝-151⅞	S.	137¼-138¾	139 -141¼
31.....	208 -211	.....	151¼-151⅞	.....	136½-137½	.....
Month...	197¾-234½	196½-216¾	148½-201	143¾-154½	128¾-145½	135¼-147⅞

COURSE OF GOLD IN JULY.

Table showing the daily fluctuations of Gold in the New York market during the month of July.

July, 1865.	Opening price.	Range Highest.	Range Lowest.	Closing price.	July, 1865.	Opening price.	Range Highest.	Range Lowest.	Closing price.
1 Saturday .	141	141	139⅜	140¼	17 Monday ..	142	143	142	142⅞
2 Sunday...	....	....	....	....	18 Tuesday ..	143	143⅜	143	143½
3 Monday ..	138⅜	140½	138⅜	140	19 Wednesday	143⅜	143⅜	142½	142⅜
4 Tuesday ..		(Holiday.)			20 Thursday .	142⅜	142⅜	142⅜	142⅜
5 Wednesday	140½	140⅜	139½	139½	21 Friday ...	142½	142⅝	142½	142⅜
6 Thursday..	139½	139⅞	139	139⅜	22 Saturday .	142⅜	142⅜	142½	142⅜
7 Friday ...	139½	139⅜	139½	139⅜	23 Sunday...	....	....	....	....
8 Saturday .	139⅜	140½	139⅜	140½	24 Monday ..	142⅜	143½	142⅜	143
9 Sunday...	....	....	....	....	25 Tuesday...	143	143½	143	143½
10 Monday ..	139½	140½	139½	139⅞	26 Wednesday	143½	143½	142⅞	143½
11 Tuesday ..	140	140	139⅜	139⅞	27 Thursday .	143½	145½	143½	145½
12 Wednesday	140⅜	142	140⅝	141½	28 Friday ...	145½	146½	141⅜	145½
13 Thursday .	142	142½	141⅞	142	29 Saturday .	145½	145½	143⅜	143⅞
14 Friday ...	143	143⅜	142½	142½	30 Sunday...	....	....	....	....
15 Saturday .	142½	142⅞	142	142⅜	31 Monday ..	143½	144½	143½	144
16 Sunday...	....	....	....	....					

RECAPITULATION.

STATEMENT EXHIBITING THE RANGE OF PRICE MONTHLY AND YEARLY.

Months.	1862.	1863.	1864.	1865.
January	101¾-108¾	133¾-160¾	151½-159¾	147¼-234½
February	102¾-104¾	152¾-112¾	157¾-161	194¾-216¾
March	141¾-102½	139 -171¾	159 -169¾	148¼-201
April	101¾-102¾	145¾-157¾	166¼-184¾	143¾-154½

Months.	1862.	1863.	1864.	1865.
May	102⅛-104⅛	143⅜-154⅜	168 -190	135⅜-145⅛
June	106⅛-109⅜	140⅜-148⅜	193 -251	134¼-147⅜
July	108⅜-120½	133¼-145	222 -265	138⅜-146¼
August	112⅛-114¼	129⅛-139⅜	231¼-261⅜	
September	116⅛-122	126⅞-149	191 -254½	
October	122 -133	140⅜-156⅜	189 -227⅛	
November	129 -133⅛	143⅜-154	210 -260	
December	126¼-134¼	148⅜-158	214 -242⅜	
Year	101⅜-134	123¼-173⅛	151¼-265	6 mos. 126⅜-134⅛

The following tables exhibits the amount of gold received from California and imported from foreign countries, the amount exported to foreign countries, and the amount paid for customs, all at the port of New York, for each month, for the years 1862, 1863, 1864, and to the end of June, 1865.

(1.)—GOLD RECEIVED FROM CALIFORNIA.

Months.	1862.	1863.	1864.	Six months 1865.
January	$2,199,582	$2,227,082	$939,201	$2,043,497
February	2,223,892	951,893	1,250,069	914,725
March	1,842,495	1,097,176	1,121,388	1,088,975
April	1,823,317	794,934	854,242	2,307,025
May	1,979,770	776,122	983,770	1,367,851
June	1,909,031	809,176	723,951	750,499
July	1,961,068	726,027	711,645	
August	2,070,198	881,113	1,241,155	
September	2,642,912	750,359	1,189,159	
October	2,317,261	1,082,899	855,378	
November	2,468,192	713,021	882,276	
December	1,577,948	857,686	2,205,619	
Year	$25,010,116	$13,207,290	$12,907,803	$8,942,513

(2.)—GOLD IMPORTED FROM FOREIGN COUNTRIES.

Months	1862.	1863.	1864.	Six months 1865.
January	$183,658	$101,906	$131,790	$52,268
February	62,007	213,971	88,159	106,704
March	89,327	123,616	104,437	243,262
April	26,159	107,061	235,814	235,488
May	110,398	197,217	680,092	177,495
June	61,423	109,997	148,721	248,722
July	219,001	182,345	198,458	
August	92,703	113,877	245,858	
September	121,818	78,231	58,220	
October	256,676	78,053	129,778	
November	109,708	103,144	161,697	
December	73,316	113,961	114,976	
Year	$1,390,277	$1,523,379	$2,265,532	$1,565,543

(3.)—GOLD EXPORED TO FOREIGN COUNTRIES.

Months	1862.	1863.	1864.	Six months 1865.
January	$3,658,274	$4,694,574	$5,459,079	$3,194,288
February	3,776,919	3,965,664	3,015,367	1,083,321
March	2,471,283	6,585,443	1,800,559	921,913
April	4,087,675	1,973,834	5,893,077	971,439
May	5,164,626	2,115,679	6,480,980	7,245,471
June	9,867,614	1,367,774	5,170,551	5,196,472
July	8,067,337	3,268,881	3,309,897	
August	3,718,533	5,465,261	1,001,014	
September	3,058,919	3,480,385	2,835,398	
October	6,707,519	6,210,156	2,496,221	
November	6,218,250	5,488,863	7,297,698	
December	3,673,113	5,259,053	6,108,377	
Year	$59,487,021	$49,754,056	$50,808,122	$17,905,944

(4.)—GOLD PAID FOR CUSTOMS DUTIES.

Months.	1862.	1863	1864.	Sixmonths 1865.
January	$2,351,657	$4,296,357	$6,179,561	$4,231,736
February	3,565,464	2,708,004	7,488,511	4,721,267
March	4,636,862	4,298,419	7,670,088	3,382,639
April	4,149,952	3,892,818	14,658,573	6,269,194

Months.	1862.	1863.	1864.	Six months 1865.
May	4,704,925	3,726,161	3,908,053	8,133,424
June	4,664,927	3,594,934	3,348,011	9,908,190
July	7,211,818	4,734,076	3,641,302	.....
August	4,763,583	6,028,569	6,272,002	.....
September	5,239,046	7,008,116	4,113,210	.....
October	4,309,420	6,206,704	3,697,335	.....
November	3,008,270	5,114,905	3,497,561	.....
December	2,664,594	5,271,991	3,467,368	.....
Year	$52,254,117	$56,942,454	$37,936,585	.....

THE UNITED STATES DEBT.

THE Treasury Department has just issued its statement of the public debt, dated July 31. We give below a very valuable classification of this statement, with the two previous ones, showing the total amount of each species of debt, as appeared from the books, Treasurer's returns, and requisitions on the Treasury Department at each date. Arranged in this form we readily see the nature and extent of the increase made:

DEBT BEARING INTEREST IN COIN.

Denominations.	March 31.	May 31.	July 31.
6 per cent, due Dec. 31, 1867	$9,415,250	$9,415,250	$9,415,250
6 do July 1, 1868	8,908,342	8,908,342	8,908,342
5 do Jan. 1, 1874	20,000,000	20,000,000	20,000,000
5 do Jan. 1, 1871	7,022,000	7,022,000	7,022,000
6 do Dec. 31, 1880	18,415,000	18,415,000	18,415,000
6 do June 30, 1881	50,000,000	50,000,000	50,000,000
6 do June 30, 1861, exchanged for 7.30s	139,146,400	139,155,650	139,546,450
6 do May 1, 1867-82 (5.20 years)	510,756,900	514,780,500	514,780,500
6 do Nov. 1, 1869-84 (5.20 years)	85,789,000	90,789,000	91,789,000
5 do March 1, 1874-1904 (10.40s)	172,770,100	172,770,100	172,770,100
5 do Jan. 1, 1865, (Texas Indemnity)	1,507,000	842,000	.....
6 do July 1, '81 (Oregon war)	1,016,000	1,016,000	1,016,000
7.30 do Aug. 19 & Oct. 1, 1864	615,250	.....	.....
6 do June 30, 1881	75,000,000	75,000,000	75,000,000
Aggregate of debt bearing coin interest	$1,100,361,242	$1,108,113,842	$1,108,662,142

DEBT BEARING INTEREST IN LAWFUL MONEY.

4 per cent Temporary Loan (10 days' notice)	$650,477	$650,477	$646,936
6 do do do	5,708,262	11,365,820	23,899,268
5 do do do	46,093,589	59,412,425	74,870,641
6 do Certificates (one year)	171,790,000	126,536,009	106,706,000
5 do One and two-years' notes	16,522,350	50,856,380	39,954,230
6 do Three years' comp. interest notes	156,477,650	175,143,690	212,121,470
6 do Thirty-year Bonds, (Union Pacific R.	.....	.....	1,258,000
7.30 do 3 years' Treas. Nts, 1st series	300,000,000	300,000,000	300,000,000
7.30 do do do 2d series	312,800	300,000,000	300,000,000
7.30 do do do 3d series	.....	29,511,650	230,000,000
Aggregate of debt bearing lawful money interest	$751,055,128	$1,053,476,371	$1,289,156,545

DEBT ON WHICH INTEREST HAS CEASED.

7.30 per cent Three-years' Notes	.....	$456,150	$358,550
5 do Texas Indemnity Bonds	.....	.....	339,000
Other bonds and notes	349,490	330,120	329,570
Aggregate of debt on which interest has ceased	$349,490	$786,270	$1,527,120

DEBT BEARING NO INTEREST.

United States Notes	$400,000,000	$400,000,000	$400,000,000
do do (in redemp. of the temp. loan)	33,160,569	33,160,569	33,160,569
Fractional Currency	24,254,094	24,667,404	25,750,032
Currency	$457,414,663	$457,827,973	$458,910,601
Uncalled for pay requisitions	114,256,549	40,150,000	15,736,000
Aggregate of debt bearing no interest	$571,671,212	$497,977,973	$474,646,601
Gold and lawful money in Treasury	56,481,925	25,148,702	116,739,632

RECAPITULATION.

Debt bearing interest in coin	$1,100,861,342	$1,108,113,842	$1,108,[illegible]
Debt bearing interest in lawful money	751,055,128	1,053,476,371	1,[illegible]
Debt on which interest has ceased	349,420	786,270	1,[illegible]
Debt bearing no interest (currency)	457,414,663	457,827,978	45[illegible]
Uncalled for requisitions	114,256,549	40,150,000	15,[illegible]
Aggregate debts of all kinds	$2,423,437,002	$2,660,354,456	$2,[illegible]
Cash in Treasury	56,481,925	25,148,702	11[illegible]

ANNUAL INTEREST PAYABLE ON DEBT.

Payable in gold	$64,016,632	$64,480,489	$64,[illegible]
Payable in lawful money	38,819,899	60,158,385	77,[illegible]
Aggregate amount of interest payable annually. —not including interest on the three years' compound interest notes, which is payable only at maturity.	$102,836,531	$124,638,874	$139,[illegible]

LEGAL TENDER NOTES IN CIRCULATION.

One and two years' 5 per cent notes	$69,522,350	$50,856,380	$30,[illegible]
United States Notes (currency)	433,160,569	433,160,569	433,[illegible]
Three years' 6 per cent compound int. notes	156,477,650	175,143,620	212,[illegible]
Aggregate Legal Tender Notes in circulation	$659,160,569	$659,160,569	$6[illegible]

COMMERCIAL LAW.—NO. 24.

THE LAW OF SHIPPING.

(Continued from page 43, vol. 53.)

CHARTER PARTIES.

THE owner may let his ship to others; and the written instrument by which this is done is called by an ancient name, the origin of which is not quite certain, a Charter-party. The form of this instrument varies considerably, because it must express the bargain between the parties, and this, of course, varies with circumstances and the pleasure of the parties. An agreement to make and receive a charter, though not itself equivalent to a charter, will, if the purposes of the proposed charter are carried into effect, be considered as evidence that such a charter was made and completed.

Generally, only the burden of the ship is let, the owner holding possession of her, finding and paying her master and crew and supplies and repairs, and navigating her as is agreed upon. Sometimes, however, the owner lets his ship as he might let a house; and the hirer takes possession, mans, navigates, supplies, and even repairs her.

In the latter case, bills of lading are not commonly given by the owner to the hirer; but if the hirer takes the goods of other shippers, bills of lading are given by him to them: but in the former, which we have said is much more common, bills of lading are usually given by the owner to the charterer (or hirer), as they are in the case of a general ship, for much the same purpose and with much the same effect.

There is no particular form for a charter-party, but in all our commercial cities blank forms are sold by mercantile stationers. A good form is given in the appendix. They should designate particularly the ship, the voyage, the master, and the parties; should describe the ship generally, and particularly as to her tonage or capacity; should designate especially what parts of the ship are let, and what parts, if any, are reserved to the owner, or to the master, to carry goods, or for the purpose of navigation; should describe the voyage, or the period of time for which the ship is

hired, with proper particularity; should set forth the lay-days, the demurrage, the obligation upon either party to man, navigate, supply, and repair the ship, and all other particulars of the bargin, for this is a written instrument of an important character, and cannot be *varied* by any external evidence. Finally, it should state, distinctly and precisely, how much is to be paid for the ship,—whether by ton, and if so, whether by ton of measurement or ton of capacity of carriage, or in one gross sum for the whole burden,—and when the money is payable, and how; that is, in what currency or at what exchange, especially if it be payable abroad. The charter party usually binds the ship and freight to the performance of the duties of the owner, and the cargo to the duties of the shipper. But the law-merchant would in almost all cases create this mutuality of obligation, if it were not expressed.

If the hirer takes the whole vessel, he may put the goods of other shippers on board (unless prevented by express stipulation); but whether he fills the whole ship or not, he pays for the whole; and what he pays for so much of the ship as is empty, is said to be paid for dead freight; and if the master brought back the cargo because it could not be disposed of, the owner of the cargo would pay freight for bringing it back, although the charter-party said nothing about a return cargo. The freight is calculated on the actual capacity of the ship, unless she is agreed to be of a specified tonage. If either party is deceived or defrauded by any statement in the charter-party, he has, of course, his remedy against the other party.

The question has arisen under charter parties, analogous to that under bills of lading, whether the lien of the ship-owner on the cargo, for freight, is lost by want of possession. Here, however, the owner seems to let the ship out of his hands, and not to be the carrier of the charterer. Hence, in England, there have been great doubts whether the technical defect of possession did not destroy this lien. Less weight is now given to this reason or objection than formerly, even there. In this country it seems to be settled that the owner, under any common charter-party, and especially if bills of lading are signed by his master, has this lien on the cargo for his freight. If, however, he lets his whole ship, giving up the possession entirely, and having nothing to do with the officers or men or navigotian, and of course not being a party through his master to the bills of lading, it would seem that there can be no sufficient ground for a lien. His contract with the hirer is then purely personal, and to him alone he looks for the payment of the money due, without any security on the goods.

If a charterer takes the goods of other shippers, payment by one of them to the master or owner is a good defence against the claim of the charterer against him, for so much as the charterer was bound to pay the owner, but no more. Thus, if A hires or charters a ship, and is to pay $10,000, and takes goods for B, for the freight of which B is to pay A $5,000, and A pays the owner in part, but owes him $3,000; now, if the owner demands of *B* the freight money, and B pays to the owner the $5,000 he owes A, he cannot charge A with more than the $3,000 due from A to the owner, but must pay A the balance of $2,000.

The voyage may be a double one; a voyage out, and then a voyage home; or a voyage to one port, and thence to another. The question

sometimes arises, whether any freight is payable if the ship arrives in safety out, and delivers her cargo there, and is lost on her return with the cargo that represents the cargo out. Of course, the parties may make what bargain they please, and the law respects it; but in the absence of an agreement on this point, the courts would generally consider each voyage, at the termination of which goods are delivered, as a voyage by itself, earning its own freight.

As time has become of the utmost importance in commercial transactions, both parties to this contract should be punctual, and cause no unnecessary delay; and for such delay the party injured would have his remedy against the party in fault. The charter-party usually provides for so many "lay-days," and for so much "demurrage." Lay-days, or working-days, are so many days which the charterer is allowed, without paying for them, or paying only a small price, for loading or unloading the vessel. These lay-days are counted from the arrival of the ship at her dock, wharf, or other place of discharge, and not from her arrival at her port of destination, unless otherwise agreed on by the parties. In the absence of any custom or bargain to the contrary, Sundays are computed in the calculation of lay-days at the port of discharge; but if the contract specifies "working lay-days," Sundays and holidays are excluded. If more time than the agreed lay-days is occupied, it must be paid for; and "demurrage" means what is thus paid. Usually the charterer agrees to pay so much demurrage a day. If he agrees only to pay demurrage, without specifying the sum, or if so many working-days are agreed on, and nothing more is said, it would, generally at least, be considered that the number of lay-days determined what was a reasonable and proper delay, and that for whatsoever was more than this the party in fault must pay a reasonable indemnity.

Courts in England have intimated, that, even if demurrage is agreed on at so much a day, it might be enlarged, on strong evidence that the sum agreed on did not give indemnity, or lessened, if it were clearly shown that it gave more than an indemnity. But we should doubt whether our courts would thus set aside the bargain of the parties, unless for reasons of great urgency. If, after the lay-days allowed for unlading have commenced, and of course after a safe arrival, but before the cargo is unladen, ship and cargo, or cargo alone, is lost, without the fault of the ship, of the owner, or of the master, the freight or charter-money is due, because that was earned by the safe arrival. Thus, in a case which occurred in New York, a vessel, whilst waiting to unload her cargo, was capsized by a freshet, and the greater part of her cargo lost. But freight was claimed and allowed for the whole, on the ground above stated.

If time be occupied in the repairs of the ship, which are made necessary without the fault of the owner or master, or of the ship itself, that is, if they do not arise from her original unseaworthiness, the charterer pays during this time. The charterer or hirer must not abandon the vessel while he can keep her afloat, and suitably provided for the employment and destination for which she is hired; and the owner must be ready to pay all expenses and damages necessarily incurred for the purpose. But the shipper will not be bound by the charter-party, to wait for the repair, unless the vessel can be repaired within a reasonable time.

Many cases have arisen where the ship was delayed by different causes,

and the question occurred, which party should pay for the time thus lost. On the whole, we should say that no delay arising from the elements, as from ice, or tide, or tempest, or from any act of government, or from any real disability of the consignee which, could not be imputed to his own act, or to his own wrongful neglect, would give rise to a claim on the charterer for demurrage.

Demurrage seems essentially due only for the fault or voluntary act of the charterer; but if he hires at so much on time, that is, by the day, week, or month, then, if the vessel be delayed by seizure, embargo, or capture, and the impediment is removed, and the ship completes her voyage, the charterer pays for the whole time. If she be condemned, or otherwise lost, this terminates the voyage and the contract.

The contract may be dissolved by the parties, by mutual consent, or against their consent by any circumstance that makes fulfilment of the contract illegal; as, for example, by a declaration of war on the part of the country to which the ship belongs, against that to which she was to go. So, either an embargo, or an act of non-intercourse, or a blockade of the port to which the ship was going, may either annul or suspend the contract of charter-party. And we should say they would be held to suspend only, if they were temporary in their terms, and did not require a delay which would be destructive of the purposes of the voyage.

In reference to all these points, it is to be understood, that, if the parties know or expect the circumstance when they make their bargain, and provide for it, any bargain they choose to make in relation to it would be enforced, unless it required one or other of the parties to do something prohibited by the law of nations, or the law of the country in which the parties resided, and to whose tribunals they must resort.

GENERAL AVERAGE.

Whichever of the three great mercantile interests—ship, freight, or cargo—is voluntarily lost or damaged for the benefit of the others, if the others receive benefit therefrom, they must contribute rateably to the loss. That is to say, such a loss is *averaged* upon all the interests and property which derive advantage from it. The phrase "general average" is used, because a loss of a part is thus divided among all the other parts, and is sustained by all in equal proportion. This rule is ancient and universal. We have no doubt whatever that it would be held to apply to all our inland navigation, whether of river or lake, steam or canvas.

The loss must be voluntary. Therefore, if the cargo be actually thrown over, and the ship saved thereby, or if the ship be actually cast ashore, and the goods saved thereby, yet if, in the first case, the cargo could not possibly have been saved, and if, in the second case, the ship could not possibly have been saved, there is no average. We distinguish this from the cases where *all* cannot possibly be saved, but something may be, if something else is sacrificed. Here there is no doubt that the thing lost by voluntary choice is to be paid for. This question has been much discussed; but we say that the loss must be *voluntary;* and if the peril of any one whole and specific thing is such that its safety is impossible, the destruction of it in a way to insure the safety of the rest is not such a *voluntary* loss or sacrifice as would give a claim for indemnity.

There have been many cases, and some conflict, respecting the volun-

tary stranding of a ship. But there ought to be no doubt whatever about the principle, whatever may be the difficulty of applying it in different cases. If the ship must be lost in that tempest, and only a place is selected favorable to the safety of life and cargo, there can be no average. But if the ship, although in imminent danger, may be saved, and a substantial chance of safety is voluntarily given up for the sake of the cargo, there must be an average. If a ship is accidentally stranded, and got off, and the voyage resumed, and ship, cargo, and freight saved, all must contribute to the expense of getting her off. So, if she be stranded near her port of destination, and the cargo be transported thither in lighters, this expense is a matter of average. So would be any sea damage sustained by the goods in the lighters.

The loss must not only be voluntary, but, what is indeed implied in its being voluntary, it must be for the purpose and with the intention of saving something else. And this intention must be carried into effect; for only the interest or property which is actually saved can be called on to contribute for that which was lost.

The reason of what has been said must be distinctly understood, because the whole law of general average rests upon it. It is simply this: if any man's property be destroyed for the benefit of his neighbors, they who are helped by his loss ought to make up his loss. The law supposes that all who are interested in the ship or the cargo, or any part of either, agree together beforehand, that, if a sacrifice of a part can save the rest, that sacrifice shall be made, without stopping to ask who it is that suffers in the first place; and that afterwards, if the sacrifice be beneficial to any for whom it was made, such persons shall bear their share of it, by contributions to him whose property was purposely destroyed for their good. And their contributions shall be in proportion to the value of the property saved for them by the sacrifice.

Any loss which comes within this reason is an average loss; as ransom paid to a captor or pirate; not so, however, if he take what he will, and leave the ship and the rest, for here is no contribution. So, cutting away bulwarks or the deck, to get at goods for jettison, is an average loss. So is a damage which, though not intended, is the direct effect and consequence of an act which was intended; as, where a mast is purposely cut away, and by reason of it water gets into the hold and damages a cargo of corn, this damage is as much a general average as the loss of the mast.

But if a ship makes all sail in a violent gale to escape a lee shore, and so saves ship and cargo, but carries away her spars, &c.; or if an armed ship fights a pirate or enemy, or beats him off at great loss; the first is a common sea risk, the second a common war risk, and neither of them is a ground for average contribution.

It is not considered prudent to lade goods on deck, because they are not only more liable to loss there, but hamper the vessel, and perhaps make her top-heavy, and increase the common danger for the whole ship and cargo. Therefore, by the general rule, if goods on deck are *jettisoned*, (which old mercantile word means cast overboard,) they are not to be contributed for. But there are some voyages on which there is a known and established usage to carry goods of a certain kind on deck. This justifies the carrying them there, and then the jettison of them would seem to entitle the owner to contribution.

The repairs of a ship are for the benefit of the ship itself. But if a ship be in a damaged condition, at a port where she canont be permanently repaired, and receive there a temporary repair, which enables her to proceed to another port where she may have a thorough repair, and thereby the voyage is saved, the cost of all of the first repair which was of no further use than to make the permanent repair possible, is to be contributed for by ship, freight, and cargo, because all these were saved by it.

If a ship put into a port for necessary repair, and receive it, and the voyage is by reason thereof successfully prosecuted, the wages and provisions of the crew, from the time of putting away for the port, the expense of loading and unloading, and every other necessary expense arising from this need of repair, seem, by the best authority to be an average. Nor do we, in this country, refuse an average for these expenses where the repair was made necessary by a common sea peril, and allow one only where the repair was required by a voluntary loss, as the cutting away of a mast, or the like, as they have seemed to do in England. But it looks now as if they were adopting our rule.

As to the expenses, wages, &c., during a capture, or a detention by embargo, it is not quite certain what the rule is. We should prefer to limit the claim for contribution to those expenses which were necessarily and successfully incurred in saving or liberating the property.

In regard to the rules or principles for estimating the contributory interests,—how, that is to say, the value of the ship, or of the freight, or of the cargo, is to be ascertained,—it is to be regretted that we have nothing like uniformity in the usages of different parts of this country. Perhaps this cannot be determined in any better way than by an arbitrary rule, or estimate; and there are many such rules in the law of insurance and shipping; and we believe it would be well if the rules applied by the courts in New York should be generally received. If any one place should have the right and authority of a commercial metropolis, it would seem to be that where the greater extent of commerce brings up such questions most frequently, and where the practical bearing of any rule is likely to be best illustrated. They are not however, absolutely uniform or well settled even there. In the courts of that State, the contributory value of the ship has been held in some cases to be her value at the commencement of the voyage, deducting one-fifth for supposed deterioration. But this rule never has been adopted in Massachusetts. And it seems not to have been applied in a late case in New York, in which the value at the port of departure, deducting the actual wear and tear, was held her contributory value. But in cases of jettison of goods, where the vessel arrives in safety, the rule adopted, both in England and generally in this country, seems to be, to take the value at the end of the voyage. Where masts, sails, or cables, or other parts of the equipment of a ship, are lost, one-third is deducted from the cost of the new articles, and the remainder is contributed for. The freight pending contributes, after deducting the expenses of earning it. But if only *pro rata* freight is earned, that only contributes. If no freight is eventually earned, there is no contribution on account of it. In Massachusetts, and generally in the United States, one-third is deducted from the gross freight for seamen's wages and other expenses. But in New York, the rule seems to be to deduct two-thirds. If a vessel is wrecked and the cargo transhipped, the contributory value of the freight is the excess of its

amount over the amount paid the other vessel. The cargo, if the vessel arrives at the port of destination, contributes its net value at that place. But if a jettison takes place, and the vessel returns to the port of departure, or some neighboring port, then the invoice price is to be taken, or the market value at that place.

In one case which occurred in Boston, a cargo of ice was shipped from Boston to Charleston, S. C. The vessel ran ashore on Cape Cod, the ice was thrown overboard to save her from destruction, and the voyage was broken up. As no freight was earned, no contribution was made on account of it. The value of the ice was taken as stated in the bill of lading, there being no invoice. The court said, if the goods had arrived at the port of destination in safety, the owner would have realised the price there. He suffers just so much loss as was caused by the jettison, which could be there accurately estimated. And the freight would then be brought into the contribution. But when, as in the case at bar, the voyage is broken up near the port of departure, and the vessel has not adopted an intermediate port as and for the port of destination, but has returned home, and the freight has not been saved by the jettison, the contribution to the general average loss should be between the ship and the cargo, upon the assumed value of the cargo at the port of departure. This, we think, furnishes an exact rule; whereas the adopting the value at the port of destination would, in such case, be uncertain,—depending upon matters of opinion instead of matters of certainty.

It is the master's duty to have an average adjustment made at the first port of delivery at which he arrives. And an adjustment made there, and especially if this be a foreign port, is generally held to be conclusive upon all parties. For the purpose of this rule, our States are foreign to each other; as they are indeed for most purposes under the Law of Admiralty, or the Law of Shipping. But a foreign adjustment might doubtless be set aside or corrected, for fraud or gross error; and our courts differ somewhat in the degree in which they regard it as conclusive.

It is universally admitted that the master has the right of refusing delivery of the goods, until the contribution due from them on general average is paid to him. That is, he cannot hold the whole cargo, if it belong to different consignees, until the whole average is paid; but he may hold all that belongs to each consignee, until all that is due from that consignee is paid. And in this country the doctrine has been carried so far, that the master may retain property belonging to the United States until the average contribution due upon it has been paid.

As the purpose of average and contribution is to divide the loss proportionably over all the property saved by it, the whole amount which any one loses is not made up to him, but only so much as will make his loss the same per centage as every other party suffers. Thus, if there be four shippers, and each has on board $5,000, and the ship is worth (for the purpose of the adjustment) $15,000, and the freight $5,000, and all the goods of one shipper are thrown over; now the whole contributing interest is $40,000, and the loss, which is $5,000, is one-eighth of this contributory interest. The shipper whose goods are jettisoned therefore loses one-eighth of his goods, and the remaining seven-eighths are made up to him, by each owner of property saved giving up one-eighth.

There are usually in every commercial place persons whose business it is

to make adjustments. As the losses usually consist of many items, some of which are general average and some rest on the different interests on which they fell, and as the contributory interests must all be enumerated, and the value of each ascertained, according to the general principles of law, qualified, perhaps, by the local law or usage of the port, and then the average struck on all these items, it is obvious that this must be a calculation requiring great care and skill; and as the adjustment affects materially persons who may not be present, but specially represented,—for all these reasons only those who are known to be competent to the work should be employed to make this adjustment. The name given to such persons in France is *depacheur*, and this name is frequently used in other countries; with us this work is generally done by insurance brokers.

COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW.

Appointment of a Provisional Governor to Florida—Mexican Canards—Exodus of negroes from Kentucky—Present Tax Laws in New England—The Greenback Currency—The Crops—Railroads reopened—Detroit Convention—The Privateer Shenandoah—Mexican Commercial Decree—The Produce Market—Movement of Dry Goods—Specie Movement—Course of Exchange—Prices of United States Paper—Treasury Sales of Gold—Course of Gold—Prices of Railway Shares, &c., &c.

Of those events, either directly or remotely, affecting the supply and demand of capital which we are called upon to chronicle and review this month, the principal ones are the appointment of a provisional Governor to the last of the insurgent States, the reports of Mexican complications, the exodus of negroes from some parts of the South, the recent tax laws enacted in New Hampshire and proposed in Connecticut, and the introduction of greenback currency into the South.

Of those which mediately or immediately affect the supply and demand of commodities, the most noteworthy are the state of the growing crops, the opening of railroad communication throughout the South, the proceedings of the Detroit Convention, and the ravages of the privateer Shenandoah.

Judge MARVIN has been appointed Provisional Governor of Florida, with the same power and duties as were attached by the President to the previous appointments in other States. This completes the whole series of appointments to the late insurgent States, and places them all in a condition to re-establish civil government within their respective boundaries.

Reports of Mexican complications have from time to time created brief sensations in financial circles. These reports mainly emanate from New Orleans, and are probably the offspring of the fertile imagination of some ingenious agitator, whose role is played to suit the operations of a clique of operators in New York. At one time a peremptory demand by the United States for some rebel arms is reported, coupled with threats of immediate war. At another an army of observation is on the Rio Grande composed of 100,000 United States troops. Then MAXMILIAN is about to abdicate, or he dare not leave the capital without a strong guard, so incensed are the population against him. Again, thirty thousand Americans are reported in Sonora or California, ready to pounce

upon Mexico and wipe out the Imperialists as soon as the United States Government gives them the signal. In short, every conceivable *canard* is circulated. The latest one came by way of Cairo, and had the effect of temporarily putting up the price of gold from 143¾ to 146¼. It was couched in the following language:

CINCINNATI, July 27, 1865.

A despatch from Cairo, dated the 26th inst., conveys the following warlike intelligence:

The Galveston correspondent of the Houston *News* writes under date of July 1 as follows —

Orders have been issued to the officials of Matamoros to prepare accoutrements for thirty-five thousand troops of the Empire, the troops to consist of French, Austrians, and Algerians.

The reason given for this collection of troops is because the United States has a similar number at Brownsville and adjacent points.

French officers assert that there is no reason why the United States should send an army of eighty or a hundred thousand men to Texas unless it was designed to make aggressive movements upon Mexico.

The spirit of the two armies is described as being exceedingly hostile, and there is no affiliation between our officers and those of the Empire.

The vexed question of Negro status seems likely, if left alone, to settle itself in a way most satisfactory to all concerned. The slave population of Kentucky are rapidly escaping into Southern Ohio and Indiana, from whence it is ridiculous to expect they ever will be returned. The result is, that labor is becoming scarce in Kentucky, and plentiful in Ohio and Indiana; and though the laboring population of the latter States are not over pleased with the fact, since they erroneously look at this increased and unlooked for supply of laboring element as detrimental to their own interests, yet in the end it cannot but prove beneficial to them. For if the immigrant negroes become industrious, they must add largely to the general welfare by cultivating the wild lands of those States; while, if they are idle, the consequences will scarcely injure anybody but themselves.

Now, if the individual States in the South are left free to determine for themselves the status of the freed negroes, they will legislate so as to keep them within their borders if they are desirable inhabitants; and if they are not, their legislation will tend to drive them to sections of the country where their value is better appreciated. Assuming that the negroes will from necessity become industrious wherever they are, it is evident that as capital always accompanies and co-operates with labor, then wherever the negro population is seen to flow there will capital flow also, unless a corresponding movement of white emigration occurs to maintain those industrial pursuits which the blacks will have deserted. Of this, there is as yet but little indication. Many laboring whites have undoubtedly of late removed to the Southern States, but this movement bears no comparison with the exodus of the blacks.

The Legislature of New Hampshire lately enacted a law taxing income derived from Government securities, and the Legislature of Connecticut now have a similar law under consideration. As such incomes are not taxed in the other States, these laws will probably have the effect of discouraging such investments within those States, and as long as such investments are declared superior to others by reason of their exemption from taxation, capital will tend to flow away from those States and seek investment at other places.

The apprehensions expressed in our June number that Northern capital would

not be likely to find its way very readily into the re-opened South, pending the settlement of the reconstruction and negro status questions are being fulfilled. The twenty thousand dollar exemption clause in the President's proclamation of amnesty not only keeps Southern capital tied up, but from the insecurity it engenders also frightens away Northern capital; while the constitutional limit to the term of confiscation (confining it to the lifetime of the attainted owners) makes persons chary of investing capital in such property. As to the increased field expected to be opened for the circulation of greenback currency, accounts from various parts of the South would tend to show that such is not the fact. In many parts of the South, United States currency is either wholly refused or passed at a heavy discount as compared to specie or local shinplasters; while in still more numerous places it has not been introduced, and consequently is not used at all.

Accounts of the crops from various parts of the country are still very conflicting. The local papers express grave apprehensions as to the effect of the late rains and thunder storms, and these fears appear to be seriously entertained among dealers on the Corn Exchange, the prices of flour and grain having steadily gone up during the month. The journals located at the interior grain shipping centres report otherwise though, and more than an average crop is predicted.

The reopening of rail roads throughout the South has been actively progressing. The following table exhibits their present condition:

From	To	Miles.	Remarks.
Augusta	Millen	53	Part destroyed; remainder of road destroyed.
Atlanta	West Point	83	Four miles yet unbuilt.
Goldsboro	Morehead City	95	In running order throughout.
Montgomery	Pollard	71	Trains run through every other day.
Columbian	Charlotte	109	No repairs in progress.
Charleston	Savannah	104	No trains running, but repairs in progress.
Florence	Cheraw	40	Repairs will be completed in August.
Macon	Savannah	191	Badly destroyed; repairs in progress.
Dalton	Knoxville	110	Trains running through.
Knoxville	Bristol	130	Do do.
Pollard	Pensacola	50	Repairs in progress.
Augusta	Atlanta	171	Road and branches in good order and running.
Chester	Yorkville	24	Badly damaged.
West Point	Montgomery	88	Running 47 miles; repairs in progress.
Columbus	Union Springs	40	In good order and trains running.
Mobile	Columbus, Ky.	283	In running order to Corinth, Miss.
Atlanta	Macon	101	Running through.
Memphis	Stevenson, Ala.	272	Running to a point near Corinth.
Columbus	Butler, Ga	59	Nearly repaired
Canton	Jackson	237	Running to Oxford; further repairs progressing.
Memphis	Granada	97	Thirty-eight miles running; further repairs progressing.
New Orleans	Canton	206	Running from Summit; repairing north from New Orleans.
Nashville	Chattanooga	153	In operation.
Charlotte	Goldsboro, N. C.	223	Do.
Charleston	Florence	102	Repairs in progress.
Raleigh	Weldon	97	In operation.
Kingston	Rome, Ga.	67	Not in operation.
Macon	Albany	106	Trains running.

From	To	Miles.	Remarks.
Augusta.....	Charleston	137	Running from Augusta to Johnston's Turnout, 27 miles; and Charleston to Orangeburg, 79 miles.
Augusta.....	Columbia.	130	Badly damaged.
Atlanta.....	Chattanooga...	138	Repairs will be completed in August.
Savannah.....	Thomasville ...	200	Eighty miles running; repairs progressing.
Charlotte	Lincolnton	34	In operation.
Wilmington.. .	Kingsville.....	171	Repairs will be completed in August.
Salisbury, N. C.	Morgantown...	50	Trains running through.
Quincy.... ...	Lake City.....	130	Do do.
Lake City.....	Jacksonville, Fla	60	Do do.
Fernandina	Cedar Keys....	21	No repairs in progress.
Greensboro, N.C.	Danville, Va ..	49	Trains running through.
Columbia	Greenville, S. C.	143	In bad order; some sections running.
Selma.....	Meridian, Miss..	100	Running through.
Selma.....	Blue Mountain.	112	Running to Talledega; repairs progressing.
Spartanburg...	Alston, S. C...	68	No repairs in progress.
Alexandria	Richmond, Va..	122	Trains running through.
Acquia Creek..	Richmond.....	75	Fifty-eight miles running; remainder progressing.
Petersburg.....	Lynchburg	123	Running, but interrupted at High Bridge and burnt bridge over the James river.
Petersburg.....	Weldon, N. C..	64	Repairs in progress.
Total.....		4,040	

The reopening of the these roads is now a matter of no little concern to the desolated South. They form the arteries and veins which will carry fresh capital and labor to the remotest parts of her industrial system, and bring back in return the fresh fruits of her genial climate, the exchange of which for other capital, will constitute that commerce which alone will form for her the source of her future wealth and regeneracy.

The Detroit Convention has proved a fiasco. Improvised Boards of Trade from every little manufacturing village in the country made up its numbers, and men of such a temper that they declared at the opening that unless the mode of representation adopted was such as squared with their views, they would secede and break up the meeting, became its exponents. The result was the passage of some half dozen resolutions, of doubtful meaning, and a hasty adjournment.

The privateer Shenandoah has been heard from in the Artic Sea capturing whalers in these piping days of peace. The most probable consequence of this news is a rapid rise in the price of whale oil, and a withdrawal of stocks previously thrown on the market. It is presumed that the Shenandoah will be captured by our cruisers before she will have done much more damage.

The following decree of the Emperor of Mexico is of interest to the commercial community:

SECRETARY OF THE TREASURY, SECTION 1, CIRCULAR NO. 26.

MEXICO, January 24, 1868.

Consuls and Vice-Consuls from the Empire of Mexico, having been already appointed and residing in the foreign countries, it appertains to them to legalize the invoices and manifests of merchandise forwarded to our ports, and also all documents required by the laws to be legalized. The agents appointed by the Administration of Don Benito Juarez will cease in their functions, as such Administration came to an end since the 31st of May, 1863.

Therefore I would direct you, by order of his Majesty the Emperor, to notify the

commerce of that city that hereafter all such above-stated documents must be indispensably legalized by the agents of the Empire. All invoices and manifests of vessels coming into the ports of said Empire, certified by the former agents whose appointments have not been renewed by the actual Administration, shall be considered of no value, and shall not produce any legal effect or evidence whatever.

All which I communicate to you so as to have the same duly published, hoping that when you will acknowledge the receipt of this order you will inform me the day that the publication has been made, in order to advise it to the Collectors of the Custom-houses on the seaports.

M. De Castillo,
Sub-Secretary of the Treasury.

To Luis De Arroyo, Consul,
Acting as Commercial Agent, New York.

During the early part of the month the rate for money was exceedingly depressed, some amounts having been invested as low as 2½ to 3 per cent on call. But since that time the market has steadily stiffened, and 6 to 7, principally the latter rate, is now the ruling figure. This abrupt and extraordinary change is due entirely to the operations of the treasury through the national banks.

The following comparative table of the prices of several leading articles of general merchandise will exhibit the present state of the markets:

	May 27.	June 28	July 28.
Ashes, pots, 1st sort.....	$7 25 a 7 62	7 87½ a 7 62½	a 7 50
Coffee, Rio, prime.....	a 23½	a 22	22 a ..
Cotton, N. O, mid.,.....	a 54	.. a 46	a 48
Flour, State, superfine.....	6 10 a 6 50	5 20 a 5 60	6 20 a 6 70
Hay, N. R. shipping.....	1 .. a 1 05	95 a 1 00	1 00 a 1 05
Nails, cut.....	5 75 a 6 ..	5 00 a 5 25	5 00 a
Petroleum,crude 40a47 gravity	. a 35	34½ a 35½	34 a 35
Pork, prime mess, new.....	17 00 a 18 00	18 50 a	26 00 a 2 70
Tobacco, Kentucky lugs.....	6 a 9	6 a 9	6 a 9
Leather, oak (Sl.) light.....	44 a 46	30 a 32	33 a 36
Lumber, spruce, Eastern.....	14 a 18	14 a 18	18 a 20
Corn, white Southern.....	0 80 a 0 90	85 a 95	nominal.
Wheat, white Genesee	2 00 a 2 20	1 75 a 1 90	18 5 a 2 15
Sheetings, brown, standard...	37	28 a 30	32 a 33

The following table show the import of Dry Goods at this port for the past month:

VALUE OF DRY GOODS ENTERED FOR CONSUMPTION IN JULY 1865.

	1864.	1865.
June 28.....	268,806	960,071
July 5.....	557,654	786,569
" 12.....	618,758	823,296
" 19.....	446,746	2,523,241
" 25.....	346,494	790,983
Total.....	2,227,938	5,885,060

WITHDRAWN FROM WAREHOUSE.

	1864.	1865.
June 28.....	$98,800	$314,619
July 8.....	98,444	303,094
" 12.....	498,823	371,147
" 19.....	425,777	778,706
" 26.....	309,615	703,417
Total	$1,441,459	$2,470,983

ENTERED FOR WAREHOUSING.

	1864.	1865.
June 28	$362,108	$435,018
July 5	1,145,107	511,874
" 12	844,639	417,533
" 19	1,039,345	848,618
" 26	362,108	435,018
Total	$5,155,229	$2,737,161

	1864.	1865.
Total entered for consumption	$2,227,938	$5,885,960
Add withdrawn from warehouse	1,441,459	2,470,983
Total thrown on the market	$3,669,397	$8,356,043
Total entered for warehousing	$5,155,229	$2,737,161
Add entered for consumption	2,227,938	5,885,960
Total entered at the port	$7,383,167	$8,622,221

SPECIE RECEIPTS, SHIPMENTS, &C.

	1864.		1865.			
	Received.	Exported.	Received from California.	Received Foreign.	Exported.	Gold in Bank.
Jan. 2	$254,239	$590,262	$1,148,650	.....	$594,253	$20,152,891
" 9	.....	1,216,204	383,519	$8,171	1,046,251	21,357,6[illegible]
" 16	279,801	1,985,057	511,088	25,517	329,833	20,211,[illegible]
" 23	365,608	1,000,000	.....	5,125	997,136	18,896,[illegible]
" 30	324,864	668,747	.....	12,605	.....	.....
Feb. 6	.....	662,616	650,413	19,962	478,777	19,682,[illegible]
" 13	863,198	1,219,806	265,322	16,739	370,753	20,297,[illegible]
" 20	.....	325,632	448,366	22,900	160,882	20,662,[illegible]
" 27	407,067	531,700	794,149	38,696	148,536	20,092,[illegible]
March 4	512,368	629,803	.....	48,317	33,393	19,830,[illegible]
" 11	.....	465,920	431,168	75,993	181,648	20,737,[illegible]
" 18	281,304	83,881	.....	55,221	106,157	22,256,[illegible]
" 25	375,101	273,900	.....	50,000	164,440	22,006,[illegible]
April 1	273,429	168,912	.....	20,978	79,606	20,584,[illegible]
" 8	302,344	345,471	1,477,647	60,769	400,735	20,045,[illegible]
" 15	269,522	1,002,384	632,524	31,945	188,900	19,532,[illegible]
" 22	.....	3,226,009	.....	71,229	83,922	19,122,[illegible]
" 29	282 376	1,271,836	60,676	.....	217,192	19,049,[illegible]
May 6	282,776	1,174,241	664,281	.....	587,848	20,088,[illegible]
" 13	.....	2,452,668	225,376	.....	649,885	23,563,[illegible]
" 20	383,428	1,884,195	367,993	.....	3,044,258	23,194,[illegible]
" 27	.....	580,820	.....	.....	2,079,215	23,063,[illegible]
June 3	271,801	1,425,588	.....	10,150	1,706,921	21,346,[illegible]
" 10	.....	1,543,600	570,210	155,678	2,070,203	18,460,[illegible]
" 17	291,208	1,886,663	.....	36,614	2,006,491	16,680,[illegible]
" 24	281,011	1,296,856	180,257	18,085	867,580	15,906,[illegible]
July 1	.....	560,677	.....	.....	156,678	16,854,[illegible]
" 8	301,207	486,339	793,175	.....	15,406	19,100,[illegible]
" 15	.....	301,244	.....	.....	261,846	20,500,[illegible]
" 22	249,095	556,464	299,629	.....	132,115	22,332,[illegible]
" 29	.....	.....	.....	.....	180,715	20,773,[illegible]
	$7,491,031	$30,612,993	$9,897,933			

The rates of exchange have ruled as follows:

RATES OF EXCHANGE IN GOLD.

	London, 60 days.	Paris, 60 days.	Amsterdam.	Frankfort.	Hamburg.	Berlin.
Jan. 7	108½ a 109⅛	5.18¾ a 5.15	41½ a 41⅝	41½ a 41½	36⅝ a 36½	72 a 72½
" 14	108½ a 109⅛	5.18¾ a 5.13¾	41½ a 41⅝	41 a 41½	36½ a 36⅝	72½ a 73⅛
" 21	108½ a 109⅛	5.18⅝ a 5.13⅝	41⅝ a 41⅝	41½ a 41½	36⅝ a 36⅝	73 a 72⅝

"	28	108¼	a 109⅛	5.20	a 5.13⅛	41	a 41⅛	41	a 41¼	36⅛	a 36⅛	72	a 72¼
Feb.	4	108	a 109⅛	5.21¼	a 5.15	41	a 41⅛	41	a 41⅛	36	a 36⅛	71⅛	a 72
"	11	108¼	a 109	5.23⅛	a 5.15	40⅞	a 41¼	40⅞	a 41¼	35⅞	a 36¼	71⅛	a 72¼
"	18	107	a 108⅛	5.27¼	a 5.20	40¼	a 41⅛	40¼	a 41	35⅛	a 36⅛	71¼	a 72
"	25	108	a 108¼	5.27¼	a 5.18⅛	40¼	a 40½	40¼	a 41	35⅛	a 36⅛	71¼	a 72
Mch.	4	108	a 108¼	5.2 ¼	a 5.21½	40⅛	a 41¼	40⅛	a 40⅞	36⅛	a 36¼	71¼	a 71⅛
"	11	107⅛	a 108¼	5.27¼	a 5.22¼	40¼	a 41¼	40¼	a 40⅛	35⅛	a 36¼	70⅛	a 71¼
"	18	109¼	a 109⅛	5.21¼	a 5.13⅛	41	a 41⅛	41	a 41⅛	36	a 36⅛	71¼	a 72
"	25	109	a 109¼	5.20	a 5.15	41	a 41⅛	40⅛	a 41¼	36	a 36¼	71¼	a 72
April	1	109¼	a 109⅛	5.20	a 5.15	40⅛	a 41¼	40⅛	a 41	36	a 36¼	71¼	a 71⅛
"	8	108⅛	a 109¼	5.22¼	a 5.15	40⅛	a 41¼	40¼	a 41¼	35⅛	a 36⅛	72¼	a 71⅛
"	15	108⅛	a 109¼	5.22¼	a 5.16⅛	40⅛	a 41¼	40⅛	a 41	35⅛	a 36⅛	72	a 71⅛
"	22	109¼	a 109⅛	5.20	a 5.12¼	41	a 41¼	40¼	a 41¼	36¼	a 36⅛	71¼	a 72¼
"	29	109	a 109¼	5.20	a 5.12¼	41	a 41¼	40¼	a 41¼	36	a 36⅛	71¼	a 72
May	5	108¼	a 109⅛	5.18⅛	a 5.13⅛	41¼	a 41⅛	41	a 41⅛	36¼	a 36¼	71⅛	a 72¼
"	12	108¼	a 109⅛	5.16¼	a 5.12¼	41¼	a 41⅛	41¼	a 41¼	36⅛	a 36¼	72¼	a 72⅛
"	19	108¼	a 109¼	5.17¼	a 5.12¼	41¼	a 41⅛	41	a 41⅛	36¼	a 36⅛	72	a 72⅛
"	26	108⅛	a 109⅛	5.16¼	a 5.12¼	41¼	a 41⅛	41¼	a 41¼	36⅛	a 36¼	72¼	a 72⅛
June	2	109	a 109¼	5.17¼	a 5.12¼	41¼	a 41⅛	41¼	a 41¼	36⅛	a 36¼	72¼	a 72⅛
"	9	109¼	a 110	5.15	a 5.11¼	41¼	a 41⅛	41¼	a 41¼	36¼	a 36⅛	72¼	a 72⅛
"	16	109	a 109⅛	5.17¼	a 5.11¼	41¼	a 41⅛	41¼	a 41⅛	36⅛	a 36¼	72	a 72¼
"	23	108⅛	a 109¼	5.18⅛	a 5 12¼	40⅛	a 41⅛	41	a 41⅛	36¼	a 36¼	71⅛	a 72¼
"	30	108	a 109	5.20	a 5.13¼	40¼	a 41¼	40⅛	a 41¼	35⅞	a 36¼	71¼	a 72¼
July	7	108	a 108⅛	5.22¼	a 5.16¼	40¼	a 41	40¼	a 40⅞	35⅛	a 36¼	71	a 71¼
"	14	109	a 109¼	5.16¼	a	40¼	a 40⅛	40¼	a 40⅛	35¼	a 36	71	a 71¼
"	21	108⅛	a 109	5.18⅛	a	40¼	a 40⅛	40¼	a 40⅛	35⅛	a 35⅞	70⅛	a 71¼
"	28	108⅛	a 109	5.18⅛	a 5 17¼	40¼	a 40⅛	40¼	a 40⅛	35⅛	a 37	70⅛	a 71⅛

Government bonds have ruled as follows :

PRICES OF UNITED STATES PAPER.

	6's, 1881.		5-20's.				
	Reg.	Coup.	Reg.	Coup.	10-40's.	1 year certif.	Gold price.
Jan. 7,....	111¼	111½	100	109	102	96⅛	227 a 227¼
" 14,....	112¼	112½	102	110	102⅛	98	217⅛ a 221
" 21,....	111	110	99	108⅛	101½	97¼	197½ a 206
" 28,....	110½	109½	98⅛	108⅞	100¾	98	218⅛ a 220
Feb. 4,....	109⅛	109½	99¼	109½	101½	97⅞	209 a 214¼
" 11,....	110⅛	110⅛	102	109¾	102⅛	98⅛	204⅛ a 209
" 18,....	111¼	111½	103	111⅛	102⅛	98⅛	204 a 205⅛
" 25,....	111½	111	102	111¼	102¼	98⅛	198¼ a 199¼
March 1....	111	110⅛	105	110¼	102⅛	98¼	199¼ a 200¼
" 8,....	111	111¼	....	110⅛	97⅛	98¼	196⅛ a 197⅛
" 15,....	110	110	100	109⅛	97	98¼	174½ a 177⅛
" 22,....	105	105	....	105	91¼	97	156½ a 158¼
" 29,....	105	105	....	105	91¼	97	151½ a 152¼
April 5,....	106¼	....	104⅛	107¼	92	98	148 a 158⅛
" 12,....	107¼	107¼	102½	108⅛	93¼	98⅛	145¼ a 146½
" 19,....	....	....	...	....	...	...	No quotations.
" 26,....	109	108¾	102½	108¼	97	99½	147⅛ a 149
May 3,....	110¼	110	105	105⅛	97	..	141¼ a 141¾
" 10,....	110⅛	110	105	105⅛	96¼	99¼	131½ a 135⅛
" 17,....	109⅛	109	103	103¾	95	99	129⅛ a 131⅛
" 24,....	110	109¼	103⅛	103⅛	95	99½	132½ a 135¼
" 31,....	....	....	103	102⅛	94¾	99½	136⅛ a 137⅛
June 7,....	105⅛	....	103½	103⅛	95⅛	...	136¾ a 137¼
" 14,....	....	109¼	102⅛	102¾	96⅛	99½	141½ a 142½
" 21,....	110	110¼	103	103¼	...	...	139⅛ a 142
" 28,....	110½	110¼	103¼	103¼	97¼	99¾	139¼ a 141
July 5,....	110¼	110¼	104	105	97⅛	99⅜	139⅛ a 140⅛
" 12,....	107½	107⅛	105	105⅛	97⅛	99⅜	140⅛ a 142
" 19,....	107½	107⅛	104½	105	97	99⅜	142½ a 143⅛
" 26,....	107	107½	105	105½	97	78	143½ a 143⅝

On the 27th, the date of the reception of the Cairo sensation dispatch above alluded to, the price for a short time tended as high as 146¾ to ¾, but quickly receded to the figure at which the government is currently reported to have been been steadily selling it, viz.: 143 to 143¼.

The following table indicates a decided improvement in railway shares since the last month:

PRICES OF RAILWAY SHARES.

	April 3.	April 27.	May 29.	June 22.	July 24.
New York Central	101½	103	89	93½	96½
Hudson River	107	115½	97	106	...
Erie	69½	85½	72½	77	95
Reading	...	110⅜	91½	95½	106
Mich. So. and N. I.	62	74	58	60½	64½
Illinois Central	112½	117½	117	128	...
Cleveland and Pittsburg	74	83½	61	67½	71⅝
Chicago and N. W.	81½	84	21⅛	25	27½
Chicago and R. I.	96⅝	105	93½	98½	105½
Fort Wayne	93½	103	92⅝	96	97½

The prices of these securities seem to be gradually approximating the position they held in April last.

JOURNAL OF BANKING, CURRENCY, AND FINANCE.

Non-publication of the official tables of debt and currency—Grave apprehensions excited—Reasons for concealment—The Bank Committee and its labors—Taxing savings bank deposits—Other revenue decisions—Letter of the Comptroller of the Currency on the Proceedings of the New England Legislatures—The money wanted—Extraordinary fluctuations—The rates of interest on discounted paper—Returns of the New York city banks—Returns of the banks of Philadelphia—Circulation of national banks—The Bank of England—The Bank of France, etc., etc.

With the 31st of July we have another statement of the public debt far more favorable than was anticipated. We give this statement, with the two previous ones carefully analyzed, in this number. It is unfortunate that the Department does not see fit to give the figures each month, as required by law, since the fact that the report is kept back is always looked upon with suspicion, and does more harm than the facts themselves could do. Mr. Gladstone, Chancellor of the British Exchequer, this year presented his report of the fiscal year within ten *days* after it expired; and not only was it more explicit and more correct than our Treasury reports have been of late years, but more voluminous—so that we would appear to be beaten by the British in everything appertaining to the efficiency of public servants.

Our people are so patient and trusting that, though experience has repeatedly shown that public officers are in general no more honest than other people, yet they are willing to believe anything rather than that this extraordinary reticence is made intentionally or unintentionally to subserve private purposes. But it is impossible for an intelligent observer of the financial condition of the country to rest upon any other opinion in the matter. It is altogether beyond belief that the public credit is not injured by this concealment. The business of a nation must be judged by precisely the same criterion as the business of a private individual and who will say that a man whose transactions are above board, and whose re-

sources are held to be plentiful, would not vastly injure his credit by sedulously concealing the state of his affairs from his creditors? By every rule of mercantile law, an honest debtor is expected to be always ready to show his books. And why is not the government, which not only borrows from the people every day, but, through the power it possesses of controlling the gold market and opening or closing the avenues of public information whenever it pleases, borrows by force, to be judged by the same standard?

The business of banking is now settling itself down entirely to the study of the National Banking Law, for sooner or later the coercive means employed will drive every bank in the country to adopt that system. A specie-paying bank, receiving only specie on deposit and discounting in specie, is wanted in some circles, but we hardly think such an institution will ever be established in this community. People like to speculate in gold, and those who require it for business purposes would far prefer to buy and sell it as occasions offer than to patronize an institution which will receive it and supply it always at a fair currency. As for specie payments, we do not look for them for a long while to come, and nobody but the great body of consumers (*i. e.* those who consume the most in proportion to what they earn) appears to be very anxious for them.

The bank committee of thirteen, which some weeks since met to adopt a plan for the par redemption of country national banks in New York, Boston and Philadelphia, but adjourned without coming to any agreement, have, it is reported, at length arrived at an understanding upon the subject. The banks of the cities mentioned will, it is said, make their daily settlements as hitherto through their respective clearing houses, paying the balances against them in legal tender notes, but they will include in their returns the notes of the country banks. These last will be redeemable at each of the three financial centres, according to the section of the country to which they belong. Thus the notes of the country banks of New England will be redeemable at Boston, those of the Western and Central States at New York, and those of Pennsylvania and the South at Philadelphia, according to the specified arrangement. But the consent of all the country banks has not yet been obtained, and some of these will doubtless refuse their assent to it, for it involves the necessity of each of the country banks enjoying the privilege of a central place of redemption, having a balance to its credit at that point against which their bills will be charged after the manner of ordinary checks. Not a few of the small banks will probably think it preferable to allow their notes to be at a discount at the financial centres to being required to keep a balance to their credit at New York, Boston and Philadelphia, which would be all but useless to them in general business.

It is urged by the committee, as one of the articles of agreement, that the associated banks of the three cities pay out only their own and other current notes and Treasury notes in payment of checks, and that they refuse to receive from their correspondents the notes of banks which refuse to join in the redemption plan, although they cannot decline them in payment of promissory notes and from regular customers and deposits.

The fact of such a scheme being deemed necessary shows that national bank notes cannot be entirely divested of their local character, and that their value will be to some extent exposed to the same fluctuations and contingencies which

has attended those issued under the old State system. Country banks will have to submit to the loss of interest on a permanent deposit in order to keep their notes at par, in default of which they will see them at a discount, and thus a new and insidious form of depreciation will be superadded to that which affects the currency at large.

The following official letter has been addressed to the U. S. Assessor at Providence, R. I. It determines—at least for the present—that certain savings banks may count their deposits as capital, and thus escape a part of their taxes:

TREASURY DEPARTMENT,
OFFICE OF INTERNAL REVENUE,
WASHINGTON, July 12, 1865.

SIR: In reply to your inquiry of the 7th instant relative to returns of savings banks, I have to say that it has been decided that the deposits of a savings bank having no capital stock may be so far regarded as capital as to allow the deduction of the amount of such deposits invested in United States bonds.

The surplus fund should also be regarded as capital, and added to the amount of deposits from which the amount of bonds is subtracted.

Only such government securities as are set forth in Decision No. 140 are considered United States bonds. You will observe the seven-thirty notes and certificates of indebtedness are not included.

Very respectfully,
E. A. ROLLINS, Deputy Commissioner.

THOMAS G. TURNER, Esq., U. S. Assessor, Providence, R. I.

The Commissioner of Internal Revenue has rendered the following decision:

"Banks, in making returns of dividends and taxable gains, should include the amount of income derived from investments in bank, insurance and railroad stocks, although such may have previously paid tax as a dividend. The tax imposed upon circulation and deposits of banks, constitutes an indebtedness by such banks, which continues to accrue so long as the prescribed conditions exist. While, therefore, any portion of the circulation exceeding five per cent. of the chartered or declared capital is outstanding, or any of the deposits remain in the custody of the bank or its agents, the liability to make returns and pay tax thereon will continue."

The Comptroller of the Currency has addressed the folowing letter to a Connecticut bank officer in relation to the action of the Legislature of that State in taxing Government securities:

OFFICE OF COMPTROLLER OF THE CURRENCY,
WASHINGTON, July 22, 1865.

DEAR SIR: Your letter of the 14th instant to the Secretary of the Treasury has this day bren referred to me, with the request than I should answer it.

I cannot but express my surprise that the Legislature of the State of Connecticut should entertain a proposition to virtually confiscate a portion of the Government securities held by inhabitants of that State.

The law exempting from taxation Government securities is so specific and clear that it cannot be questioned. The bonds were disposed of, and purchased with the provision of law, as a part of the contract, that they were to be exempt from taxation, and the country has received an equivalent for such exemption in the additional price received for the bonds.

Can any one believe that the obligations of the government would have sold for anything like the price realized, or at any price at all commensurate with their value, if it had been supposed possible that they could be taxed by State laws, directly or indirectly? If your Legislature can impose a tax of fifteen per centum on the income derived from government securities, it is just as competent for it to impose a tax of fifty or one hundred per cent.

It is a source of regret that any Northern State should for a single moment countenance an attempt to repudiate or nullify a constitutional act of Congress, and one, too, that was deemed necessary to preserve the integrity of the nation. In one aspect of the case, however, it may be regarded as a most fortunate occurrence, as it will

serve to show the people that it will not be safe for the government to allow the Southern States to be so reconstructed as to permit their being represented in Congress as a unit, as they would be, by men who would be but too willing to unite with Northern men of the character of those favoring the measure under consideration, to repudiate the national debt, if not by direct action, by an an equally destructive want of action in providing the means of payment. I am glad to hear, and the whole country have reason to rejoice, that the Finance Committee of your State Senate stands opposed to this insiduous measure. The effect of the proposed tax would be to reduce the value of government securities in hands of the people of your State fifteen per cent, provided there was an assurance that no further exaction would be imposed, but without such assurance would reduce the market value much more, as the next or any subsequent Legislature could increase the tax to the extent of destroying their productive value entirely. The State of New Hampshire has passed a law imposing a tax of twenty-five per cent on the income derived from national securities.

If this action was confined to the two States the result would simply be to deprive the people of New Hampshire and Connecticut of the privilege of holding or owning government securities. It is very clear that the States would not get the tax, as the owners would sell their securities to parties out of the States, or go out themselves with the securities.

If, however, other Northern States should follow their example, and it should be conceded that they had the right to do so, the credit of the government and of the national currency would be practically destroyed.

This, perhaps, is the object of the confederacy in this suicidal scheme. I think I am justified in saying that there is not the least danger of the proposed act, if it should become a law, being sustained by the Supreme Court of the United States.

It is perhaps proper that I should say that the Secretary of the Treasury concurs in my views as to the right of the States to tax United States securities, but is otherwise ignorant of the contents of this letter.

Referring to the proposed act to tax the stock owned by individuals in national banks, I am clearly of opinion that such stock represented by capital invested in whole or in part in United States securities, is liable to State taxation only on the amount not so invested, and enclose herewith a printed slip, containing a letter written by E. G. Spaulding, of New York, and one written by myself, both concurring in the views I have stated on the subject. Yours, very respectfully,

FREEMAN CLARKE,

JOHN L. BUNCE, President Phœnix National Bank, Hartford, Conn.

The money market during the past month has exhibited the most extraordinary changes, and unattended too by any marked effects. During the early part of the month money on call was freely offered at 2½ to 3 per cent; considerable amounts were sent to the West for the purchase of the wool crop, and some to the South for cotton. The Sub-treasury withdrew some ten millions on temporary deposit with the National Banks. The rate subsequently rose to four per cent, though the banks continued to have a large surplus of unemployed money. It then fell again to 3, though the exceptions at 4 and 5 were numerous. Increasing transactions at the Stock Exchange, and further withdrawals of government deposits for the payment of troops, and other operations soon raised the interest to 6 per cent. This again rose to 7, but the return of the money paid out by the government, induced greater ease towards the end of the month, and the market closes at 6 with exceptions at 5 and 7 per cent.

Thus, during the brief career of a single month, the market value of loanable capital has increased from 2½ to 7 per cent, and again fallen to 6 per cent without any remarkable changes in the course of business. Such rapid fluctuations, due entirely to government operations, though not productive, so far of any harmful results, cannot fail, eventually, to seriously embarrass mercan-

tile affairs. None but those who are in the confidence of government officers can look ahead with any degree of certainty as to the probable rate of interest.

The following table gives the market rate of interest during the past month:

Loans.	July 8.	July 15.	July 22.	July 29
Loans on call, stock securities.....	3 a 5	5 a 6	— a 6	6 a 7
do bond and mortgage .	6 a 7	6 a 7	6 a 7	6 a 7
Prime indorsed bills, 60 days.....	6 a 7	6 a 7	6½ a 7	6½ a 7
do 3 to 4 months .	6½ a 7½	6½ a 7½	7 a 8	7 a 8
First class single names.....	7 a 8	7 a 8	7½ a 8½	7½ a 8½
Other good notes.....	8 a 9	8 a 9	8 a 10	8 a 10

The following are the returns of the New York City Banks:

NEW YORK CITY BANKS.

(*Capital, Jan.*, 1864, $69,494,577; *Jan.*, 1865, $69,658,787; *April*, $76,658,787.)

Date.	Loans.	Specie.	Legal tender.	Circulation.	Net Deposits.	Clearings.
Dec. 24,	$203,512,093	$20,600,441	$.....	$3,383,346	$153,805,909	$593,334,137
" 31,	199,444,969	19,662,211	.....	3,283,832	147,442,071	471,039,253
Jan. 7,	195,044,687	20,152,892	.....	3,183,526	147,821,891	535,065,671
" 14,	189,686,750	21,357,608	.....	3,074,029	148,931,299	538,780,682
" 21,	187,060,586	20,211,569	.....	2,979,851	146,068,355	611,194,907
" 28,	169,502,630	18,174,316	.....	2,906,194	143,842,230	656,828,373
Feb. 4,	185,639,790	19,682,308	.....	2,868,646	152,703,316	663,814,434
" 11,	185,515,904	20,297,346	.....	2,821,996	156,711,166	584,179,409
" 18,	186,365,126	20,682,319	.....	2,855,982	156,150,634	518,805,228
" 25,	183,534,735	20,092,378	.....	2,739,383	153,948,481	481,028,121
Mar. 4,	186,569,665	19,530,183	.....	2,720,666	153,009,588	511,361,357
" 11,	188,120,890	20,737,838	26,713,408	2,741,684	152,134,448	412,302,453
" 18,	211,486,651	22,256,596	33,645,014	4,662,505	174,479,367	635,736,233
" 25,	207,677,503	22,066,524	35,295,156	4,457,162	166,965,508	604,796,725
Apr. 1,	204,458,355	20,584,668	42,989,382	4,888,980	173,350,491	509,148,691
" 8,	204,153,339	20,045,976	46,424,957	4,778,528	174,850,185	483,653,634
" 15,	206,508,095	19,533,734	51,061,462	4,757,862	177,815,945	427,761,675
" 22,	204,723,195	19,122,288	57,954,937	4,700,210	184,244,399	272,740,215
" 29,	204,277,573	19,049,913	66,096,274	4,660,659	196,188,733	359,950,814
May 6,	213,172,277	20,088,399	66,258,849	4,886,937	200,466,735	503,899,215
" 13,	218,502,980	23,553,231	61,052,587	4,889,562	203,369,886	511,914,441
" 20,	219,810,780	23,194,402	55,625,517	5,032,944	203,854,725	510,767,355
" 27,	212,445,121	23,063,929	54,524,078	5,068,693	197,081,017	429,221,799
June 3,	210,417,543	21,846,493	51,065,440	5,323,082	186,935,680	389,049,879
" 10,	208,392,685	18,460,620	56,201,836	5,402,778	185,509,953	420,542,766
" 17,	203,944,311	16,680,877	62,567,344	5,647,944	189,947,334	542,070,189
" 24,	213,590,280	15,906 314	58,560,589	5,789,070	187,508,936	519 448,415
July 1,	216,585,421	16,854,990	60,904,454	5,818,445	191,656,773	473,720,318
" 8,	218,541,975	19,100,590	62,519,708	9,001,774	198,199,005	575,504,141
" 15,	221,285,052	20.400,441	60,054,646	6.250,945	200,420,283	550,959,312
" 22,	222,960,205	22.342,903	52,756,229	6.589,766	193,790,096	517,174 930
" 29,	222,341,766	20,773,115	46,956,782	7,035,454	186,766,671	494,354,139

The circulation which, under the prescribed State system, had fallen to $2,741,684 on the 11th of March, suddenly rose to $4,662,555 on the 18th March under the National system, and, since that time, with little variation, it has steadily continued to increase, until it now amounts to nearly seven millions.

The recent changes in the other lines are mostly the result of Treasury operations, the increase in loans, however, being, to some extent, the result of ordinary business operations. But as indications of the course of commerce the bank returns of this city are be no means so valuable as they once were.

The following are the returns of the Philadelphia Banks:

PHILADELPHIA BANKS.

(*Capital, Jan.*, 1863, $11,740,080; 1865, $13,815,720; *Feb.*, 1865, $14,485,450.)

Date. 1856.	Loans.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Legal tenders.
Jan. 2,...	$48,059,403	$1,803,583	$2,798,463	$39,845,963	$14,524,175
" 9,...	49,250,629	1,781,108	2,978,035	41,001,803	15,297,223
" 16,...	49,833,799	1,750,669	3,228,785	43,121,208	17 003,905
" 23,...	49,755,716	1,792,891	3,606,051	40,186,513	15,939,598
" 30,...	50,056,584	1,773,266	4,010,192	39,822,860	15,572,893
Feb. 6;...	50,269,473	1,702,776	4,393,173	38,496,337	14,000,852
" 13,...	49,511,483	1,629,957	4,660,697	37,340,531	14,295,547
" 20,...	48,639,386	1,569,223	4,866,771	37,141,900	13,922,954
" 27,...	48,992,272	1,498,644	5,077,436	39,011,100	15,398,502
Mar. 6,...	49,228,540	1,389,264	5,446,021	38,391,622	15,200,287
" 13,...	49,297,223	1,422,736	5,906,791	38,655,908	15,487,835
" 20,...	48,976,280	1,323,274	5,609,276	38,673,804	15,796,783
" 27,...	50,255,294	1,350,968	5,786,660	39,117,258	16,866,146
April 4,...	50,268,729	1,344,223	5,898,626	38,816,847	17,087,645
" 11,...	50,225,821	1,249,282	6,133,897	39,366,445	17,312,697
" 17,...	50,810,519	1,236,333	6,232,343	41,187,764	17,991,294
" 24,...	50,819,031	1,223,798	6,213,889	42,591,060	19,188,676
May 1,...	51,726,389	1,262,258	6,441,407	44,794,824	.....
" 8,...	51,172,347	1,297,558	6,430,742	45,158,284	19,576,916
" 16,...	52,678,146	1,286,404	6,447,961	47,695,971	20,300,826
" 23,...	52,978,259	1,264,618	6,585,003	44,831,378	20,919,610
" 30,...					
June 5,...	53,095,683	1,258,782	6,717,753	41,518,576	19,000,000
" 12,...					
" 19,...	50,449,649	1,216,293	6,688,488	39,127,801	19,570,094
" 26,...	50,369,800	1,208,852	6,790,444	39,607,041	19,445,055
July 3,...	50,449,649	1,216,243	6,888,488	39,127,801	.....
" 10,...	50,188,778	1,187,700	6,758,585	41,344,056	....
" 17,...	50,221,528	1,152,911	6,821,938	43,966,927	.....
" 24,...	52,454,760	1,154,537	6,886,449	46,166,928	19,413,364
" 31,...	53,877,799	1,158,070	6,941,625	49,121,554	21,328,422

The following table exhibits the aggregate National Bank circulation:

NATIONAL BANKS.

Number, capital, and circulation quarterly to the end of 1864, and periodically to date in 1865.

Date.	Banks.	Capital.	Circulation.
October, 1863	94	$7,154,715	.....
January, 1864	137	14,523,721	$29,155
April, 1864	357	42,204,474	12,144,650
July, 1864	469	75,213,945	25,825,665
October, 1864	524	89,339,400	51,894,150
January, 1865	681	143,641,400	76,809,890
January 7, 1865	685	145,524,560	78,724,520
" 21,	786	169,099,296	83,058,200
February 4,	782	179,121,296	87,288,300
" 18,	815	186,041,726	93,666,380
March 4,	855	192,049,736	99,825,600
" 18,	908	202,944,486	104,750,540
April 1,	973	225,246,300	111,634,670
" 8,	993	232,064,150	114,524,000
" 22,	1,041	246,054,170	119,961,800
May 6,	1,116	264,954,170	126,360,830
" 13,	1,130	276,167,470	128,759,020
" 20,	1,172	281,868,820	130,680,170
" 27,	1,185	284,409,120	132,472,690
June 8,	1,212	293,971,020	135,607,060
" 10,	1,251	299,343,520	137,772,705

June	17,	1,297	310,295,891	140,797,756	
"	24,	1,334	320,924,601	143,064,875	
July	1,	1,378	340,938,000	146,927,975	
"	8,	1,410	356,230,986	149,093,605	
"	15,	1,447	364,020,756	154,120,015	
"	22,	1,481	372,636,756	157,907,645	

In two years time under the fostering care of the law this system will have increased its capital from $7,184,715 to $500,000,000, and its circulation from nothing to the full limit allowed in the act to which it owes its origin.

The following are the returns of the Bank of England:

THE BANK OF ENGLAND RETURNS (IN POUNDS STERLING).

Date. 1865.	Circulation.	Public Deposits.	Private Deposits.	Securities.	Coin and Bullion.	Rate of Discount
Dec. 7,...	20,118,116	6,468,544	12,666,764	28,726,674	13,840,691	7 per ct.
" 14,...	19,669,832	7,161,719	12,267,474	28,301,608	14,122,711	6 "
" 21,...	19,669,007	7,694,816	12,927,807	29,326,027	14,307,760	6 "
" 28,...	19,810,455	8,601,125	13,040,643	30,708,083	14,100,974	6 "
Jan. 4,...	21,007,215	8,500,269	13,874,977	32,832,904	13,937,592	6 "
" 11,...	21,012,778	4,445,535	16,174,166	30,957,880	14,097,390	5½ "
" 18,...	21,223,548	4,186,614	14,658,015	29,292,273	14,168,227	5½ "
" 25,...	20,614,794	4,836,799	14,553,933	29,173,458	14,317,215	5 "
Feb. 1,...	20,998,478	5,541,452	14,447,994	30,040,983	14,461,224	5 "
" 8,...	20,743,805	6,252,892	13,814,063	29,908,102	14,511,611	5 "
" 15,...	20,399,763	6,572,512	13,969,659	30,007,199	14,553,871	5 "
" 22,...	20,101,978	6,665,364	14,140,885	29,910,491	14,600,233	4½ "
Mar. 1,...	20,381,080	6,854,409	14,158,331	30,424,108	14,801,267	4½ "
" 8,...	20,281,455	7,677,728	13,904,702	30,949,096	14,758,607	4½ "
" 15,...	20,095,563	8,348,481	13,785,825	31,204,694	14,882,258	4½ "
" 22,...	20,028,891	10,198,989	13,551,794	32,884,622	15,308,636	4½ "
" 29,...	20,388,744	9,839,430	13,478,242	32,271,054	15,358,999	4 "
April 5,...	21,352,503	9,331,615	14,172,353	32,723,269	15,255,433	4 "
" 12,...	21,750,643	5,826,354	15,414,509	31,226,403	14,937,379	4 "
" 19,...	21,428,519	6,020,989	14,700,220	30,358,910	14,974,010	4 "
" 26, ..	21,438,377	6,298,382	13,965,270	30,139,409	14,754,795	4 "
May 3,...	22,072,011	6,712,465	14,059,280	31,356,348	14,679,974	4½ "
" 10,...	21,701,380	7,349,114	13,760,082	31,149,978	14,862,102	4½ "
" 17,...	21,769,022	7,660,977	13,489,291	31,011,642	15,023,913	4½ "
" 24,...	21,330,490	7,997,105	13,551,860	30,800,717	1,044,268	4 "
" 31,...	21,422,198	8,706,848	13,919,431	31,400,265	15,838,491	3½ "
June 7,...	21,635,494	7,954,181	13,357,083	31,192,555	15,860,615	3½ "
" 14,...	21,191,106	8,802,198	12,935,381	29,996,664	16,045,669	3 "
" 21,...	21,153,553	9,581,293	13,666,566	31,230,370	16,294,910	3 "
" 28,...	21,577,555	10,487,984	13,424,188	32,516,095	15,422,938	3 "
July 5,...	42,717,616	9,848,667	14,443,335	33,629,456	15,099,943	3 "
" 12,...	22,943,563	4,590,233	16,229,345	31,559,914	14,561,150	3 "
" 19,...	22,789,406	4,932,103	14,894,217	30,992,455	15,083,367	3 "

The following are the returns of the Bank of France:

BANK OF FRANCE.

	Loans.	Cash and Bullion.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Interest.
December 8	fr.566,921,053	fr.355,640,597	fr.722,291,475	fr.178,968,028	5
" 15	586,521,738	351,562,024	739,383,125	161,270,492	5
" 22	561,603,376	364,008,378	721,487,475	153,193,515	4½
" 29	597,157,830	359,969,767	726,212,275	171,321,867	"
January 5	690,129,259	330,071,913	790,526,625	190,488,131	4½
" 12	677,690,909	314,771,593	806,325,675	153,188,884	4½
" 19	667,121,414	318,170,064	817,443,275	142,120,960	4½
" 26	642,779,237	322,119,477	808,283,925	139,123,008	4½
February 2	651,375,290	318,454,492	812,425,525	143,430,627	4½

February	9	636,803,905	339,240,543	805,966,575	153,039,752	4
"	16	604,140,057	354,578,163	801,601,175	139 995.758	4
"	23	584,895.098	371,630,673	785,025,125	150,285.834	4
March	2	569,812,574	381,455,854	772,877,175	192.866,298	4
"	9	544,367,920	410,774,986	773,843,825	166.985.971	3½
"	16	514,175,858	424,931,230	777,523,125	153,467,097	3½
"	23	509,473,256	445,864,708	774,556,625	148,899,173	3½
"	30	538,202,250	456,899,812	764,788,125	158.286,600	3½
April	6	520,898,578	454,945,361	786,434,775	167,028,900	3½
"	13	522,800,231	432,776,299	806,557,975	130,834,687	3½
"	20	533,509,141	430,925,270	811,751,175	132,941,338	3½
"	27	532,804,786	422,621,708	808,818,275	151,124,075	3½
May	4	541,445,768	451,698,249	812,077,975	172,371,532	3½
"	11	523,453,076	460,963,977	817,660,875	168,213,664	3½
"	18	504,570,038	476,048,233	807,978,225	178,414,107	3½
"	25	487,103,699	486,096,375	808,248,375	183,490,401	3½
June	1	486.044,806	490,881,624	809,858,075	196,078.358	3½
"	8	491,926,752	493.927,231	795,612,975	203,630,138	3½
"	15	530,555,866	480,894,831	823,871,025	186,511,047	3½
"	22	518,460,643	497,626,559	797,822,975	200,050,761	3½
"	29	560,188,465	612,901,803	802,508,125	218,427,745	3½
July	6	591,852,987	521,352,745	859,170,675	221,419,987	3½
"	13	594,467,935	498,683,812	884,390,025	188,481,698	3½

The return of July 13 is chiefly remarkable for presenting the important decline of 32,939,000 f. in the deposits. In the coin and bullion there is a falling off of 22,669.900 f., and in the inculcation an increase of 25,220,000 f., both of which are probably owing to a large extent to the withdrawal of deposits for more active employment. This would seem to indicate increasing activity in commerce.

PASSENGER RAILROADS IN NEW YORK.

The Annual Report on the railroads of New York has just been published by Hon. William B. Taylor, State Engineer and Surveyor, to whose courtesy we are indebted for a copy. From this we take the statistics which appear in the following statement in relation to what are known as passenger, or horse-railroads, although one or two of the companies use either wholly or partially the locomotive or dummy engine.

The great accommodation this class of locomotion, furnished by city and suburban railroads, operated by horse-power, is no longer a problem, but a reality, which it would, at this day, be impossiblo to ignore. In New York, the merchant or mechanic would fare ill without them, as no other species of conveyance could carry the living freight which travels daily between the business and the domiciliary sections of the city. New York, indeed, must have lost largely without their services; for, within any reasonable distance from the business parts, there cannot be found space sufficient for their dwellings, and, as a consequence, Brooklyn, Jersey City, Hoboken, and other near vicinities, must have received a large proportion of the present population of this city. These railroads, indeed—regular, pleasant, and cheap to the traveler—have extended the area of residence many miles, and made the distance equally as short, as to time, and as convenient, as that between the adjacent cities and suburban villages of which we have spoken. Thus, a person residing at or near Harlem Bridge, is

as well situated as he would be across any of the ferries. The same advantages accrue to Brooklyn from its own net-work of railroads. A residence is now as accessible at three or four miles out from the ferries, as if before the era of city rails, located within a fourth of that distance. Troy, Utica, Syracuse, and Buffalo, within our own State, have also adopted this mode of conveyance, and most of the large cities beyond our borders are supplied therewith.

It is not possible, therefore, that we can contemplate these important aids to prosperous city life, without concern. Their extension throughout the land is in the prospective, but if they yield no revenue to their projectors and owners, it is not likely that their progress will be so rapid as could be wished. The war and the consequent depreciation of our currency, has operated adversely to this species of property. The cost of labor and materials has been greater than in many cases the charge for services would pay for, and hence dividends have almost ceased as a regular consequent on the year's business. Most of these roads are limited to a maximum charge, and the Legislature of this State has seen fit to forbid the companies to increase them. What the course has been in other States in similar circumstances, we do not know. In New York, however, this hostile legislation has been disastrous, and several of the companies operating the roads have, while accommodating the public, lost money. The same legal restriction applies also to the New York commercial railroads. This should not be so, for labor or capital is worthy of its hire.

But we do not propose either to enter upon the merits of these works, nor yet undertake the advocacy of a special policy in relation to them. These few preliminary remarks are thrown off simply to call attention to an important subject, and with them we introduce the following tables of extent, cost, earnings, &c., as applicable to the passenger railroads within this State, premising that our tables refer only to those railroads which are required to report to the State engineer, which some few are exempt from doing.

The following exhibits concisely the length of each line in operation, and the number of cars in use thereon on the 30th September, 1864:

LINES IN OPERATION.

Railroads.	Line open.		Railroads in progress.	Equipment.		
	Main.	2d track & siding.		Engines or dum'ss	1st class cars.	Freight & other cars.
Broadway, Brooklyn....miles	5.38	5.38	....	....	32	....
Broadway and 7th av., N. Y..	8.00	6.33	....	....	78	....
Brooklyn, Bath and Coney Is.	6.50	0 50	....	5	10	....
Brooklyn Central and Jamaica.	14.50	9.50	....	3	48	21
Brooklyn City.....	28.31	27 87	1.90	....	140	29
Brooklyn City and Newtown..	5.50	6.25	4.00	....	28	...
Central Park, N. and E. Riv..	19.00	....	3.00	....	99	12
Coney Island and Brooklyn...	10.50	10.25	....	....	....	....
Eighth avenue, N. Y.....	9.00	9.50	1.00	....	100	....
42d and Grand st. ferry, N. Y.	8.06	4.00	....	....	50	....
Harlem Bridge, Morrisania, and Fordham	5 00	5.00	....	....	17	2
Ninth avenue, N. Y.....	6 00	....	7.00	....	34	....
Rochester City and Brighton..	6.60	0.90	3.40	....	20	....
Second avenue, N. Y.....	8.00	8.00	....	....	....	....

Sixth avenue, N. Y.....	4.00	4.38	....	....	40	25
Third avenue, N. Y.....	8.00	9.50	....	....	137	3
Troy and Cohoes.....	3.50	0.96	1.00	....	....	....
Utica City.....	4.00	2.50	9.00	....	18	....
Van Brunt st & Erie Bas., Bl'n.	1.25	0.25	....	....	4	....
	161.04	111.07	30.30	8	806	93
N. Y. and Harlem, City Line..	4.00	4.00	....	....	69	....
Total	165.04	115.07	30.30	8	875	93

The cost of the several lines and the aggregate cost, with the sources from which the money has been derived, is shown in the following table :

CAPITAL AND COST OF LINES IN OPERATION.

Railroads.	Capital			Cost of R.R's & Equipment
	Shares.	Bonds.	Floating.	
Broadway, Brooklyn.....	$200,000	$27,500	$7,782	$227,139
B'way and 7th avenue, N. Y..	2,100,000	1,200,000	75,000	2,948,168
Brooklyn, Bath, and Coney Is.	99,850	76,000	44,000	126,388
Brooklyn Central and Jamaica	492,150	434,400	55,292	897,645
Brooklyn City.....	1,000,000	170,000	15,000	1,330,717
Brooklyn City and Newtown.	366,000	200,000	19,144	531,785
Central P'k, N. and E. River..	791,350	550,000	.....	1,330,302
Coney Is. and Brooklyn.....	500,000	113,000	.....	603,889
Eighth avenue, N. Y.....	1,000,000	46,000	25,000	1,166,162
42d st & Grand st Ferry, N. Y.	660,000	261,100	33,282	951,569
Harlem Bridge, Morrisania & Fordham.....	72,000	88,000	.....	158,749
Ninth avenue, New York....	795,360	67,000	.....	950,154
Rochester City and Brighton.	134,000	91,000	10,000	237,388
Second avenue, N. Y.....	650,000	520,000	53,000	1,155,615
Sixth avenue, New York.....	750,000	.....	.....	1,222,622
Third avenue, New York....	1,170,000	1,180,000	35,000	1,958,355
Troy and Cohoes.....	50,000	.....	.....	50,000
Utica City	124,500	65,500	7,000	198,945
Van Brunt st & Erie Bas., Bk'n	50,000	12,000	.....	62,000
	$11,005,210	$5,401,500	$377,500	$16,052,592
New York and Har. City Line	.....	.....	.....	250,000
Total.....	$11,005,210	$5,401,500	$377,500	$16,302,592

From the first of these tables, we learn that the total length of line in operation is 161 miles, and that of this 111 miles is double track, making an equivalent of 272 miles of single track, of which length more than three-quarters are within the cities of New York and Brooklyn. We do not include the Harlem City Line, on account of the deficiency of its statistics.

The second table shows the cost of the lines included in the first table to have been $16,052,592, of which $11,050,210 was raised from shares, and $5,401,500 from bonds. There is also exhibited an aggregate floating debt of $377,500, little if any of which has accrued from construction.

Taking these tables together we learn that the average cost per mile of track has been nearly $60,000, or, if we take the routes as the measure of length, of about $100,000 per mile. Seeing that the road-bed on which these lines are constructed has usually a level grade and requires little but the superstructure to make the roads available, this cost would appear extreme without the explanation that the companies have expended immense sums in satisfaction o f

vested rights, which the new lines countervailed. The structures alone cannot have cost more than from $12,000 to $15,000 per mile of track, or if the cars, etc., be included, from $15,000 to $20,000. Thus we find that three-fourths of their cost has gone in other ways than in labor and material. Some part of the stock is, no doubt, fictitious, or in other words, a financial fiction; but, still, as it has all the properties of the genuine stock, we must accept it as a part of the cost.

The business of the year, as shown in the returns of mileage, of cars, and the number of passengers carried is shown in the table which follows:

MILEAGE, PASSENGERS, AND CASUALTIES.

Railroads.	Miles run by cars.	Passengers carried in cars.	Casualties: Persons Killed.	Casualties: Persons Injured.
Broadway, Brooklyn	456,522	1,416,207	..	8
Broadway and 7th avenue, New York	845,896	1,890,541	..	1
Brooklyn, Bath, and Coney Island	84,783	102,389	..	3
Brooklyn Central and Jamaica	901,846	2,528,626	4	..
Brooklyn City	2,688,939	13,733,540	5	8
Brooklyn City and Newtown	470,407	1,630,441	1	1
Central Park, North and East River	.....*	6,560,471	..	9
Coney Island and Brooklyn	485,904	1,660,474	..	3
Eighth avenue, New York	2,425,884	9,054,012	3	6
Forty-second st & Grand st Ferry, N. Y.	456,400	3,561,132	1	3
Harlem Bridge, Morrisania & Fordham	184,800	571,450	..	1
Ninth avenue, New York	801,960	1,802,160	1	3
Rochester City and Brighton	.....*	954,782	1	3
Second aveuue, New York	.....*	6,914,122	..	..
Sixth do do	1,891,960	8,050,674	..	..
Third do do	3,000,000	16,700,000	6	11
Troy and Cohoes	.....†	.....†	..	..
Utica City	40,000	223,410	..	2
Van Brunt st and Erie Basin, Brooklyn	69,850	360,781	..	..
		77,715,612	22	60
New York and Harlem, City Line	785,916	5,795,238	2	..
Total		83,510,850	24	60

This table shows that 83,510,850 passengers made use of the roads represented. The average population of the cities, in which they are located, may be assumed at 2,000,000. They, every man, woman, and child, may have made 41 to 42 trips within the year, or every inhabitant of the United States (pop. 35,000,000) 2½ trips. The table also shows the number of casualities occurring on the lines during the year. The total shows 24 deaths from accident, and 60 persons injured. These are classed as follows:

Passengers	8 killed.	33 injured
Employees	3 do	2 do
Others	13 do	25 do

It is evident from this that an individual passenger might make 10,000,000 trips before meeting with an accident sufficient to produce death, and 1,000,000

* Not stated in reports.

† Operated by Troy and Lansingburg company, which is one of those exempted by law from reporting.

trips before meeting with an accident of any kind. The casualties to employees is larger in proportion to their number, but is not so large as to class their employment as hazardous. All other casualties are extraneous—some unavoidable, some from carelessness in the injured themselves or the company employees, but, probably, on the whole, the result of drunkeness and coming suddenly in the way of the advancing car. The result, however, is by no means alarming.

The earnings of these roads for the year ending September 30, 1865, amounted to $4,008,778 63. The expenses of operations in the same year were $3,526,118 74. This leaves for interest and dividends of $16,000,000 capital only $482,659 89, or about 3 per cent. The bonded debt, which has the first claim, amounted to $5,400,000, which, at 6 to 7 per cent, would take about $350,000 to satisfy, leaving only $128,600 for dividends.

The details are shown in the following table:

EARNINGS, EXPENSES, AND DIVIDENDS.

Railroads.	Gross Earnings.	Operating Expenses.	Profits after Expen's.	Div'a.
	$	$	$	p.c.
Broadway, Brooklyn.....	67,593 81	59,208 21	8,385 60	6
Broadway and 7th avenue, N. Y	95,550 78	76,584 64	18,966 14	..
Brook., Bath, and Coney Island.	15,831 59	12,889 74	2,941 85	..
Brooklyn Central and Jamaica.	173,827 74	170,161 44	3,666 30	..
Brooklyn City.....	694,332 67	617,190 67	77,142 00	8½
Brooklyn City and Newtown..	82,048 77	77,886 82	4,161 95	..
Central Park, N. and E. River	327,013 45	296,520 69	30,492 76	..
Coney Island and Brooklyn....	100,437 97	91,289 98	9,147 99	..
Eighth avenue, N. Y.....	452,700 62	448,493 22	4,207 40	12
42d st & Grand st Ferry, N. Y.	178,056 62	155,763 85	22,282 77	..
Harlem Bridge, Morisania, and Fordham	34,660 36	33,763 00	897 36	..
Ninth avenue, N. Y.....	90,108 01	103,220 50	loss	..
Rochester City and Brighton..	47,739 10	47,739 10	loss	..
Second avenue, N. Y.....	350,718 38	330,584 03	20,134 35	..
Sixth do	424,305 94	409,522 70	14,783 24	5
Third do	844,701 07	673,113 86	171,587 21	12
Troy and Cohoes.....	.....*	.....*	.....*	..*
Utica City.....	18,295 82	18,311 80	loss	..
Van Brunt st & Erie Bas., B'lyn.	10,855 93	8,476 27	2,379 66	..
	4,008,778 63	3,526,118 74	482,659 89	..
New York & Har., City Line..	†325,000 00	260,000 00	65,000 00	..
Total	$4,333,778 63	$3,786,118 74	$547,659 89	..

* Estimated—not given separately in report.

From this it appears that only 5 companies paid dividends at all. The whole amount thus disbursed was $386,288 49, and the following are the only companies which made dividends:

Broadway, Brooklyn.....	$12,000
Brooklyn City.....	88,388
Eighth avenue, New York.....	108,000
Sixth avenue do	37,500
Third avenue do	140,400

—which sums include the internal revenue tax.

Thus out of 19 companies only 5 divided any profits. The aggregate capital of the dividend paying companies is $4,120,000. As a consequent, a capital

belonging to non-dividing companies, amounting to $6,885,210, received no return in the year named.

It is also worthy of remark that more than one of the paying companies paid their dividends, not from the year's earnings, but from the accumulations of former years.

The railroads reported as being under construction, with their condition and cost, are exhibited in the next table:

RAILROADS UNDER CONSTRUCTION.

Railroads.	Miles	Cost to date
Brooklyn City and Ridgewood*	9.50	$165,137 00
Brooklyn, East New York and Rockaway	25.00	90,000 00
Brooklyn and Rockaway	13.00	18,200 00
Canarsie, Brooklyn, and Winfield	23 00	33,500 00
Cohoes and Waterford	2.00	500 00
East and North River	6.00	650 00
Harlem River and Tarrytown	19.00	3,550 00
Port Morris and Westchester	11.00	1,200 00
Third avenue and Fordham	5.00	975 00
West Shore	4.00	857 00
Williamsburg and Coney Island	12.00	15,000 00
Total	116.50	$329,569 00

* Finished 0.09 mile.

The followiag city passenger railroads, by special legislative action, are exempt from making annual reports:

Buffalo Street	Buffalo	Niagara street	Buffalo
Central City	Syracuse	Syracuse and Geddes	Syracuse, etc
Grand street and Newtown	Brook'n, E. D.	Troy and Lansingburg	Troy, etc
Maine and Ohio street	Buffalo		

MINNESOTA—ITS RESOURCES AND PROGRESS.

Progress is so rapid in the North-Interior Region of the Union that it requires very frequent surveys for the mind to keep pace with it. In Minnesota especially is this the case. Twenty years ago it was still a wilderness, inhabited only by the aborigines—man and beast—and a few missionaries. The change in the scene has been wonderful. Its river slopes and lake shores are now dotted with thriving towns, and away back from them, for miles on miles, the lands so lately in savage possession are occupied by farms producing the great staples of the world's commerce. To realize these facts is the peculiar privilege of the old settlers, who have witnessed the mutations from an aboriginal to a civilized condition, and it is only from the pens of such that we can have any authentic record. This is furnished in a pamphlet recently issued by the Minnesota Government, entitled "Minnesota as a Home for Immigrants," from which we make large abstracts in the following pages:

Minnesota occupies the central point of the North American Continent, midway between the frigid and torrid zones, midway between Hudson's Bay and the Gulf of Mexico, and midway between the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans.

According to the latest estimate the State embraces an area of 84,000 square miles—53,760,000 acres—an extent much greater than the territory comprised

in all the New England States, and nearly equal to the combined areas of Ohio and Pennsylvania.

The general surface of the country is undulating, similar to the rolling prairies of the adjoining States of Iowa and Wisconsin; with greater diversity, beauty and picturesqueness imparted to the scenery by rippling lakes, sparkling waterfalls, high bluffs, wooded ravines and deeply-cut channels, through which rapid currents wend their tortuous way, visiting almost every homestead.

To this general evenness of the surface, the high lands known as the *Hauteurs des Terres*, form the only exception. These are a chain of drift hills in the northern part of the State, commonly with flat tops, rising from 80 to 100 feet above the level of the surrounding country. Among these hills lie embedded the lakes that give rise to the three great rivers of the continent. The Mississippi, pursuing a southward direction, over ledges of limestone, through fertile prairies and rich savannas, gathering its tributaries from a country of great fertility, and nearly equal in extent to one-third the area of Europe, pours its waters into the Gulf of Mexico. Eastwardly, through lakes, rivers, and foaming cataracts, flow the waters of the St. Lawrence system, finding their way into the Atlantic. Northward runs the Red River by a circuitous route to Lake Winnipeg, where it mingles with waters brought from the Rocky Mountains by the Saskatchawan, and rolls onward to Hudson's Bay.

The summit of the narrow ridge which divides the sources of the Mississippi and Red River, and highest point of land in the State, in latitude 47° and 95° west longitude, is 1,680 feet above the level of the Gulf of Mexico, and 2,896 miles from it by the river's course.

From this eminence diverge three distinct slopes, which give to Minnesota the form of a vast pyramid, down whose sides the disparted waters descend to their ocean outlets. In a southeasterly direction extends the great Mississippi Slope, resting its broad base upon the Southern Gulf; eastwardly stretches the great Superior Slope, walled in by the rocky coast of Labrador; and northward reaches the slope of the Red River, which, uniting with the Saskatchawan Valley, gives this vast interior basin of the continent the form of an irregular triangle, whose centre is in Minnesota.

That portion of the Mississippi Valley included within the limits of Minnesota has an estimated area of 49,000 square miles, being more than four-fifths of the whole State. The Mississippi River, from its source to the mouth of the Minnesota, a distance of 630 miles by its course, falls 960 feet, while the general level of the country sinks 830 feet. From this point the land, which is 850 feet above the level of the sea, gradually rises to an average hight, near the Iowa line, of 1,000 feet; while the river, sinking gently at the rate of four inches to the mile, gives that progressive and picturesque elevation to the banks which characterize the Upper Mississippi.

Toward the Minnesota Valley the surface of the country exhibits an exterior depression, which is continued throughout the Red River Valley and the great transverse basin of the Saskatchawan, and exercises an important influence upon the climate.

This whole section of the State is generally well supplied with timber, dotted over with lakes, and traversed by numerous rivers.

The Lower Mississippi Valley (below the mouth of the Minnesota) has a general slope towards the Minnesota Valley. The bluffs below Lake Pepin, rising three and four hundred feet above the river, their grim summits broken by intervening chasms and rounded into forms of every conceivable outline, afford a scene of rare grandeur and magnificence.

From this crest westward stretches the valley, having an area of 5,700 square miles, intersected by small rivers, whose bottoms are a deep, rich, alluvial soil, while the ridges and prairies are scarcely less fertile. The principal of these rivers are the Cannon and Vermilion, flowing through smooth, open prairies, almost to their outlets; and the Zumbro, Minneiska and Root rivers, approaching their outlets by deep, sinuous ravines. Lakes are scarce in this district: timber plenty in the ravines and valleys, but sparsely distributed on the uplands.

The Upper Mississippi Valley extends from the mouth of the Minnesota to the Crow Wing River. The left bank presents a continuous level of from ten twenty feet in width, with a succession of terraces. The Rum, Elk, and Platte, are the principal tributaries on this side. These rivers, having their sources in the lakes of the great summit, and crossing broad belts of pine at their upper extremities, flow through a low, undulating plain of tamarac swamps, meadows, and oak openings, to their confluence with the Mississippi.

The western shore is higher and well wooded. The chief streams flowing into the Mississippi from this side are the Crow, Sauk, and Long Prairie rivers. The Crow, with its forks, extends through a section of country stretching east and west a length of seventy-five miles, and a breadth at its widest expansion of forty miles. Dense forests, rich prairies, and beautiful lakes, render the valley of this stream one of the most inviting districts of the State.

The Superior Slope has an area of 15,000 square miles. It is traversed by ranges of hills parallel with the Superior shore, which stretch westward to the hights of land that separate the Superior from the Mississippi basin. The hills are sandy, with a small growth of wood; the intervening valleys have a good soil and are well wooded, but are often swampy and imperfectly drained. The rivers of this section are numerous, generally short, and often fall in beautiful cascades over ledges of primary rock.

The Red River Slope, whose southern point extends to Lac Traverse, separated from Big Stone Lake by a distance of only three miles, extends northward, maintaining a uniform altitude of nearly 1,000 feet. The Red River has its sources in the hights of land near the headwaters of the Mississippi, whence it flows southwardly, then making a sudden detour, where its waters become navigable, it runs nearly due north, washing the western boundary of Minnesota for 380 miles.

The American Valley of the Red River is about 250 miles from north to south, and contains an area of 17,000 square miles.

Pope, in his official report to Congress, says: "In its whole extent, it presents an unbroken level of rich prairie, intersected at right angles by all the heavily-timbered tributaries of the Red River, from the east and west, the Red River itself running nearly north through its centre, and heavily timbered on both sides with elm, oak, maple, ash, etc. This valley, from its vast extent, per-

fect uniformity of surface, richness of soil, and abundant supply of wood and water, is among the finest wheat growing countries in the world."

Of the region around Otter Tail Lake the same writer says: "The whole region of country for forty miles, in all directions, is one of the most beautiful and fertile in the world. The fine scenery of lakes and open groves of oak timber on the prairies, of winding streams connecting them, and beautiful rolling country on all sides, renders this portion of Minnesota the garden spot of the Northwest."

The central table land, around which the grand primary slopes converge, is a semi-circular curve, surrounded by that immense system of resorvoirs which for ages have poured their waters through different outlets into the sea. This level is described as an interminable labyrinth of lakes and streams, separated by low savannas, and narrow, sandy ridges, covered with pine; the alluvial bottoms with dense forests of hard wood.

North of latitude 46°, and westward to the outlet of Red Lake, stretches an immense forest, including the hilly country of the Superior Slope, inclosing the headwaters of the Mississippi and its principal eastern tributaries, embracing an area of 21,000 square miles. The principal wood of this region is pine, interspersed with ash, elm, aspen, maple and birch. The rich valleys of the extreme northern tributaries of the Mississippi support a heavy growth of the various kinds of hard wood. The rivers flowing into Lake Superior are fringed with hemlock, fir, cedar, spruce and birch. This forest on the south, from the Saint Croix to Crow Wing, is bordered by a narrow belt of cedar and tamarac swamps, intermingled with pine, spruce, and some hard woods. Below this, on the east side of the Mississippi, the prairies support a growth of small oak, thinly distributed, which are designated "oak openings." A similar growth of timber is found on the prairies on the west side of the Mississippi.

West of the Mississippi this great pine forest extends to the valley of the Crow Wing, where it terminates in a dense border of hard wood, which reaches westward to the Otter Tail River.

Southward from the Crow Wing, crossing the valleys of the Sauk, Crow, and Minnesota, stretches another extensive forest, known as the Big Woods. Its eastern border fringes the Mississippi for nearly one hundred miles, and its south-western corner extends to the valley of the Blue Earth. This timbered section embraces an area of about 5,000 square miles, one-fifth of which is south of the Minnesota River. It abounds in lakes, and some portions of it are broken by open prairies covered with a luxuriant growth of grass. The principal varieties of timber are oak, maple, ash, elm, basswood, and hickory.

Nearly all the streams in Southern Minnesota are fringed with narrow wood-lands, and some of the valleys east of the Mississippi are heavily timbered.

The upper valleys of the Mississippi and Minnesota contain no timber except upon the borders of the streams and lakes. The oak openings furnish the chief supply of wood for the prairie districts.

The prairies and forests abound in a great variety of wild animals, among which are deer, bears, wolves, foxes, wild-cats, raccoons, and rabbits. Otter, mink, beaver, and muskrat, are the principal aquatic animals that frequent the

water-courses. Buffaloes occasionally visit the western frontier. Pigeons, grouse, and partridges are among the feathered game; whilst multitudes of smaller birds, of sweet song and gay plumage, add their thousand charms to the summer landscape of Minnesota.

Though Minnesota has no mountain peaks, its general elevation gives it the characteristics of a mountainous district; that, while it is equi-distant from the oceans that wash the eastern and western shores of the continent, and is therefore comparatively unaffected by oceanic influences, it has a great water system of lakes and rivers within its own borders. These, combining with other influences, give the State a climate in many respects dissimilar to the other northern States.

One of the most striking of the peculiarities of this climate, is the great variation between the extreme cold of winter, when mercury congeals, and the intense heat of midsummer, when it stands for many consecutive days at 95° above zero, in the shade.

But these extremes afford no index to the real character of the climate of Minnesota. Fortunately we have ample means by which to determine its actual temperature, and also its temperature compared with other and more widely known localities.

From records kept for a series of years, at different places, the commissioner of statistics in his report for 1860, furnishes the dates for the following summary: Central Minnesota has a mean temperature in spring (45.6°) equal to Northern Illinois, Southern Michigan, Massachusetts, and Rhode Island. Its summer mean temperature (70.6°) coincides with that of central Wisconsin, southern Pennsylvania, and central New Jersey. Its autumn temperature (49.5°) is the equivalent of central Wisconsin, northern New York, New Hampshire, and southern Maine. Its winter mean temperature (16.1°) equals that of northern Wisconsin, the southern limit of Canada East, central Vermont, and New Hampshire, and northeastern Maine.

Its yearly mean temperature (44.6°) coincides with that of central Wisconsin, Michigan, central New York, southern Vermont, New Hampshire, and Maine, and has a range from the summer heat of southern Ohio and southern Pennsylvania. Thus, in the breadth of four degrees, the summers of Pennsylvania and Sardinia (in Italy,) are followed by the winter of Canada and northern Russia.

It may be remarked, that the hilly district in the northern part of the State, comprising about one-fourth of its surface, has less than 65° summer heat, or the temperature of Canada and New England; whilst the remaining three-fourths, having a southern slope, warmed by the southerly breeze that sweeps up the great valley of the Mississippi, has a general average of 70° summer heat, or the climate of Pennsylvania and Ohio.

From rain tables prepared from observations recorded for a series of years at sixteen different places in Canada and the States, it appears that the mean yearly fall of rain for all the places is 35.5 inches; whilst the mean yearly fall at Fort Snelling is 25.4 inches, and the mean summer fall for all the places is 11.2 inches, whilst the mean summer fall at Fort Snelling is 10.9 inches.

The northwestern section of Minnesota is crossed by ranges of granite, over-

laid with deposits of clay and drift. These ranges are a continuation of the great development of primary rock, which extends from Labrador and James Bay along the western shore of Lake Superior, thence westward, and disappears under the drift deposit of the Red River Valley. The elevation of this primary rock, covered with a deep stratum of drift, constitute the hights of land from whence descend the three great rivers. From the head of Lake Superior, a narrow range of this primary rock, divested of its volcanic debris, stretches southwesterly, under the drift, beyond the western border of the State, exposed only where it crosses the Mississippi, Minnesota, and Big Sioux rivers.

The whole remaining surface of the State, except a narrow strip of limestone on its southeastern border, is covered with drift, overlying rock of the lower silurian period.

The lowest sandstones protruding on the southwestern shore of Lake Superior, on the Saint Croix, as far down as Taylor's Falls, on the northeastern shore of the Minnesota, and at Crow Wing, constitutes the basis of the drift stratum for the area between these points.

The limestone district which has a surface formation, is first seen below Taylor's Falls on the Saint Croix, and Saint Anthony's Falls on the Mississippi—includes the whole western slope of the Mississippi below, and forms a belt of from twenty to fifty miles in width. This limestone extends under the drift long distances, through the valleys of the Saint Croix and Minnesota.

The rocky, sterile, northeastern corner of the State comprises a mineral field, which, if we may trust the deductions of geologists, will be inferior only to agriculture as a source of wealth.

Copper abounds in the mineral belt stretching along the northern shore of Lake Superior; and large masses of the pure metal have been taken from Knife and Stuart rivers.

The lower magnesian limestone and sandstone, near Lake Pepin, according to Dr. Owen, are metaliferous, yielding lead and copper. But no mines have as yet been attempted.

Iron ore is found in considerable quantity around Portage and Pigeon rivers. The metal wrought from this ore has been put to the severest test, and found fully equal in tenacity and maleability to the best Swedish and Russian iron.

An iron ore is also found in several localities, between the Blue Earth and Le Sueur Rivers, which is said to yield thirty-one per cent of light gray iron.

There is an abundance of clay, underlying the soil in the larger portion of the State, of which brick of a good quality are made. Beds of marl, adapted to the manufacture of pottery, are found in various places; and a bed of fine porcelain clay is reported in Wabashaw County.

Roofing and ciphering slates of superior quality are found near the St. Louis River.

Among the valuable mineral resources of this State are the salt springs of the Red River Valley. These reservoirs of salt are the beginning of a series of saline springs that reach westward on the international boundary line to the Rocky Mountains.

Minnesota has a vast area suitable for agriculture, comprising nearly three-fourths of its entire extent.

Of its extensive surface—estimated at nearly 54,000,000 acres of land—one-fourth is included in the hilly district of the northeastern part of the State. This section differs from other portions of the State, in its geological formation, climate, and flora. This hilly district comprises many fertile tracts of land, and is probably nearly equal to New England in agricultural capacity; but valuable at present chiefly for its immense forests of pine, and its rich deposits of copper and iron.

The remaining three-fourths, embracing the Great Mississippi Slope, and the American portion of the Red River Valley, may be described as a well-wooded and well watered country, with the summer climate of the Middle States, and a fertile soil, producing in abundance all the roots and grains of the temperate zone. The extent of the agricultural district is equal to the whole area of the State of New York, Pennsylvania or Wisconsin.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

The following decisions have been made by the Secretary of the Treasury of questions arising upon appeals by importers from the decisions of collectors, relating to the proper classification, under the tariff acts, of certain articles of foreign manufacture and production entered at the port of New York, &c.

LICORICE PASTE—DEFICIENCY IN WEIGHT.

Treasury Department, March 20, 1865.

SIRS:

Your communication (No. 2.516) of the 9th ultimo is received, in relation to certain "Licorice Paste," imported July 4, 1864, per steamer "Cella," from London.

You claim that the weight as returned by U. S. weigher was 25.990 lbs., and the actual weight on delivery from U. S. bonded warehouse was 25,181 lbs., an alleged deficiency of 809 pounds.

It is understood that the "Licorice Paste" in question has as yet been only partially withdrawn from warehouse. But admitting that your statement of present weight be correct, it cannot be assumed that the deficiency occurred during the voyage of importation, and none during the eight months since that time; on the contrary, there appears to have been a difference between the weight as stated in the invoice (26,700 lbs.) and that found by the weighers at the time of entry, which was 25,990 pounds, as above stated.

It is, therefore, highly probable that the decrease continued while the goods were in warehouse, and therefore no relief can be granted.

I am, very respectfully,
By order,
GEO. HARRINGTON,
Asst. Secretary of the Treasury.

To Messrs. WEAVER & STERRY,
New York.

ROSE WATER—COSTS AND CHARGES.

Treasury Department, March 21, 1865.

GENTLEMEN:

Your appeal is received, (No. 2,496.) dated the 24th instant, from the decision of the collector at New York, assessing duty on the value found by the addition of certain charges to an invoice of "Rose Water."

You state "we received on consignment by the 'Burnside' from Marseilles, October 8, 1864, a parcel of 36 cases of Rose Water, upon which the appraisers have added, as charges for packing and shipping, 20 per cent. to the invoice, and we have been compelled to pay the duty on that addition."

In the absence of any charges or costs on either invoice or entry for the 36 cases referred to, the appraisers reported an addition of 5 francs per case (amounting to 180 francs in all) to cover the proper items of charges specified in and required by the 24th section act 30th June, 1864, to make up the dutiable value.

To your claim that the prices of the goods included the charges, the appraisers report that the prices did not disclose this to their satisfaction.

It is the right of the government, under existing laws, to require that invoices shall show the cost or value of the merchandise separate and distinct from the necessary charges and costs of shipment.

The action of the collector is hereby affirmed.

I am, very respectfully,

By order,

GEO. HARRINGTON,
Asst. Secretary of the Treasury.

To Messrs. DIX & MORRISS,
New York.

CIGARS—SUBSEQUENT DEMAND FOR PROPER DUTY.

Treasury Department, March 27, 1865.

SIR:

Your appeal, (No. 2,526,) dated the 20th ultimo, is received, from the assessment of duty upon your importation of Cigars per the "Rainbow," in May, 1864.

You allege "in the month of August they were brought into consumption, and the duties liquidated according to the act of Congress July 1, 1864."

I am informed that the cigars in question, 25,000 in number, were entered at an invoice value, including charges and commissions, of $424 73, or about $17 per thousand; that the duties were imposed and liquidated at the rates prevailing at the date of importation, and that, by an error of the withdrawal entry clerk, (who has since been removed,) you were permitted, about the 1st of September last, to pay duty and obtain possession of the cigars at the rate in force before the passage of the joint resolution of April 29, 1864.

The error having been discovered on the 28th of September following, an amended entry for the amount of $218.65, being the duty unpaid, was duly made out, and you were notified to make payment of the amount.

Your allegation that the entry was liquidated under the law of July 1, (June 30,) 1864, is incorrect; the liquidation was under the rates prevailing in May.

The legal duties due on the cigars when withdrawn amounted to $498.75; you paid but $280.10, and there is consequently due and unpaid $218.65.

The decision of the collector is hereby affirmed.

I am, very respectfully,

By order,

GEO HARRINGTON,
Asst. Secretary of the Treasury.

To CHARLES TYNG, Esq.,
New York.

SHEAP SHEARS—NOT CUTLERY.

Treasury Department, March 30, 1865.

SIR:

Messrs. Scudder, Rogers & Co. have appealed (No. 2,547) from your decision assessing duty, at the rate of 45 per cent. ad valorem, as "Manufactures of

Steel," certain "Sheep Shears" imported by them, and claim that the articles in question should have been classified as Cutlery, and duty assessed thereon at 35 per cent. ad valorem.

Under the law, "Cutlery" stands undefined, and consequently recourse must be had to the general understanding of the word as used in commerce.

Manufacturers, known as Cutlers, never make sheep shears, and manufacturers of sheep shears do not make cutlery, as a general rule; straw knives, drawing knives, tanners and curriers' knives, scythes, &c., &c., are classed with sheep shears, as *tools*. In "trade" it is understood sheep shears are not classified as cutlery.

The appellants allege, that sheep shears have always been classifield as cutlery in all former tariffs. To this it is answered, that former tariffs made no distinction in manufactures of steel; the tariff of June 30, 1864, does; and penknives, jack knives, and pocket-knivees are taken out of the cutlery clause *specially*, as are sheep shears in *general* terms.

Your decision is hereby affirmed.

I am, very respectfully,

By order,

GEO HARRINGTON,
Asst. Secretary of the Treasury.

To J. Z. GOODRICH, Esq.,
Collector, Boston, Mass.

SEED PEAS—LIABLE TO DUTY.

Treasury Department, March 31, 1865.

SIR:

Your appeal, (No. 2,539,) March 10, 1865, from the decision of the collector at New York assessing duty of 30 per cent. on certain Peas imported by you in the "Jenny," from London, is received.

It appears that the article referred to, is *seed* peas, imported and used for the purpose named in the 21st subdivision of section 8, act July, 1862, which fixes for them a duty of 30 per cent. ad valorem "on garden seeds and all other seeds for agricultural or horticultural purposes not otherwise provided for." There is no other provision for these seeds, nor for *Peas*, in any existing tariff act.

The decision of the collector is hereby affirmed.

I am, very respectfully,

By order,

GEO. HARRINGTON,
Asst. Secretary of the Treasury.

To AUGGUST BERNSTEIN, Esq.,
(Attorney for WILLIAM HACKER,)
New York.

MACARONI—DUTY EXACTED ON ENTERED VALUE

Treasury Department, April 1, 1865.

SIR:

Your appeal, (No. 2,538,) dated the 10th ultimo, from the decision of the collector at New York assessing certain duty on "a lot of Macaroni," imported per "Guisippe Gilberti," from Genoa, is received.

You claim that "through some clerical error, I (you) find the value to be largely over-estimated, and I (you) have paid about $200 more duty than could be legally exacted on its proper value, or even its properly estimated value."

This department is informed that your principal made entry of, and swore to the value of the merchandise upon which the duty was assessed; consequently no relief can be afforded in the case, as the statute provides "that the duty shal

not be assessed upon an amount less than the invoice or *entered* value, any law of Congress to the contrary notwithstanding."

The decision of the collector is hereby affirmed.

I am, very respectfully,

By order,

GEO. HARRINGTON,
Asst. Secretary of the Treasury.

To M. TROWLIDGE, Esq.,
No. 54, Wall street, New York.

CARMINED INDIGO—STYLED NEUTRAL EXTRACT OF INDIGO.

Treasury Department, April 4, 1865.

SIR:

Messrs. Bloomfield, Myers & Co. have appealed (2,540) from your decision assessing duty at the rate of 20 per cent, under the first subdivision of section 10, act approved 30th June, 1864, as "Carmined Indigo," certain "Neutral Extract of Indigo," (so styled by the appellants,) imported per steamship "City of Cork," from Liverpool, January 28, 1865.

Messrs. Bloomfield, Myers & Co. claim that the article in question "is not Carmine of Indigo," but a much cheaper and altogether different preparation, costing from 6½*d* to 8*d* sterling per pound, while the "Carmine of Indigo" costs in different qualities from 5*s* to 18*s* sterling per pound, &c, and further claim that the article as "Extract of Indigo" is liable to but ten per cent duty under the 6th section act of July 14, 1862; and pronounce it to be "Neutral Extract of Indigo."

Prior to the passage of the act, approved June 30, 1864, all extracts of Indigo, say "Free Extract," "Neutral Extract," and "Carmined" were recognized under the term "Extract of Indigo," and admitted to entry at ten per cent, ad valorem. Since the passage of the act approved June 30, 1864, the subject has been carefully investigated, resulting in the opinion that "Carmined Indigo" is simply a sulphate or extract of Indigo; that is, a neutral extract from which the excess of sulphuric acid is washed out. If Carmined Indigo is simply an Extract of Indigo, then, by a parity of reasoning, Extract of Indigo is Carmined Indigo—the terms are convertible.

Since the act approved June 30, 1864, has been in force, all extracts of Indigo have been classified as "Carmined," and this practice has not been dissented from by other importers of "Neutral Extract of Indigo," but, on the contrary, is acquiesced in as correct.

Your decision is hereby affirmed.

I am very respectfully,

By order,

GEO. HARRINGTON,
Asst. Secretary of the Treasury.

To SIMEON DRAPER, Esq.,
Collector, New York.

CAMPHOR—DUTY ASSESSED ON WEIGHT RETURNED BY U. S. WEIGHER WHEN IMPORTED.

Treasury Department, April 4, 1865.

SIR:

Messrs. Reed, Cutler & Co., have appealed (2,558) from your decision assessing duty on certain Camphor imported per "Martha," and claim that duty should be assessed on the actual weight of the article in question when withdrawn from warehouse, and not upon the weight at the time it was imported and put in warehouse. The appellants allege that the difference in weight is caused by evaporation.

Article 524, of the general regulations, provides that there shall be no allowance for dampness or other like causes, and the 4th section of act of March 28, 1854, "provides "that there shall be no abatement of the duties, or allowance made for any injury, damage, deterioration, loss, or leakage sustained by any goods, wares or merchandise, whilst deposited in any public or private bonded warehouse," &c., &c.

The weight of the Camphor imported by you, as returned by the U. S, weigher at the time of importation, is the weight upon which the duty must be assessed.

Your decision is hereby affirmed.

I am, very respectfully,

By order,

GEO. HARRINGTON,
Asst. Secretary of the Treasury.

To J. Z. GOODRICH, Esq.,
Collector, Boston, Mass.

SUGAR—IMPORTED IN HAWAIIAN BRIG.

Treasury Department, April 11, 1865.

SIR:

Messrs. R. FENERSTEIN & Co., have appealed (No. 2,564) from your decision assessing a discriminating duty of 10 per cent ad valorem, under the 17th section of act approved June 30, 1864, on three hundred and eighty-two packages of Sugar, from Ponce, Porto Rico, imported per the Hawaiian brig "Nunana."

The appellants contend that under the treaty of December, 1849, between the United States and the King of the Hawaiian Islands, this discriminating duty does not attach.

The treaty alluded to is entirely reciprocal in its character, so far as relates to the direct trade in the products of either country, but does not exempt goods which are the product of other countries from this duty, if brought into the United States in a Hawaiian vessel.

Your decision is hereby affirmed.

I am, very respectfully,

H. MCCULLOCH,
Secretary of the Treasury.

To CHARLES JAMES, Esq.,
Collector, San Francisco, Cal.

BRANDY AND GIN—IN BOND JULY 1, 1864.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, April 12, 1865.

GENTLEMEN:

Your appeal (No. 2,557) from the decision of the collector at New York, assessing duty under the act approved June 30, 1864, on certain Brandy and Gin imported by you in April, 1864, and which remained in bond until after the act of June 30, 1864, went into effect, is received.

You claim to be entitled to withdraw the Brandy and Gin in question, under the tariff act in force at the time of importation.

The 19th section of the above-named act, which is very clear and emphatic, is as follows:

"*And be it further enacted*, That all goods, wares, and merchandise which may be in the public stores or bonded warehouses on the day and year this act shall take effect, shall be subject to no other duty *upon the entry thereof for consumption* than if the same were imported respectively *after that day*," &c.

You will perceive that the action of the collector is in perfect accordance with the law, and is therefore affirmed by this department.

I am, very respectfully,

By order:

GEO. HARRINGTON,
Assistant Secretary of the Treasury.

To Messrs. JAMES BRACKETT & Co.,
New York.

MUSKETS—LIABLE TO 35 PER CENT DUTY.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, April 12, 1865.

SIR:

Mr. MORRIS SPEYER has appealed (No. 2,434 and No. 2,435) from your decision assessing duty at the rate of 45 per cent ad valorem on certain Muskets imported by him in the Bremen bark "Minerva," from Hamburg, September 8, 1864.

The appellant claims that, "in the tariff of July 1, (June 30?) 1864, nothing is mentioned in regard to fire-arms," and therefore arrives at the conclusion that the duty has not been changed, and remains as heretofore, viz., at 35 per cent.

By the 22d section act March, 1861, and 13th section act July, 1862, "Muskets" (without regard to materials) are specially provided for at 35 per cent ad valorem, the former imposing 25 per cent and the latter 10 per cent in addition thereto. The second proviso to the 22d section, act 30th June, 1864, declares substantially that duties not provided for in this act, on all goods, wares, and merchandise imported from foreign countries, *shall be and remain as they were according to existing laws* prior to 29th April, 1864.

It was not proposed in the act of June 30, 1864, to disturb the subdivisions of the 22d section of the act of March, 1861, and the 13th section of act July, 1862, which provide that "Muskets shall be liable to duty at the rate of 35 per cent ad valorem. I am of the opinion that the exception by the appellant to your assessment of 45 per cent thereon, is well taken, and that his claim to have the muskets in question, assessed at the rate of 35 per cent is admissible.

You will please have the entry adjusted accordingly.

I am, very respectfully,

H. MCCULLOCH,
Secretary of the Treasury.

To CHARLES JAMES, Esq.,
Collector, San Francisco, Cal.

EMBROIDERED WOOL COVERS AND EMBROIDERED COTTON AND WORSTED REPS

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, April 20, 1865.

SIR:

Messrs. Webster & Craig, in behalf of Messrs. J. Houldsworth & Co., have appealed (No. 2,549) from your decision assessing duty, at the rate of 24 cents per pound and 40 per cent ad valorem, on certain (so-styled) "Embroidered Wool Covers," and also from your decision assessing duty, at the rate of 50 per cent ad valorem, on certain (so styled) "Embroidered Cotton and Worsted Reps."

The appellants claim that said goods are liable to duty at the rate of 35 per cent under the 22d section, of act of March 2, 1861, and section 13, act July 14, 1862. viz: "Manufactures of cotton, linen, silk, wool or worsted, if embroidered or tamboured, in the loom or otherwise, by machinery or with the needle, or other process, not otherwise provided for."

Duty was assessed on the articles in question as follows: "On the "Embroidered Wool Covers" under 2d subdivision of section 5 of act approved June 30,

1864, commencing with the words "on Woollen Cloths" and ending with the words "ad valorem," where the first occur in said subdivision; on the "Embroidered Cotton and Worsted Reps" under the clause in 6th subdivision of 5th section act approved June 30, 1864, which is as follows: "on bunting, and all other manufactures of worsted, mohair, alpaca, or goats' hair, or of which worsted, mohair, alpaca, or goats' hair shall be a component material, not otherwise provided for, fifty per centum ad valorem."

It must be observed that the sections of law commonly known as the embroidery clauses, under which the appellants claim to enter the Embroidered Wool Covers, contain the words "*not otherwise provided for.*"

It has been the practice to classify under these sections, such goods as are commercially known as "Embroideries," and not manufactures of any material, to which some embroidery *may be added.* Any other or different construction could be made to nullify entirely the wool, worsted, silk, cotton, and flax clauses in the existing tariff acts, by simply adding an embroidered figure or stripe, of comparatively but little value, and which might be removed at pleasure afterwards, and thus the payment of part of the proper duty (varying from 5 to 25 per cent., according to the article imported) could be evaded.

I am of the opinion that the rates of duty assessed by you are correct, and your decision is hereby affirmed.

I am, very respectfully,

By order:

GEO. HARRINGTON,
Assistant Secretary of the Treasury.

To SIMEON DRAPER, Esq.,
Collector, New York.

BRONZE STATUARY—SO STYLED.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, April 14, 1865.

SIR:

Messrs. BALL, BLACK & Co. have appealed [No. 2,537] from your decision assessing duty, at the rate of 35 per cent ad valorem, on certain so styled "Bronze Statuary," imported by them in steamship "China" in March last, claiming the same to be liable to duty at 10 per cent only as "Statuettes."

It is understood that the articles imported by Messrs. Ball, Black & Co. are articles of merchandise, and not professional productions in the ordinary sense. I am further informed that my predecessor excluded from the classification of statuary articles of similar character to those in question.

I am of the opinion that these articles are properly classified by you as manufactures of bronze, and your decision is hereby affirmed.

I am, very respectfully,

H. MCCULLOCH,
Secretary of the Treasury.

To SIMEON DRAPER, Esq.,
Collector, New York.

TIN PLATES, NOT GALVANIZED—LIABLE TO 25 PER CENT DUTY.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, April 24, 1865.

SIR:

Your reports on the appeals (No. 2,490 and 2,491) of Messrs Locke & Montague are received.

I have examined into the facts, and am of the opinion that the requirements of law in relation to protests and appeals have been complied with by Messrs. Locke & Montague, and that consequently their importations of Tin Plates per

British ship "Viscata" should be admitted to entry upon payment of 25 per cent. ad valorem duty.

The act of June 30, 1864, did not contemplate the imposition of 2½ cents per pound on Tin Plates, as exacted by you, and constructively you had no authority to exact it. The ambiguity in the phraseology of the 3d section of the act misled you.

You will adjust the entries of Messrs. Locke & Montague accordingly.

I am, very respectfully,

By order:

GEO. HARRINGTON,
Assistant Secretary of the Treasury.

To CHARLES JAMES, Esq.,
Collector, San Francisco, Cal.

WINE—VALUE STATED BY HOGSHEADS AND QUARTER CASKS.]

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, April 26, 1865.

GENTLEMEN:

Your appeal (No. 2.500) is received, dated January 27. 1865, from the decision of the Collector at New York, assessing a specific duty at the rate of $1 per gallon, in addition to the ad valorem duty of 25 per cent, on 10 hogsheads and 40 quarter casks of Wines, being a portion of your importation of Sherry Wines per Bremen bark "Washington," from Cadiz, in September last.

You state that, "on the part of the collector of this port, (New York) it is claimed that the value of the 1,999½ gallons landed here is the invoice amount of $2,040 and 2½ per cent commission, in all $2,091, *i. e.*, exceeding $1 per gallon."

It appears that the above wine was entered as of the dutiable value of $69.70 *per hogshead*, and $34.85 *per quarter cask*; that by the invoice presented it was valued at $34 per quarter cask and $68 per hogshead, which packages were stated to contain respectively 35 and 70 gallons each. By the guager's return, however, the *capacity* of the hogsheads was found to be but 66½ gallons, and that of the quarter casks 33½ gallons. The invoice value being stated by hogsheads and quarter casks, the rate per gallon was over $1, and duty was assessed accordingly.

The decision of the collector is hereby affirmed.

I am, very respectfully,

By order:

GEO. HARRINGTON,
Assistant Secretary of the Treasury.

To Messrs. H. BARNSTORFF & Co.,
New York.

TOBACCO.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, April 27, 1865.

SIR:

Messrs. Herman, Koop & Co. have appealed (No. 1,679) from your decision assessing duty, at the rate of 25 cents per pound, on certain Tobacco imported per Hamburg bark "Energie," and allege that on or about the 10th August, 1862, they withdrew said Tobacco for consumption, and paid the rate of duty, which it was then supposed it was liable to, to wit: 25 per cent ad valorem.

The change in the rate of duty on Tobacco made by the act approved July 14, 1862, was not at the time (August 10, 1862) known to you; subsequently, on or about August 20, 1862. information reached you that the rate had been changed, on August 1. 1862, on Leaf Tobacco from 25 per cent ad valorem. to

25 cents per pound, and the entry was adjusted to conform to the law, and the difference claimed by you, and from the payment of this difference they seek to be relieved.

The legal rate of duty on the Tobacco in question, on the day it was withdrawn for consumption by the appellants, was 25 cents per pound. I have no authority to direct that any other or less duty shall be assessed thereon.

Your decision is hereby affirmed.

I am, very respectfully,

By order:

GEO. HARRINGTON,
Assistant Secretary of the Treasury.

To CHARLES JAMES, Esq.,
Collector, San Francisco, Cal.

HEMP TWINE—NOT HEMP YARN, THOUGH SO STYLED IN THE INVOICE.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, May 3, 1865.

SIR

Your appeal (No. 2,571) is received in behalf of R. Langell and Louis Demas from the decision of the collector of customs at Detroit, assessing duty, at the rate of 35 per cent, on certain Hemp *Twine* under section 22 act March, 1861, and section 13 act July, 1862, which provide for "Twines and pack thread of whatever material composed, not otherwise provided for."

There is no other provision for *Twines* in any existing tariff acts, excepting Twines of *flax or linen* at 40 per cent ad valorem, (1st subdivision, section 7, act 30th June, 1864.)

The importation in question not being Hemp *Yarn*, your argument that it ought to pay as such, does not avail in the face of the positive terms of the law as to *Twines*, nor would it be of any consequence if the article in the "bill of purchase" was denominated *Hemp Yarn* when it is actually *Twine*.

The collector does not in any manner seem to have "confounded" the article referred to "with Flax Twine," as suggested by you; his reasons are clearly expressed, ample and conclusive, and his decision is hereby affirmed.

I am, very respectfully,

By order:

GEO. HARRINGTON,
Assistant Secretary of the Treasury.

To D. R. AUSTIN, Esq.,
Attorney for R. Langell and Louis Demas,
Toledo, Ohio.

PARIS SKIRTINGS—SIMILAR TO BALMORALS.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, May 5, 1865.

SIR:

Messrs. H. B. Claflin & Co. (No. 2,562) have appealed from your decision assessing duty, at the rate of 24 cents per pound and 35 per cent ad valorem, on certain merchandise imported by them per steamer "City of Dublin," from Liverpool, February 18, 1865, and claim that said goods are "manufactures of worsted and cotton in the piece, and are sold and used for making dresses, and in no sense come under the provisions for Balmoral Skirts more than any dress goods; and, furthermore, that the same class of goods are admitted at the port of Boston at the duty assessed upon dress goods."

The goods in question are described in the invoice as "Paris Skirtings," and samples furnished the experts of the customs, were examined with remarkable care, resulting in the conclusion that the goods are manufactures of worsted and

cotton, and are of a similar description to Balmorals, "*or used for like purposes*," and are not appropriate for, nor used as "women's and children's dress goods."

The concluding clause, commencing with the words "on Balmorals," of the 2d subdivision of 5th section, act June 30, 1864, provides the duty for the merchandise in conformity with your action, and your decision is hereby affirmed.

It may be proper to add, that the allegation of the appellants "that the same class of goods are admitted at the port of Boston at the duty assessed upon dress goods," is denied by the officers at that port.

I am, very respectfully,

By order:

H. McCULLOCH,
Secretary of the Treasury.

To SIMEON DRAPER, Esq.,
Collector, New York.

HUMAN HAIR.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, May 13, 1865.

GENTLEMEN:

Your appeal (No. 2,574) dated 6th instant, from the decision of the collector at New York, assessing duty at the rate of 30 per cent ad valorem, on certain Human Hair imported by you per steamers "Cuba" and "City of Washington," in January and March last, for parties residing in New York and Brooklyn, is received.

The 25th subdivision of section 8, act approved July 14, 1862, is as follows: "On human hair, raw, uncleaned, and not drawn, 20 per centum ad valorem; when cleaned or drawn, but not manufactured, 30 per centum ad valorem; when manufactured, 40 per centum ad valorem.'

The point involved being a question of fact, attention was specially called to your appeal, and the appraisers report as follows: "We have given an unusual degree of attention to the allegations of these complainants for several months past, and it is our firm conviction, and the opinion of our experts and well informed dealers in human hair, that the article is drawn, and therefore properly liable to the duty assessed at 30 per cent ad valorem." "It may be proper to add that our classification of similar goods for other importers has been acquiesced in by them, and we are satisfied no injustice has been committed."

The decision of the collector is herebv affirmed.

I am, very respectsully,

By order:

H. McCULLOCH,
Secretary of the Treasury.

To Messrs. AUSTIN BALDWIN & Co,
New York.

IRON TOP PLATES—PARTS OF SEWING MACHINES.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, May 15, 1865.

SIR:

Your appeal (No. 2,578) is received from the decision of the collector at New York, assessing duty on certain "Iron Top Plates," being parts of Sewing Machines of your own manufacture, which were shipped to England in July, 1864, and have been returned per ship "Polar Star" from London.

It appears that you have had refunded to you on said "Iron Top Plates," by the Internal Revenue Department, a portion of the taxes, amounting to, as al-

leged by you, the sum of seven dollars and seventy cents.

The statute provides only for the free admission of American manufactures on which *no* drawback has been allowed, and the Department has decided that *parts* of an exportation cannot be returned free of duty.

I am not aware of any provisions of law under which I can grant you relief.

The papers transmitted in your appeal are herewith returned.

I am, very respectfully,

By order:

H. McCulloch,
Secretary of the Treasury.

To Hugh Cheyne, Esq.,
Office of the Singer Manufacturing Co.,
458 Broadway, New York.

BUTTONS—PENAL DUTY.

Treasury Department, May 18, 1865.

Sir:

Your report on the appeal (No. 2,579) of Messrs. Flues & Co., dated 13th inst., from your decision assessing an additional or penal duty of 20 per cent on the appraised value of six cases Buttons imported by them in the steamer "Bremem" is received.

You state "this additional duty was exacted under the 23d section of the tariff act of 30th June, 1864; the appraised value of the goods exceeding the invoice value by 10 per cent or more."

"The appellants had the right to add to the invoice value on making entry, which they omitted to do at that time, and no notice was given by them at this office that an error had been discovered, either in the invoice or declared value, in order to bring the case within article 295 of General Regulations."

"They did, however, write a certain letter to their broker, which was placed in the hands of the appraisers, with a view of avoiding difficulty at the Custom House, without expressing any desire to make any new declaration of value; on the contrary, they expressed their belief that the goods were invoiced at their value."

Your decision is hereby affirmed.

I am, very respectfully,

By order:

H. McCulloch,
Secretary of the Treasury.

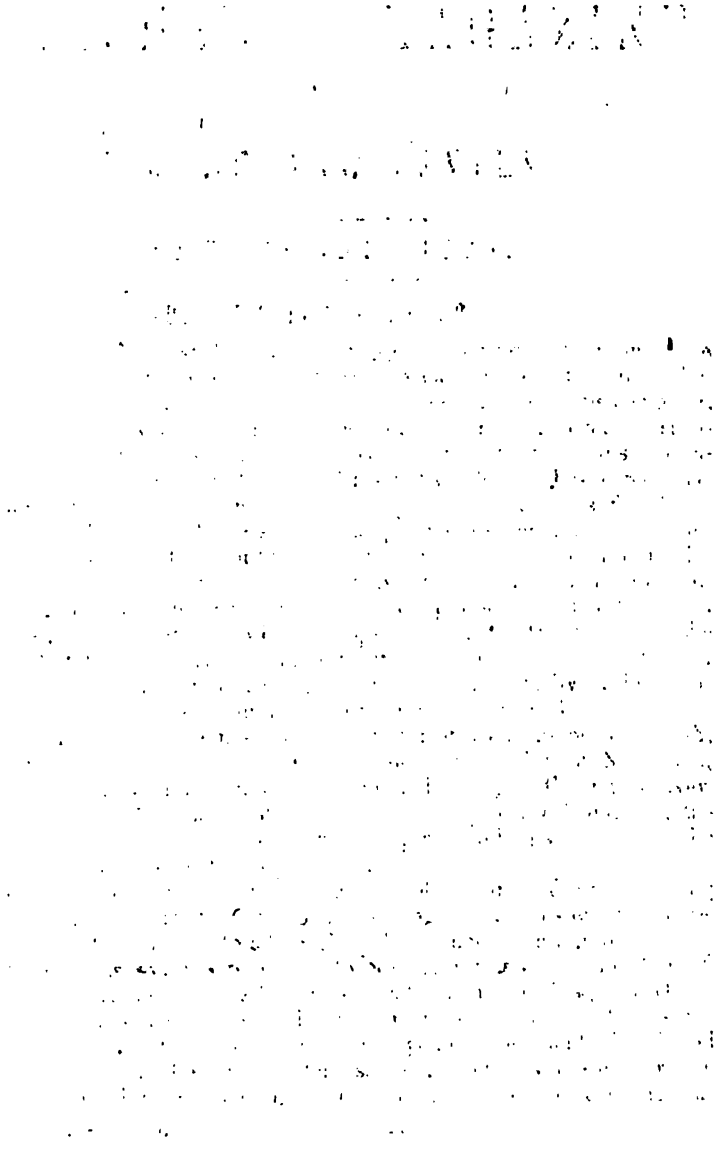
To Simeon Draper, Esq.,
Collector, New York.

CONTENTS OF AUGUST NUMBER.

ART.		PAGE
1.	The Detroit Convention	99
2.	The Plague—Danger to Commerce	99
3.	American Manufactures and Productions	99
4.	Marine Insurance	100
5.	Finances of the State of New York	101
6.	Prices of Gold at New York	102
7.	The United States Debt	103
8.	Commercial Law.—No. 22. The Law of Shipping	104
9.	Commercial Chronicle and Review	105
10.	Journal of Banking, Currency, and Finance	106
11.	Passenger Railroads in New York	107
12.	Minnesota—its Resources and Progress	108
13.	Commercial Regulations	109

W. G. Jackman.

L. Robinson



THE

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE

AND

COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

SEPTEMBER, 1865.

HON. LUCIUS ROBINSON.

The subject of this sketch has already won honorable distinction in the public service. As a patriot rather than a partisan, a statesman rather than a politician, as an upright man, simple and earnest in his character, confiding and devoted in his friendships, and resolute even to stubbornness in following out his convictions of public duty, Lucius Robinson will be recorded in the history of his native State. His career has been marked by sterling integrity and the most scrupulous fidelity to principle. He never has hesitated to pursue his convictions to their legitimate results, or to subordinate his personal ambition to the public interest. He may not possess what is flatteringly denominated an original mind, but he certainly has a rare power to grasp facts and principles, and apply them to their proper purposes. He has been the architect of his own fortune, and has earned for himself a reputation of which any man may well be proud. He is emphatically a lover of justice, and would never voluntarily do wrong to a human being.

Lucius Robinson, the present Comptroller of the State of New York, was born in Windham, Greene County, on the 4th day of November, 1810. His family came from Connecticut, and belong to the purest New England stock. He is a lineal descendant of Rev. John Robinson, the first minister of the Puritans of England, and inherits many of the characteristics of his celebrated ancestor.

The father of Mr. Robinson was an officer in the army during the whole of the War of 1812. He was a farmer, and his circumstances were too much straitened to afford his children more than a good English education. This son was permitted to provide in this respect for himself, and became a student at the Delaware Academy in the village of Delhi, paying his way by teaching school several months each year. This is not an uncommon practice among American young men, and the liberal professions are full of similar instances. Mr. Robinson passed through the usual vicissitudes attending such struggles. As a teacher he was

familiar in his manner and simple in the language which he employed; never pedantic or affected. As a student, he was patient and laborious, always mastering the subject which received his attention.

Having selected the law for his vocation, Mr. ROBINSON begun the study in the office of General ERASTUS ROOT, completing the course with Judge AMASA J. PARKER, at Delhi; and was admitted to practice as an attorney of the Supreme Court, in October, 1832. He opened an office a few months afterward at Catskill, and took rank at once among the foremost of the junior members of the Bar. In 1837 he received the appointment of District Attorney of Greene County, and held the position till 1840, at which time he removed to the City of New York. In 1843 he was appointed by Governor BOUCK Master in Chancery. He soon afterward entered into partnership with the late DAVID CODWISE, who had held the same position to general acceptance. The firm did a very large business, involving heavy pecuniary responsibilities, and the interests of the largest capitalists, banking and trust companies in the city. For this purpose not only ability and integrity were required, but a thorough knowledge of the rules of law and equity. Mr. ROBINSON was reappointed in 1846 by SILAS WRIGHT, then Governor, and continued in office till the Court of Chancery was abolished by the new constitution. After that time it became the custom to appoint referees to transact the business before transacted in the Court of Chancery. In that way Mr. ROBINSON was soon occupied to the utmost of his ability. His office now resembled a court room; indeed it was a common remark that he tried more causes than any Judge in the City of New York.

His judgments gave such general satisfaction, that an appeal was seldom taken from them; and in such events, they were usually affirmed. His incessant employment in this manner withdrew him from the arena in which lawyers win their proudest triumphs. But this was more than compensated; his mind was inured to thorough and impartial investigation. Instead of being engaged in winning success for one side, his efforts were employed in securing justice for both parties.

His health finally giving way from the severe labor and close confinement which this incessant employment imposed, he was obliged to leave his profession; and accordingly removed to his farm in the County of Chemung. Here his constitution, naturally vigorous, and preserved by temperance and correct habits, after two or three years, began to recuperate.

Mr. ROBINSON had always taken a lively interest in politics. He belonged from early life to the school of JEFFERSON, and was an earnest supporter of the doctrines and policy of JACKSON and VAN BUREN. In the management of State matters, he ranked with such men as SILAS WRIGHT, WILLIAM L. MARCY and AZARIAH C. FLAGG, and has continued to maintain unswervingly the same principles.

In the autumn of 1859, unexpectedly to himself, he was nominated by acclamation for the Assembly of this State, by the Republican Convention of Chemung. The county being almost equally divided politically, the elections were strongly contested. Mr. ROBINSON received a considerable democratic vote in addition to that of his own party, and was elected.

He carried to his legislative duties the same sterling integrity which had always actuated his conduct, and while the Legislature of 1860 sustains an

infamous reputation before the world, the breath of suspicion never sullied his fair fame.

The prominent measures agitated that winter were the celebrated *pro rata* freight bill, the "anti-rent" bill, the Susquehanna Railroad bill, and the New York City Railroad bills. To each of them Mr. ROBINSON gave the most sedulous attention. The *pro rata* freight bill had been prepared under the auspices of the "Clinton League," an association of canal forwarders, and proposed to regulate the charges of the railroad companies of this State for the transportation of way freight, compelling them to do the work at prices proportionate to the rates of their through freight. It was introduced into the Assembly by the report of a select committee, of which Hon. THOMAS T. FLAGLER of Niagara, was chairman. It was a measure extraordinary in its requirements, and almost incomprehensible in its verbiage, having "neither beginning nor end, nor middle."

Mr. ROBINSON, on the 27th of February, attacked the bill in a set speech, close in its logic and unanswerable in argument. He compared the business of transportation to that of merchandise, the through freights being represented by wholesale transactions, and way freight, by retailing; and showed that it was impossible for a railroad company to do business if the prices should be graduated by distance. Upon no road, upon no river, upon no canal in the whole country, he declared, had this iron *pro rata* rule ever been applied to way freights. All rules and all analogies are against it. It would only work disaster to all parties, and compel the railroads of New York to abandon the carrying of through freight, and to raise the rates of way freight in order to support themselves at all. The measure would be a violation of the franchises of the companies, which the Legislature had granted, thus involving a breach of public faith, the maximum of human guilt. After arguing the question thus candidly, Mr ROBINSON brought his remarks to a close as follows:

"Legislate as much as we may, the trade will go where it can go cheapest and quickest. In doing so, it obeys the laws of trade, which are higher than any that we can make. Let us not forget that we live in a progressive and a fast age and country. Commercial enterprise is running its competing lines all over the globe. Railways are supplanting canals, and the brain may be even now at work which is to invent some power to take the place of railways. We can no more stay these things than we can change the course of the planets. There is 'an inexorable logic of events' which it is as vain to resist as it is to contend with the Almighty. The bill before us, in my opinion, is an attempt to reverse the wheels of time and make them roll backward. It is a bill to violate the laws of trade, to enact or manifest wrong, to do injustice to the railroads, to drive away the trade of the State and of its great emporium. Last of all, it is a bill to violate the faith of the State and the Constitution of the United States. These are my reasons for opposing it. I think they are sufficient."

The measure, however, passed the House by the bare vote of 65, but was lost in the Senate. The discussion which had been elicited proved fatal to it; and it never appeared again in the Legislature. Mr. ROBINSON also opposed the bill making a grant of money to the Albany and Susquehanna Railroad as vitious in policy, and a violation of the intent of the Constitution. It passed the Legislature, and was vetoed by Governor MORGAN. The Anti-Rent bill also received his opposition on the ground

of being an attempt to impair the obligation of contracts. His speech on this measure was a superior production, and embittered against him the principal members of the anti-rent party.

The New York city railroad grants had been determined upon by that close corporation known as the "Lobby," months before the Legislature had been elected. All artifices that could be devised—partisan appeals to staunch republicans, on the pretext that a fund could be obtained to aid in electing a President, promises to members of shares of stock sufficient to secure each a competency, suborning officers of the Legislature, and other expedients—were employed to secure a majority for them. Mr. ROBINSON opposed them on the ground that all responsibility of the grantees had been carefully excluded from each bill. The grants were "made to Tom, Dick, and Harry, without proper security or guarantee" for their building or proper operation.

In the autumn of 1860 Mr. ROBINSON was again renominated and elected by a larger majority than before. He was now the representative man of the party in the Assembly opposed to legislation for corrupt purposes, and as such was supported in the republican canvass for the Speakership. An accidental misunderstanding resulted in his defeat. But the moral strength of that Legislature was with him. His career that winter was destined to be of vital importance to the country.

On the first day of the session of the Legislature of 1861, he introduced the famous "Robinson Resolutions." Their principal proposition was the organization of all the public Territory into two States, thus throwing the question of slavery outside of Congress. He did not anticipate that this policy would be accepted by the seceding States, but he wished to exhaust all the means of conciliation before final resort to arms.

A Legislative caucus proposed the voting down of the resolutions without debate; but to this Mr. ROBINSON would not accede. They were accordingly made a special order, and he employed the occasion to address "words to unwilling ears." After showing that Mr. LINCOLN's administration would be in a minority in Congress, he proceeded to prove that the leading Republicans of the nation were in favor of a compromise. Mr. SEWARD had foreshadowed it; Mr. CAMERON was willing to adopt the Crittenden resolutions; Mr. JOHN SHERMAN had said the same thing. So had "the organ of the Republican party of the city of Albany, whose veteran editor, whenever he desired to carry a scheme, had only to wave his magic wand over the Assembly, and the majority of knees would be sure to bend." He then said:

"One consideration more, and I am done. We have waged wars, won honors, and vindicated our rights on many a field. It is but a few years since we engaged in war with Mexico, and our march was one continued triumph over that country; but, before we struck a blow, we begged them to accept terms of peace. After every battle, although we were uniformly victors, we never waited for them to sue for peace; we uniformly offered it; we carried the sword in one hand and the olive branch in the other, and the world applauded our policy. I put it to the gentlemen here, if we are now going to behave with less magnanimity towards our own brethren in our own country? Why, we say to them that we are determined not only to fight you, but we are determined not to show any spirit of conciliation. We are determined that the world shall see that we are sworn not

to have any peace. I know the answer made to all this. 'They are traitors, rebels; they are in arms against the government; hold no parley with them.' That is the language which the law should hold towards criminals. But what are you going to do about it? Are you going to punish them as traitors and rebels? Do you propose to hang all South Carolina, Georgia and Alabama? Are you going to try and arraign them? You never will do it. You will never treat these men as traitors and rebels. You will, as I have said before, compromise with them—offer some terms of adjustment to them in the end.

"Now, then, is there anything more reasonable, is there anything more fair, is there anything that any man can feel as detracting from his honor or principles in the proposition I have presented? By passing it you put away the cause of strife, and the strife itself will soon follow it. By exhibiting a spirit of peace your influence will be felt even upon these wild, frenzied men at the South. It costs something to do it I admit. It costs a little curbing of this uprising pride and indignation which every man naturally feels to see men conducting as they do; but let us remember that we are trying an experiment of self-government before all the world. If, when our Southern brethren madly violate the laws and commit acts which arouse our indignation and exasperate us, we immediately give way to passionate resentment and declare that we will fight them, we exhibit precisely the same ungovernable spirit which they do—we show ourselves incapable of self-government. The true way to treat the difficulty, in my judgment, is, not to prepare for invasion and conquest, but to stand firm and oppose an impassable barrier to all this assault upon the Constitution, the Union and the Government, and to do it in a spirit of calmness and and peace, with a desire for conciliation—in the same spirit in which the Constitution was formed, in which the Government has hitherto been carried on, and which must be displayed to the end, or it will fall, and with it will fall the last hope of the capacity of man for self-government in all the earth."

Mr. Robinson's duties and trials in the winter of 1861 were severe and arduous. As Chairman of the Committee of Ways and Means, he had the financial budget of the State to prepare, requiring familiarity with the resources of the Treasury and the wants of the public service. His wife, to whom he was devotedly attached, was on her death-bed. The country was apparently falling to pieces, with the connivance of those sworn to maintain it. Day after day there came into the Assembly communications from the Governors of the recusant States announcing their withdrawal from the Union; all which were laid silently on the table. The leadership on the floor of that House was attended with more than usual responsibility. The desolating blow fell at his hearthstone; and, like the patriarch, he hastened to bury his dead, and then resumed his labors. A new administration was inaugurated amid the throes of a dismembered Union. But hostilities were slow to commence; each party hesitating at the first step. The Legislature of 1861 was about to dissolve, when came the news of the bombardment of Fort Sumter.

Mr. Robinson had anticipated this from the moment he took his seat. He was not a man for "half-way measures." In concert with the Attorney General he drafted a bill authorizing a State tax of $3,000,000, the raising of 30,000 troops and the placing of them at the disposal of the

President. To avoid delays from parliamentary tactics the bill was reported by Hon. GEORGE T. PIERCE, of Ulster, from the Committee on Military Affairs, on Monday, and made at once the special order.

MR. ROBINSON supported it in a brief speech: "The crisis had come," he said; "the issue must be decided by the arbitrament of the sword. It is time no longer for discussion or partisanship; henceforth, till this conflict shall be decided, I belong to no political organization but my country; I will know no political party but those loyal to the government, and the the traitors conspiring for its overthrow." Other speakers followed in a similar strain. Messrs. HUTCHINGS, of New York; DARCY, of Kings; BERGEN, of Suffolk; TABER, of Queens, and other prominent democrats avowed similar loyalty, and the bill passed with only six negative votes. It became a law, and proved a most judicious and necessary measure.

The coming season was spent by MR. ROBINSON in aiding the work of preparation. In September the political parties began to arrange for the coming election; but their work was forestalled. A few citizens, on their own responsibility, called a State Convention of Union men, without distinction of political lines. It met, and placed a State ticket in nomination. Three democrats, two "old whigs," and two republicans were the candidates, MR. ROBINSON being named for Comptroller. The Republican State Convention adopted them with a single exception, and then adjurned, never again to be called together. The people elected the Union candidates; MR. ROBINSON receiving on this occasion the largest majority ever given in New York for a State officer.

The office of Comptroller is perhaps the most responsible in the State. The law creating it was drawn up by SAMUEL JONES, and enacted in 1797, by the Legislature and though three Constitutional Conventions have since been held it still remains unchanged. Governors, Legislatures and political Conventions have emulated each other in the selection of able and worthy men to fill the position. It has been held in succession by such men as Samuel Jones, John Savage, William L. Marcy, Silas Wright, Azariah C. Flagg, John A. Collier, Millard Fillmore, Washington Hunt, John C. Wright, Jmaes M. Cook, Lorenzo Burrows, Sanford E. Church and Robert Denniston. That galaxy of names is honored by the addition of LUCIUS ROBINSON to the number.

The first question of significance to which the new Comptroller directed his attention was the obligation of the State to pay its indebtedness in coin. His first report, made in January 1863, sets forth explicitly his views upon the subject—which were views, it will be seen, of the leaders of the political school in which he had grown up. In conformity with them he shows how the State of New York had heretofore acted, and thereby maintained her financial honor. We quote the following extracts:

"The precious metals are the representatives of value, and constitute the basis of a sound circulating medium throughout the whole commercial world.

"Depart from that standard as far as may, the laws of trade, more patent than all statutes, will ultimately drive us back to it; and the farther depart from it the more severe will be the suffering through which we shall be compelled to return."

"The great depreciation of the currency, produced by excessive issues of irredeemable paper, and by the spirit of speculation, always engendered thereby, involves the finances of the State in difficulties of a very serious character. Even since the State first pledged its faith for the payment of money loaned to it upon its stocks, it has held itself bound in honor to pay both principal and interest of its funded debt in

specie or its equivalent. Through all the commercial revulsions that have occured, it has adhered firmly to this principle; but never has it been called upon to maintain its honor by such heavy pecuniary sacrifice as at present.

"The Commissioners of the Canal Fund, and the Comptroller especially have felt keenly the responsibility cast upon them in regard to the payments of high rates of premium for coin; but in view of the past history of the State, of its high credit as a specie-paying State, both at home and abroad, of the pecuniary advantages which it has received therefrom, of the fact that the Federal Government, and also the States of Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana and Illinois, were paying the interest on their stocks in coin, they could not and did not hesitate to direct the Manhattan Company to make the payments for this State in the same way. Unless we are to be entirely overwhelmed with unredeemable legal tender notes, it is most respectfully supported that some consideration should induce the Legislature to provide for a continuance of the policy which has hitherto been pursued. It will doubtless require heavy pecuniary sacrifices; but these will be the test of the true honor of the State, which, like that of an individual, is of little worth if maintained only when it costs nothing."

Those desirous of knowing his views of public policy will find a tolerably fair summary in the following extract from his last Annual Report:

"The financial affairs of the nation are carried on upon a scale so gigantic, the subject of banking and currency have fallen so entirely under the control of the Federal Government, State laws and institutions are overshadowed to such an extent that it would now be in vain to suggest any course of State action for the purpose of remedying evils which exist in these respects. The people have clearly and resolutely determined that however great those evils may be, and whatever may be the cost, the war shall go on until the rebellion is completely subdued, and the authority of the Constitution and laws re-established in every State of the Union. When that grand object shall have been accomplished it is to be hoped that the just rights of the States, which have been, to some extent, overrode by the exigencies of war, will again be vindicated. Until then, it is plainly the dictate of wisdom and duty to avoid incurring any indebtedness, or assuming any pecuniary obligations not absolutely necessary; to conduct the affairs of the State with the utmost prudence and economy; and, as far as possible, to lighten the load of taxation which is pressing so heavily upon the industry of the people."

Since entering upon his office, to which he was re-elected in 1863, Mr. Robinson has received and paid out over fifteen million dollars for purposes connected with the war, besides almost double that amount for governmental and educational purposes. As a member of the Canal Board, and other departments of the State government, he has always been an efficient officer, and "jealous with a godly jealousy" for the best interests of the State. It may be that he is sometimes too anxious and particular in these respects, but it is a fault entirely "on virtue's side."

In strict consistency with these sentiments, Mr. Robinson has exercised the functions of his office. They constitute the policy which must be steadily followed to ensure permanent peace and prosperity to this country.

Mr. Robinson is of medium hight, dark hair, dark complexion and impressive manner. The expression of his countenance is generally mild; his eyes often sparkle with humor and vivacity, but are keen and scrutinizing; his disposition is kind and generous; but of baseness and dishonesty he is bitterly intolerant. He betrays a shyness of manner when in a large company, indicating a natural bashfulness which fifty years have not overcome. In the social circle he is best appreciated; where he is known he is generally esteemed. His name is the synonym for integrity.

NEW YORK RAILROAD MOVEMENT.

Even a cursory glance at the results embodied in the annual returns made to the State Engineer and Surveyors show that the railroads of this State have thriven immensely during the war, and by reason of it. Previous to that event a great portion of the vast aggregate production of the valley of the Mississippi, and the valleys of its numerous tributaries found their way to market by the River. In 1860 New Orleans was the second city in the Union as regards the amount and value of its exports, and far beyond all other cities in the number of steamboats employed in its trade. The following table will exhibit the amount of its foreign commerce in 1860 as compared with the other principal ports of the Union:

Port.	Value of Exports.	Value of Imports.
New York	$126,060,967	$248,489,807
New Orleans	107,812,580	22,922,973
Mobile	38,670,183	1,050,310
Charleston	21,193,723	1,569,570
Savannah	18,483,088	782,061
Boston	15,246,419	41,187,539
Philadelphia	5,542,815	14,634,279

From the above table it will be seen that though New Orleans, and indeed the Southern ports generally, exceeded the Northern ports in exports, they fell largely behind them in imports. This was due to the nature of the goods exchanged. The bulky produce of the South was more cheaply exported by way of the water channel formed by the great rivers of the West and South, and the Gulf and Sea; while the lighter articles of manufacture for which they were exchanged could afford to be sent over land by way of the great trunk lines of railroads diverging from the Northern ports. In 1860 the number of steamboats which arrived at New Orleans from up river was 3,566, and of flat-boats 831.

The war, by shutting up the Mississippi and closing the Southern ports, stopped all this vast traffic and turned it towards the East overland by the railroads debouching on the Atlantic seaboard.

The condition of our railroads in 1860 was briefly as follows:—Up to 1850 little had been done towards connecting the coast cities with the great interior basins of the country. In that year the total extent of railroads in operation all over the Union was 8,588 miles, costing $296,260,128. In 1860, it was 30,598 miles, costing $1,134,452,909. In 1850 only one line of railroad connected the seaboard with the country lying west of the Alleghanies. This was composed of the several links that now form the New York Central, and even this was restricted in the carriage of freight, except on the payment of Canal tolls, in addition to other charge for transportation, which restriction amounted to a virtual prohibition. The line next opened, and connecting the western system of lakes and rivers with tide water, was that extending from Boston to Ogdensburg, composed of distinct links, the last of which was completed

in 1850. The third was the New York and Erie, which was opened on the 22d April, 1851. The fourth was the Pennsylvania, which was completed in 1852, although its mountain division was not opened until 1854. Previous to this time its summit was overcome by a series of inclined planes, with stationary engines constructed by the State. The fifth great line, the Baltimore and Ohio, was opened in 1853. Still further South the Tennessee River was reached in 1850 by the Western and Atlantic railroad of Georgia, and the Mississippi itself by the Memphis and Charleston Railroad in 1859. In the extreme north the Grand Trunk of Canada was completed early in 1853. In 1858 the Virginia system of isolated local lines was extended to a connection with the Memphis and Charleston, and with the Nashville and Chattanooga railroads.

It will thus be seen that at the time of the breaking out of the war, the railroad system of the Northern States had but just been extended to meet the requirements of the internal commerce of the States in case the Mississippi should be closed. Had the war happened ten years sooner, the entire West would have been shut up by it; not only would that section of the country have suffered immeasurably in consequence, but the North and East likewise, thrown back as it would have been upon its own separate resources would have fared much worse than can at this day be sufficiently realised.

Coming at the time it did, however, when the trunk lines were quite prepared to sustain its depressing effects, it produced the happiest effect upon their prosperity.

At that time they were all heavily laden with debt. Built in advance of a sufficient demand for their establishment—built to open up new sections of the country to settlement and commerce—built less as railroads than as land speculations, they furnished a happy illustration of the great principle of the conservation of force in financial matters. No force can be created, says the law, and no force can be lost. Until a legitimate demand for the use of these roads obtained footing they sunk larger sums of capital and were steeped to the eyes in debt. A miserable existence had these trunk lines previous to the war. But with that event the capital which had been applied to them began to show exceedingly fruitful results, and in a few years they have succeeded in emerging from a condition of penury to one of almost absolute independence.

And this condition applies as well to those roads which more or less connect with these trunk lines. A glance at the comparative condition of the various leading and connecting roads of this State since 1860, will illustrate the point:

Roads.	Floating Debt				
	1860.	1861.	1862.	1863.	1864.
Erie	$2,725,620	$2,725,600	$480,665	.....	.....
Buffalo N.Y. & Erie	201,682	212,072	135,547	1,070	.....
Hudson River	182,106	773,411	298,424	4,167	1,167
Rome, Watertown & Ogdensburg	318,860	464,696	64,291	60,571	50,228
Syracuse, Bingh'mpton & New York	121,065	113,789	103,570	97,371	38,832
	$3,549,333	$4,289,518	$1,082,497	$163,179	$90,227

The total floating debt of the five roads above given was, in 1860,

$3,549,333 and increasing. In 1861 it was $4,289,518, and, had the war not occurred in that year, it would have been still greater in 1862. But from the moment the first gun was fired at Sumter, the entire traffic of the country changed its course, and, instead of puffing and snorting through the quiet vallies of the West and South, it came thundering over the bridges and through the tunnels of Northern railroads to the seaboard. In 1862 the floating debt of these roads had fallen to $1,082,497, three-fourths of the debt of 1861 having been wiped out in the meanwhile. In 1863 it had fallen to $163,179, and last year to the insignificant sum of $90,227, mainly in consequenceof the war.

The dividends bear out the same conclusion. During the semi-decade under consideration the Erie paid no dividend at all until 1863, when it paid 8 per cent. In 1864 it paid the same. The Buffalo New York and Erie paid no dividend until 1863, when it paid 5 per cent. The Hudson River paid none until 1864, when it paid semi-annual dividends of 4 and 5 per cent. The Rome, Watertown and Ogdensburg, since its consolidation (composed of the Watertown and Rome, Potsdam and Watertown, Sackett's Harbor, Rome and New York, and the new branch to Ogdensburg,) paid 3 per cent in 1862, 6 per cent in 1863, and 10 per cent in 1864. The Syracuse, Binghampton and New York has paid none at all. The New York Central from 6 per cent in 1860, 1861 and 1862, paid 7 per cent in 1863, and 9 per cent in 1864.

The passenger and traffic returns at once reveal the great abnormal increase of business brought to these roads by the war:

Roads.	Number of passengers carried one mile.		Tons of freight carried one mile.	
	1860.	1864.	1860.	1864.
Erie.....	56,557,070	114,935,925	214,084,396	422,018,644
Buff., N. Y. & Erie	8,884,456	14,010,127	22,771,300	34,718,139
Hudson R.....	66,951,310	98,853,821	40,187,539	72,720,351
Rome, W. & Ogdb'g	5,727,042	12,298,426	6,948,111	11,766,254
Syrac., Buff. & N.Y.	3,175,752	6,035,905	9,331,032	18,293,256
N. Y. Central.....	126,588,091	193,447,785	199,231,392	314,031,413

It were idle to deny that a portion of this great increase of business (doubled within three or four years,) is due to the natural growth of our population, and natural increase of our inland traffic. But, by far, the largest portion of the increase is manifestly due to the war, through the change which that occurrence effected in the previous route of all Western products to the seaboard. This is abundantly proved by the recent statistics of the carriage of sugar, molasses, tobacco and other Southern products to the West over these lines from the Atlantic seaboard—products which had previously found their way there by way of the Mississippi. And it is also proved by the recent increased carriage in the opposite direction of cotton, cattle and cereals—produce of the West and Southwest.

This great commerce between the East and West, so lately developed, amounted in value in 1862, according to a rough estimate made by the Secretary of the Treasury, to nearly $616,000,000. This included the deliveries of merchandize of all classes, at a distance of not less than 300 miles from the Atlantic seaboard westward.

The return freight, eastward, of inland produce and merchandise passing the line of the Alleghanies he estimated at $522,000,000. This would

make the value of the total trade $1,138,000,000; while the total foreign imports and exports of the country for the same year were but $535,758,798; the imports having been $205,819,823, and the exports $229,938,975.

More than doubling, as it does, the external commerce of the country, its internal commerce unless disturbed by adverse legislation or political disturbance, must continue to furnish employment for the main lines of railroad running westward and the lines connecting with them; for although "the Mississippi now flows unvexed to the sea," the experience of the past few years has shown that for all but the bulkiest freight the time saved by railroad transportation makes up for more than the increased cost of carriage by such conveyance as compared with the long and tedious route of water carriage. And as the attention of inventors has of late years been largely called to the desirability of methods to compress and reduce the bulk of cumbersome freight, either by pressure, dessication or other means, the day would appear to be not far distant when the railroads of this country, and particularly those traversing the great State of New York, will attain an era of prosperity now little suspected.

It is well known in surgery that if a main artery be severed and both ends tied up, the blood will force itself through minute collateral arteries called capillaries, and eventually enlarge them to a size sufficient to maintain the accustomed circulation. So the war, by closing the Mississippi River, which was previously our main artery of trade, forced that trade towards the seaboard through the several collateral railroads running eastward. The effect has been to develop and enlarge them, to pay off their floating debts, and make them comparatively independent. And to such an extent has this been effected, that although the Mississippi is now re-opened, the trade of the West still continues to pass over the railroads. Political revolutions, it is said, never go backwards—neither do commercial revolutions. The war cost the North a great sacrifice of blood and treasure, but that it was not without its compensating aspects is sufficiently evidenced by the prosperous state of our railroads.

We have prepared with great care the following very valuable table, showing in detail the movements and prosperity of the leading roads of the State during the past five years:

$3,549,333 and increasing. In 1861 it was $4,289,518, not occurred in that year, it would have been still gre... from the moment the first gun was fired at Sumte... the country changed its course, and, instead of puffi... the quiet vallies of the West and South, it ca... bridges and through the tunnels of Northern... In 1862 the floating debt of these roads had... fourths of the debt of 1861 having been... In 1863 it had fallen to $163,179, and la... of $90,227, mainly in consequence of the...

The dividends bear out the same co... under consideration the Erie paid no... paid 8 per cent. In 1864 it paid th... Erie paid no dividend until 1863... son River paid none until 186... of 4 and 5 per cent. The Ron... consolidation (composed of t... Watertown, Sackett's Harbo... to Ogdensburg,) paid 3 per... cent in 1864. The Syrac... at all. The New York C... paid 7 per cent in 1863...

The passenger and ... increase of business ...

| Roads. | Nur... | | |

SYRACUSE, BING.													
1860	1,200,180	1,642,153	121,065	2,964,348	2,854,212								
1861	1,200,180	1,642,153	113,739	2,957,032	2,860,867								
1862	1,200,000	1,640,757	103,570	2,944,457	2,866,194	8.							
1863	1,200,650	1,691,037	97,371	2,918,588	2,903,085	81							
1864	1,200,130	1,595,257	98,832	2,894,219	2,932,806	81							
OSWEGO AND													
1860	396,340	213,500	4,875	614,715	791,002	36	2,9						
1861	396,340	213,500	4,875	614,715	800,914	36	2,191						
1862	396,340	208,500	16,875	621,215	615,161	36	2,318,4						
1863	396,340	204,000	22,667	623,007	893,480	36	3,406,65						
1864	396,340	311,500	23,706	731,548	901,853	36	3,958,185						
RENSSELAER AND SARAT													
1860	610,000	140,000	.....	750,000	912,172	36	4,820,660	a					6
1861	610,000	249,750	.....	859,750	920,028	36	4,878,949	2,					6
1862	610,000	244,750	.....	854,750	920,028	36	.....	...					6¾
1863	610,000	239,750	.....	849,750	928,884	36	7,041,014	1,984,				,650	7¾
1864	800,000	283,750	.....	1,083,750	962,336	36	6,904,126	2,232,5				56,400	8
TROY AND BOSTON.													
1860	605,911	806,500	247,155	1,659,566	1,534,764	35	3,919,146	4,109,745				..6	.....
1861	606,911	808,500	271,096	1,686,507	1,570,514	35	3,736,453	4,361,960				..,353	.....
1862	606,911	1,000,000	370,000	1,976,911	1,710,014	35	4,023,872	5,730,496	5			65,000	.....
1863	606,911	1,440,000	180,000	2,026,911	1,889,554	35	4,526,856	7,363,215	41.			111,609	.....
1864	607,111	1,250,000	322,700	2,179,811	1,923,268	35	5,432,227	8,228,569	573,.			122,336	.....
NEW YORK AND NEW HAVEN.													
1860	2,980,839	2,104,000	19,889	5,104,728	5,384,284	62	37,897,502	3,909,502	1,049,768		,951	145,195	.....
1861	2,980,839	1,890,000	23,639	4,873,478	5,419,507	62	35,201,978	3,573,925	920,155		437,660	129,448	180,000
1862	2,980,839	2,000,000	69,136	5,049,975	5,419,594	62	37,278,444	3,652,168	995,259		339,077	125,820	180,000
1863	2,980,839	2,000,000	121,223	5,102,062	5,451,939	62	45,739,465	4,354,292	1,298,589	7a	556,948	129,120	360,000
1864	2,980,839	2,000,000	125,631	5,106,460	9,192,520	62	63,302,669	6,201,435	1,840,435	1,070, ,6	709,689	129,190	412,894
LONG ISLAND.													
1860	1,852,715	755,998	12,283	2,620,996	2,566,270	97	9,346,832	2,560,295	343,021	978,736	64,235	33,904	.....
1861	1,852,715	755,998	2,681	2,611,394	2,920,949	97	8,318,375	2,318,339	297,646	211,944	86,402	38,581	.....
1862	1,852,715	782,462	15,213	2,650,390	2,928,474	97	9,499,575	2,906,790	393,457	184,230	109,187	42,811	45,000
1863	1,852,715	782,462	.....	2,635,177	2,928,474	101	10,108,969	3,098,410	360,431	152,250	208,181	46,000	188,500
1864	1,852,715	932,000	.....	2,784,715	2,928,474	188	12,129,928	3,718,092	497,298	162,012	335,286	46,000	210,000
NORTHERN.													
1860	.....	4,571,900	.....	4,571,900	4,809,856	122	3,228,596	15,611,653	458,912	354,985	108,927	107,592	.....
1861	.....	4,571,900	.....	4,571,900	4,816,751	122	2,674,727	15,559,949	426,637	335,576	90,061	108,177	.....
1862	.....	4,571,900	.....	4,571,900	4,819,979	122	3,089,553	19,157,715	492,433	315,680	176,753	104,822	.....
1863	.....	4,571,900	.....	4,571,900	4,588,509	122	3,734,311	19,815,427	573,512	419,543	153,969	106,181	.....
1864	.....	4,571,900	.....	4,571,900	4,644,056	122	5,846,234	21,154,384	738,344	549,704	176,640	108,913	.....

* Dividend on Watertown and Rome stock, $1,449,000. The present road is made up of the Watertown and Rome, Potsdam and Watertown, and Sacketts' Harbor, Rome and New York railroads, and the new branch to Ogdensburg.

A REVIEW OF THE FINANCIAL CONDITION AND MOVEMENTS OF THE PRINCIPAL RAILROADS OF NEW YORK, YEARLY, FOR THE FIVE YEARS ENDING SEPTEMBER 30, 1864.

(COMPILED FROM THE ANNUAL RETURNS MADE TO THE STATE ENGINEER AND SURVEYOR.)

ERIE RAILWAY.

	Capital account.			Cost of	Miles	Carried one mile.		Income account.			Dividends.	
	Share capital.	Funded debt.	Floating debt.	Total amount.	road and equipment.	of road.	Passengers. Number.	Freight. Tons.	Earnings.	Expenses.	Profits.	Interest on debts.	Amount. Rates. p. c.
1860	$24,000,000	$26,351,000	$2,725,620	$53,076,620	$31,106,095	559	56,557,070	214,084,396	$5,180,322	$3,369,596	$1,819,726	$696,920	....
1861	24,000,000	26,351,000	2,725,600	53,076,620	31,524,226	559	54,997,710	251,350,127	5,590,916	3,759,035	1,831,881	1,525,230	....
1862	19,973,200	19,831,500	480,665	40,285,365	39,985,202	559	54,617,695	351,092,285	7,863,973	4,870,431	2,993,542	1,577,980	....
1863	19,973,200	20,093,000	.....	40,066,200	39,328,661	624	71,663,796	403,670,861	10,246,117	6,302,225	3,943,892	1,406,510	1,125,847 8
1864	24,228,800	17,822,900	.....	42,051,700	40,954,464	624	114,935,925	422,013,644	12,551,480	9,057,754	2,493,726	1,287,603	1,687,033 8

NEW YORK AND HARLEM.

1860	5,717,100	6,055,752	.....	11,772,852	10,022,735	131	22,256,772	9,389,119	1,142,851	709,135	433,716	292,883	....
1861	5,717,100	6,000,737	43,788	11,861,625	10,036,543	131	21,183,840	11,432,470	1,144,980	753,727	391,253	403,318	....
1862	5,717,100	5,995,060	84,708	11,796,868	10,036,543	131	12,423,098	15,322,994	1,154,008	697,305	456,698	415,202	....
1863	5,722,800	6,162,591	14,260	11,899,651	10,201,907	131	15,014,360	18,201,839	1,412,426	957,655	454,771	413,406	....
1864	6,582,050	6,115,800	.....	12,697,850	10,616,088	131	20,942,631	15,571,828	1,860,429	1,409,820	450,609	422,440	. ...

HUDSON RIVER.

1860	3,758,566	9,383,750	182,106	13,274,422	11,800,445	144	66,951,810	40,187,539	2,047,145	1,269,025	778,120	631,648	....
1861	3,758,466	9,383,750	773,411	13,895,627	12,049,600	144	54,406,308	42,834,771	1,989,014	1,422,553	566,461	695,548	....
1862	3,758,466	9,383,750	298,494	13,400,640	12,113,794	144	61,277,104	64,375,643	2,637,529	1,367,575	1,269,954	657,016	....
1863	4,422,028	9,165,500	4,167	13,591,690	12,616,310	144	78,538,189	75,191,270	3,581,903	1,748,426	1,733,477	648,354	927,163 ....
1864	6,218,042	7,737,680	1,167	13,956,889	14,669,847	144	98,853,831	72,720,351	4,183,600	2,545,307	1,587,293	594,488	499,287 8 441,980 10s.

NEW YORK CENTRAL.

1860	24,000,000	14,382,528	..... .	38,382,528	31,106,094	556	126,588,091	199,231,392	6,957,941	4,278,841	2,678,400	1,160,528	1,440,000 6
1861	24,000,000	14,613,005	.....	38,613,005	31,524,226	556	116,174,787	237,392,974	7,809,042	4,647,979	2,661,063	1,176,942	1,440,000 6
1862	24,000,000	14,279,593	.....	38,279,593	31,787,398	556	119,023,024	296,963,442	9,356,828	5,607,750	3,749,078	1,195,161	1,440,000 6
1863	24,209,000	13,779,648	.....	37,988,648	32,740,068	556	147,237,968	312,195,796	10,897,631	6,842,633	4,054,998	1,170,200	1,730,400 7
1864	24,586,000	13,211,341	.....	37,797,341	32,879,251	556	193,447,735	314,081,413	12,997,889	9,346,184	3,651,761	1,292,908	2,279,173 9

BUFFALO AND STATE LINE.

1860	1,950,950	1,049,000	27,546	3,027,496	3,163,765	88	15,648,972	16,577,071	911,030	412,973	498,047	100,835	216,000 10
1861	1,960,600	1,049,000	.....	3,009,640	3,165,147	88	14,448,908	20,111,585	940,042	538,117	411,925	96,161	216,000 10
1862	1,977,950	949,000	.....	2,926,950	3,188,461	88	14,370,465	22,468,454	1,207,991	671,351	536,570	87,468	216,000 10
1863	2,200,000	1,400,000	.....	3,600,000	3,269,488	88	21,989,064	38,295,500	1,691,944	1,056,260	635,594	76,850	218,000 10
1864	2,200,200	1,200,000	.....	3,400,000	3,369,088	88	30,634,345	34,620,330	1,945,466	1,232,732	712,734	77,597	220,000 10

ROME, WATERTOWN, AND OGDENSBURG.

1860	2,174,419	1,772,400	318,860	4,265,679	3,951,470	191	5,737,042	6,968,111	427,778	220,275	216,503	91,566	*149,870 10
1861	2,194,419	1,730,000	464,693	4,389,113	3,952,486	191	5,742,033	7,109,189	450,232	253,121	197,111	114,252	*89,940 4.6
1862	1,499,100	1,923,000	64,291	3,486,391	3,460,685	238	5,710,385	7,737,942	458,519	228,298	230,219	121,278	50,964 3
1863	1,579,800	1,784,400	60,571	3,424,771	3,459,880	238	8,014,008	9,668,547	564,300	305,990	278,310	137,698	97,445 6
1864	1,774,175	1,739,900	50,228	3,554,203	3,464,171	238	12,306,426	11,760,354	697,615	466,861	230,754	137,598	164,990 10

SYRACUSE, BINGHAMTON AND NEW YORK.													
1860	1,200,130	1,643,153	121,065	2,964,348	2,854,212	81	3,175,782	9,331,032	227,489	97,672	189,817	120,758	....
1861	1,200,130	1,643,153	113,739	2,957,022	2,860,367	81	2,834,062	11,088,577	231,270	98,923	137,347	115,977	....
1862	1,200,000	1,640,757	103,570	2,944,457	2,856,194	81	2,939,566	15,267,880	260,871	108,114	172,757	114,193	....
1863	1,200,630	1,621,037	97,871	2,918,538	2,903,085	81	3,982,739	15,040,156	323,794	138,886	184,908	103,526	....
1864	1,200,130	1,585,257	88,832	2,824,219	2,932,806	81	6,085,905	18,298,256	411,878	176,929	240,449	110,146	....
OSWEGO AND SYRACUSE.													
1860	396,340	213,500	4,875	614,715	791,002	36	2,905,712	1,732,438	119,666	54,918	64,748	16,205	38,474 10
1861	396,340	213,500	4,875	614,715	800,914	36	2,191,570	1,569,283	116,308	53,748	62,555	14,945	30,878 8
1862	396,340	208,500	16,375	621,215	815,161	36	2,818,581	2,095,022	140,634	62,884	77,750	14,890	27,876 7
1863	396,340	204,000	22,667	623,007	823,480	36	3,406,638	1,916,445	162,757	79,697	83,060	14,510	33,567 8
1864	396,340	311,500	23,708	731,548	901,858	36	3,958,185	2,451,422	218,994	106,936	113,056	13,880	39,228 8
RENSSELAER AND SARATOGA.													
1860	610,000	140,000	.....	750,000	912,172	25	4,820,690	1,947,849	269,353	197,649	71,704	9,244	36,600 6
1861	610,000	249,750	.....	859,750	920,028	25	4,878,949	2,072,121	267,683	193,961	73,721	15,700	18,300 3
1862	610,000	244,750	.....	854,750	920,028	25	.....	.....	276,276	199,431	76,845	16,284	39,650 6¾
1863	610,000	239,750	.....	849,750	938,884	25	7,041,014	1,984,489	335,625	218,175	117,450	14,208	47,165 7¾
1864	800,000	283,750	.....	1,083,750	962,336	25	6,904,196	2,232,550	432,882	281,512	151,330	9,423	56,400 8
TROY AND BOSTON.													
1860	605,911	806,500	247,155	1,659,566	1,584,764	35	3,919,146	4,109,745	312,066	217,239	94,827	79,496	
1861	606,911	808,500	271,096	1,686,507	1,570,514	35	3,736,453	4,361,960	271,158	207,498	63,730	87,852	
1862	606,911	1,000,000	370,096	1,976,911	1,710,014	35	4,023,872	5,730,486	308,886	146,985	161,921	85,000	
1863	606,911	1,240,000	180,000	2,026,911	1,820,554	35	4,526,856	7,363,215	415,321	299,196	126,125	111,609	
1864	607,111	1,260,000	332,700	2,179,811	1,923,268	35	5,433,227	8,238,569	573,446	402,728	170,718	132,336	
NEW YORK AND NEW HAVEN.													
1860	2,980,339	2,104,000	19,889	5,104,728	5,384,284	62	37,897,502	3,909,502	1,049,768	653,517	396,251	145,195	
1861	2,980,339	1,890,000	22,639	4,873,478	5,419,507	62	35,201,978	2,573,925	920,155	682,495	237,660	129,448	180,000 6
1862	2,980,339	2,000,000	69,136	5,049,975	5,419,524	62	37,278,444	3,652,168	995,259	663,175	332,077	125,820	180,000 6
1863	2,980,339	2,000,000	121,223	5,102,062	5,451,939	62	45,729,465	4,354,292	1,298,589	741,641	556,948	139,130	360,000 12
1864	2,980,339	2,000,000	125,621	5,106,460	9,192,520	62	63,302,669	6,201,435	1,840,435	1,070,746	769,689	139,130	412,884 12
LONG ISLAND.													
1860	1,852,715	755,998	12,283	2,620,996	2,566,270	97	9,846,332	2,560,325	343,021	278,736	64,285	33,904	
1861	1,852,715	755,998	2,681	2,611,394	2,920,949	97	8,318,375	2,318,332	297,646	211,944	86,402	38,581	
1862	1,852,715	782,462	15,213	2,650,390	2,923,474	97	9,499,575	2,906,790	393,457	184,320	109,137	42,811	45,000 3½
1863	1,852,715	782,462	.....	2,635,177	2,923,474	101	10,108,269	3,098,410	360,431	152,250	208,181	46,000	188,500 10
1864	1,852,715	932,000	.....	2,784,715	2,923,474	183	12,129,923	3,718,092	497,298	162,012	335,286	46,000	210,000 14
NORTHERN.													
1860	.....	4,571,900	.....	4,571,900	4,809,856	122	3,228,596	15,611,053	458,912	354,985	103,927	107,592	
1861	.....	4,571,900	.....	4,571,900	4,816,751	122	2,674,727	15,559,949	425,637	335,576	90,061	108,177	
1862	.....	4,571,900	.....	4,571,900	4,819,979	122	3,089,553	19,157,715	492,438	315,680	176,753	104,822	
1863	.....	4,571,900	.....	4,571,900	4,583,509	122	3,734,311	19,815,427	573,512	419,543	153,969	106,181	
1864	.....	4,571,900	.....	4,571,900	4,644,056	122	5,846,234	21,154,384	726,344	549,704	176,640	106,913	

* Dividend on Watertown and Rome stock, $1,449,000. The present road is made up of the Watertown and Rome, Potsdam and Watertown, and Sacketts' Harbor, Rome and New York railroads, and the new branch to Ogdensburg.

TRADE AND COMMERCE OF CHICAGO.

"THIS little mushroom town is situated on the verge of a level tract of country, for the greater part consisting of open prairie lands, at a point where a small river, whose sources interlock—in the wet season—with those of the Illinois river, enters Lake Michigan. It, however, forms no harbor, and vessels must anchor in the open lake, which spreads to the horizon, on the north and east, in a sheet of uniform extent." Thus wrote LATROBE, an intelligent traveller, who visited Chicago in the year 1833.

We have before us the Report of the Trade and Commerce of Chicago for the year ending March 31, 1865, published in the Chicago *Times*, August 16, 1865, which says: "An examination of its contents will prove of rare interest, not only in a business point of view, but also in evidence of the rapidly increasing proportions and gigantic development of a city which, within the short space of thirty years, has risen from the position of an obscure trading post to be the commercial metropolis of a great nation. Its growth may be well styled unprecedented; the work of thirty years has effected what has before been achieved only by the combined labors of generations. The period reviewed by us, to-day, makes an era in the history of our city. Commercial transactions on a much larger scale than ever before, have characterized her business; rivers of wealth have poured into her treasury; improvements of the most substantial and commodious character, and equalled in grandeur and beauty of architecture only by the temples of the ancients, have been made; its population has been increased by men of enterprise and energy, who have been attracted hither to swell the ranks of the professions, of commercial and manufacturing pursuits. And while this is true of the city, it is no less a fact, that the country with which she carries on her immense commerce, and which furnishes the basis of her prosperity, has increased in a corresponding ratio. Thus, whether we look at Chicago as she presents herself to-day, or to the country with which her railroads and navigation place her in connection, we see on every hand the existence of numerous elements of prosperity and rapid growth, evidences of a future which shall place our city's name, at no distant point, the most famous of the American continent."

In substantiation of this glowing description of the city and its progress the Report is replete with statistics which, at yearly intervals, measure its footsteps from the first dawnings of its infancy to its present magnificent development. Truly these present figures which excite especial wonder and eclipse all that the experience of either ancient or modern times have afforded. They demonstrate the revolution that has taken place in the city and its tributary country. The natural outlet of the greater part of this is the Mississippi, which traverses the section from which Chicago draws so much of its wealth, from its northern extremity southward throughout and thence to the open Gulf. But the trade and commerce by this grand avenue has not kept pace with the development of the country through which it runs, and for which it is the regular channel to the

ocean. The artificial highways of trade—canals and railroads—have tapped the great interior and carried its products eastward across the continent. The grain products of the region, on this and the further side of the Mississippi, have thus been almost entirely diverted to the lakes, the Erie canal, the St. Lawrence river, or the six great trunk lines of railroad that diverge from the heart of the producing region to the seaboard at New York, Boston, Philadelphia, and Baltimore. The reason for such a change, beyond the vast enterprise which has erected these cheaper and more convenient outlets, are natural and apparent. The disadvantages of the Mississippi route are many. The risk of damage to grain or flour, and several other commodities which are staples of the upper valley, and which are very liable to receive injury from heat by passing through the southern latitudes of the Gulf during the summer months, is not the least important drawback, and the uncertainty of river navigation is a great objection; while the advantages of cheaper and speedier transportation by railroads and canals on the northern route, with the better markets afforded on the Atlantic seaboard, are obvious, and have aided chiefly to affect the change described. It is to this change in the direction of the commercial movement that Chicago owes its progress and present prosperity, the impetus of which is ever gaining by its own force, and will most certainly convert the "little mushroom town" of thirty years ago, and the great city of to-day into a commercial emporium of such proportions, such wealth, and such importance, that the records of the great cities of the world, as they now exist, will fail to produce a parallel wherewith to measure its growth and circumstances. The contrast between the Chicago of 1833 and the Chicago of the present day is indeed truly startling. To have prognosticated the change which has been effected in so short a time would have subjected the seer to ridicule, and his prophesies would have been looked upon as the emanation of a crazy brain.

In illustration of the progress of Chicago no better test can be applied than the increase of its population from time to time, and in this respect it has been wonderful. The following figures taken from actual enumerations satisfactorily prove this phase of the development of the city, and no less the development of the tributary country, which could demand such an increasing volume of agencies through which to transact its business. The growth of Chicago, indeed, may be said to have been the result of the widening and filling up of its commercial circuit, which already extends west of it fully ten degrees of longitude, and includes the breadth between latitudes 36 deg. 30 min. and 49 deg.

POPULATION BY CENSUS.

1830	70	1846	14,169	1852	38,734
1840 (U. S.)...	4,470	1847	16,859	1853	60,625
1843	7,580	1848	20,023	1860 (U. S.).....	109,260
1844	10,864	1849	23,047	and	
1845	12,088	1850 (U. S.)...	29,963	1862	188,835

Since the last local census was taken, in 1862, estimates have been made yearly, by competent parties, which have resulted in placing the population in 1863, at 160,000, and in 1865 at 196,000. The total population of the State of Illinois has increased in the meanwhile as follows:

From	12,282	in	1810	to	53,211	in	1820—349.53	per cent
From	55,211	in	1820	to	157,445	in	1830—185.17	per cent
From	157,445	in	1830	to	476,183	in	1840—202.44	per cent
From	476,183	in	1840	to	851,470	in	1850— 78.81	per cent
From	851,470	in	1850	to	1,711,951	in	1860—101.06	per cent

The growth of the interior towns of the State has been proportionately rapid. Those enumerated below are connected with Chicago and each other by lines of railroad, and to this circumstance much of the advance they have made must be attributed. They are, in fact, the primary depots of the commerce of Chicago, and have expanded co-relatively with that metropolis. The following table gives the population of the interior towns which, in 1860, had more than 3,000 inhabitants:

	1840	1850	1860
Peoria, Peoria county	1,467	5,095	14,045
Quincy, Adams county	2,319	6,902	13,718
Springfield, Sangamon county	2,579	4,533	9,320
Galena, Jo Daviess county	1,843	6,004	8,196
Belleville, St. Clair county	....	2,941	7,320
Joliet, Will county	....	2,659	7,104
Bloomington, McLean county	....	1,594	7,075
Rockford, Winnebago county	....	2,093	6,979
Ottawa, Lasalle county	....	3,219	6,841
Alton, Madison county	2,340	3,581	6,338
Aurora, Kane county	....	1,895	6,011
Lincoln, Logan county	...	....	5,700
Jacksonville, Morgan county	....	2,745	5,528
Freeport, Stephenson county	....	1,436	5,376
Rock Island, Rock Island county	....	1,711	5,190
Galesburg, Knox county	....	882	4,953
Lasalle, Lasalle county	....	3,201	3,993
Decatur, Macon county	....	1,000	3,839
Pekin, Tazewell county	....	1,678	3,467
Waukegan, Lake county	....	2,949	3,433
Buffalo, Ogle county	....	1,134	3,166
Peru, Lasalle county	....	2,000	3,133

—and though as yet under 3,000, we may here give a place in the list of rising cities to Cairo, Alexander county.

The country tributary to Chicago comprises the following States, the extent and population of which was in 1850 and 1860, as follows:

	Area in acres	Improved acres		Population	
		1850	1860	1850	1860
Illinois	35,459,200	5,039,545	13,251,473	851,470	1,711,951
Wisconsin	34,511,360	1,045,699	3,746,036	305,391	775,881
Minnesota	53,459,840	5,035	554,897	6,077	172,123
Iowa	35,228,800	824,682	3,780,253	192,214	674,913
Kansas	50,187,520	.....	372,835	.....	107,206
Missouri	43,123,200	2,938,425	6,246,871	682,044	1,182,012
Total..	254,969,920	17,853,186	27,951,865	2,037,196	4,624,084

—and to these ought properly to be added the northern peninsula of Michigan, Dakotah Territory and Nebraska, all of which contribute in some form to the commerce of Chicago. Probably within this territory there are now (1865) at least 35,000,000 acres of improved lands, and 5,000,000 inhabitants, and the land so improved is only a seventh of the area which time and perseverance will utilize for the benefit of Chicago.

The increase of live stock between the census years of 1850 and 1860 is shown in the following table:

	Horses and Mules		Horned Cattle		Sheep		Hogs	
	1850	1860	1850	1860	1850	1860	1850	1860
Illinois .	278,226	614,042	912,036	1,505,581	894,043	775,230	1,915,907	2 279,722
Wiscon'n	30,335	117,211	183,433	512,866	124,896	332,454	159,276	333,957
Minnesa.	874	17,517	1,262	118,960	80	13,128	734	101,252
Iowa...	39,290	180,670	136,621	536,254	149,960	258,228	328,247	921,161
Kansas .	.....	20,312	.....	87,859	.....	15,702	.....	128,809
Missouri	266,986	442,815	791,510	1,168,984	762,511	937,445	1,702,625	2,353,625
Total ..	615,711	1,392,567	2,024,862	3,930,504	1,931,490	2,332,182	4,101,789	6,118,826

Thus horses and mules appear to have more than doubled in number, horned cattle nearly doubled, sheep increased about 20 per cent, and swine 50 per cent, in ten years.

The products of animals compare as follows:

		Butter, lbs.	Cheese, lbs.	Wool, lbs.	Animals slaug'd- Value in Dollars-
Illinois	1850	12,526,543	1,278,225	2,150,113	$4,972,286
do	1860	28,337,576	1,595,358	2,477,563	15,159,343
Wisconsin	1850	3,633,750	400,283	253,963	920,178
do	1860	13,651,058	1,104,459	1,011,915	3,368,710
Minnesota	1850	1,100	.....	35	2,840
do	1860	2,961,591	198,904	22,740	732,418
Iowa	1850	2,171,188	209,840	373,898	821,164
do	1860	11,526,002	901,220	653,030	4,403,463
Kansas	1860	1,012,975	28,053	22,593	547,450
Missouri	1850	8,834,359	203,572	1,627,164	3,367,106
do	1860	12,704,837	259,633	2,069,778	9,844,449
Total	1850	26,166,940	2,091,920	4,405,223	$10,083,574
do	1860	70,193,979	4,087,657	6,257,619	32,055,833

Showing that butter has gained nearly 200, cheese 100, wool 50, and slaughtered animals 200 per cent from 1850 to 1860.

The same States yielded cereal crops (bushels) in 1850 and 1860 as follows:

		Wheat.	Rye.	Indian Corn.	Oats.	Barley.	Buckwheat.
Illinois	1850	9,414,575	83,364	57,646,984	10,087,241	110,795	184,504
"	1860	24,159,500	981,322	115,296,779	15,336,072	1,175,651	345,069
Wisconsin	1850	4,286,131	81,253	1,988,979	3,414,672	209,692	70,878
"	1860	15,812,625	888,584	7,565,290	11,059,270	678,992	67,622
Iowa	1850	1,580,581	19,916	8,656,799	1,524,345	25,093	52,516
"	1860	8,433,205	176,055	41,116,994	5,879,653	454,116	216,524
Minnesota	1850	1,401	125	16,725	30,582	1,216	515
"	1860	2,195,812	124,259	2,987,570	2,202,050	125,130	27,677
Kansas	1860	168,527	3,928	5,678,834	80,724	4,128	36,799
Missouri	1850	2,981,652	44,263	36,214,537	5,278,079	9,631	23,651
"	1860	4,227,586	293,262	72,892,157	3,680,870	228,504	182,292
Total	1850	18,214,340	228,926	104,524,029	20,334,919	356,427	332,054
"	1860	54,997,255	2,467,360	245,537,624	38,238,659	2,666,519	875,983

The other more important commercial crops are tobacco, hemp, potatoes and hay. These were as follows in 1850 and 1860:

		Tobacco, lbs.	Hemp, tons.	Irish Potatoes, bus.	Hay, tons.
Illinois	1850	841,894	.....	2,514,861	601,951
"	1860	7,014,280	.....	5,799,964	1,834,265
Wisconsin	1850	1,268	.....	1,402,077	275,662
"	1860	87,595	356	3,848,505	852,799
Iowa	1850	6,041	.....	276,120	89,055
"	1860	312,919	.....	2,700,515	707,260
Minnesota	1850	.....	.....	21,145	2,019
"	1860	38,510	.....	2,027,945	274,952
Missouri	1850	17,118,784	16,028	979,006	116,925
"	1860	25,086,196	19,268	1,990,850	401,070
Kansas	1860	16,978	44	283,968	50,512
Total	1850	17,962,487	16,028	5,153,209	1,005,613
	1860	32,556,428	20,068	16,651,747	4,122,158

In order to see more distinctly the land and stock accounts, and the vast mass of products which these states yield, and for which Chicago is the best market, we now bring them together, distinguishing the products of 1850 from those of 1860, to show the measure of development in the decade.

		1850.	1860.
Improved Land	acres	17,853,186	27,951,868
Population		2,037,196	4,624,056
Live Stock:			
Horses and Mules	heads	615,711	1,392,567
Horned Cattle	"	2,024,862	3,930,504
Sheep	"	1,931,490	2,332,182
Hogs	"	4,101,789	6,118,826
Animal Products:			
Butter	lbs	26,166,940	70,293,979
Cheese	"	2,091,920	4,037,667
Wool	"	4,405,223	6,257,619
Animals slaughtered,	value	$10,083,574	32,055,833
Cereal Products:			
Wheat	bush	18,214,340	54,997,256
Rye	"	228,926	2,467,360
Indian Corn	"	104,524,029	245,537,624
Oats	"	20,334,919	38,238,659
Barley	"	356,427	2,666,519
Buckwheat	"	332,054	875,983
Total Cereal Crop	"	148,990,695	344,783,400
Other Crops:			
Tobacco	lbs	17,062,487	32,556,428
Hemp	tons	16,028	20,068
Irish Potatoes	bush	5,153,209	16,651,747
Hay	tons	1,005,613	4,122,158

The principal minerals produced in the region, which claims Chicago as its market, are coal, iron, copper, and lead. The mines are as yet but slightly developed and it remains for the future to make their treasures available. The following were the principal products by the census of 1860:

	Iron, tons			Coal.	Copper Ore.	Lead Ore.
	Ore.	Pig.	Bar.	tons.	tons.	Value.
Illinois	.....	.....	.....	570,325	.....	$72,983
Wisconsin	4,500	2,000	.....	.....	.....	325,368
Iowa	.....	.... ..	.....	2,900	.....	160,500
Missouri	42,000	22,000	4,678	3,880	50	356,650
Total	46,500	24,000	4,678	577,105	50	$915,451

And Northern Michigan produced as follows:

	17 906	10,490	.....	.....	6,283	.....

Incomplete as the above table undoubtedly is, it shows at least a beginning which is pursued with increasing success, as shown by the returns of the Internal Revenue Officers for the several States. From these we deduce the amount of coal produced in 1863 to have been 1,041,919 tons, viz., in Illinois, 925,293; Iowa, 50,205; Kansas, 234; and Missouri 66,187 tons—none having been mined in Wisconsin or Minnesota. This is nearly double the amount returned by the census of 1860.

The total value of all the mining, manufacturing, and mechanic products of the States included in the Chicago market circuit in 1850 and 1860, compare as follows:

	Establishments.		Value of products.	
	1850.	1860.	1850.	1860.
Illinois	3,162	4,100	$16,534,272	$56,750,000
Wisconsin	1,262	3,120	7,293,068	28,500,000
Iowa	522	1,790	3,551,783	14,900,000
Minnesota	5	565	58,300	3,600,000
Missouri	2,923	2,805	24,326,418	48,500,000
Kansas	....	299	.....	2,300,000
Total	7,874	12,679	$51,761,841	$150,050,000

The principal manufactures in these States are flour and lumber, which constitute more than one-third the aggregate value. The other more conspicuous products are distilled spirits, agricultural implements, malt liquor, boots and shoes, furniture, iron castings, steam engines, woolen goods, leather, etc. The following compares the value of flour and lumber produced in the years 1850 and 1860:

	Flour and meal.		Lumber.	
	1850.	1860.	1860.	1 60.
Illinois	$5,781,485	$18,104,804	$1,824,484	$2,275,124
Wisconsin	3,536,298	8,161,183	1,218,516	4,836,159
Iowa	2,019,448	6,950,949	470,760	2,378,529
Minnesota	500	1,310,000	57,800	816,808
Missouri	5,124,003	8,997,083	1,479,124	3,702,992
Kansas	.....	284,281	.....	945,088
Total	$16,461,734	$43,808,300	$4,560,684	$14,954,700

The quantities and values of distilled spirits and malt liquors manufactured in 1860 was as follows:

	Distilled spirits.		Malt liquors.	
	Gallons.	Value.	Barrels.	Value.
Illinois	15,165,760	$3,204,176	218,043	$1,309,180
Wisconsin	531,250	101,346	124,956	702,812
Iowa	383,320	81,330	35,588	221,495
Minnesota	58,000	15,950	14,080	77,740
Missouri	1,572,200	309,000	172,570	1,143,450
Kansas	1,800	3,750	5,000	52,800
Total	17,712,330	$3,716,052	570,237	$3,507,477

The value of the other principal articles of production and manufacture is shown in the following table:

	Agricultural implements.	Boots and shoes.	Iron castings.	Steam engines.	Woolen goods.	Furniture.
Illinois...	$2,552,165	$963,052	$605,428	$307,500	$266,230	$373,609
Wisconsin.	563,855	901,944	377,301	384,600	167,600	498,268
Iowa.....	112,590	335,296	187,425	186,720	167,960	157,491
Missouri..	280,037	868,768	1,041,520	719,500	425,819	203,142
Minnesota.	17,000	133,395	.....	.....	.....	63,269
Kansas ...	20,000	.....	.....	40,000	.....	.....
Total ..	$3,545,647	$3,202,455	$2,211,674	$1,598,320	$1,027,109	$1,795,779

The several tabulations above given are sufficient to show the character and extent of the productive industry of the States which make Chicago, in a greater or less degree, the medium of their commercial exchanges with the Atlantic States. They have been given for that purpose alone; and now it remains only to examine the trade and commerce of that metropolis with the view of finding out the extent to which it has availed itself of the wide field open to the commercial enterprise of its citizens. We have given the measure of its advantages, and we must now learn to what extent it has made use of them.

It may be proper, however, to state before proceeding further, that in 1850 there was only 180 miles of railroad in Illinois, and not a single mile north or west of that State. The great system of routes which now exists, extending in continuous lines east and west from the Atlantic to the Missouri River, and into Kansas, has been the result of the enterprise of the last fifteen years, and to these roads may, in a great measure, be attributed the accelerated pace which has within that period demarked the movement of population and commerce in a westerly direction. To Chicago this railroad construction has been of vital importance, and has given it a place among commercial cities, which is invulnerable to competition, and by natural law certain to raise it higher and higher as the country becomes further developed under the influence of settlement and cultivation, fostered by the great works of which it is the centre.

The progress of railroads in Illinois and the states North and West of it is shown by the mileage in operation in each state yearly since 1850, which was as follows;

Jan 1.	Illinois.	Wisc'n.	Min.	Iowa.	Mis.	Kansas.	Total.
1850	111	....	....	....	....	...	111
1851	271	20	....	....	....	....	291
1852	412	50	....	....	....	....	462
1853	759	71	....	....	38	....	868
1854	988	97	....	....	38	....	1,023
1855	1,387	187	....	68	139	....	1,781
1856	2,235	276	....	254	144	....	2,909
1857	2,502	630	....	344	318	....	3,794
1858	2,734	647	....	379	547	....	4,307
1859	2,781	826	....	533	724	....	4,864
1860	2,799	905	....	655	817	....	5,176
1861	2,917	933	....	700	838	....	5,389
1862	2,998	961	....	731	838	....	5,528
1863	3,156	960	31	792	868	....	5,837
1864	3,156	1,010	94	805	925	40	6,030
1865	3,184	1,048	169	878	966	48	6,283
			QUINQUENNIAL INCREASE.				
1850-55	1,276	187	....	68	139	....	1,640
1855-60	812	718	....	587	678	....	3,495
1860-65	385	143	169	223	149	48	1,113

That the construction of railroads in these states has been injuriously affected by the late war is obvious. In Missouri and Iowa this has been the case without doubt, and probably 2,500 miles additional would have been in operation had events pursued their normal course. At the prestime great activity prevails in remedying the default of the past five years.

We now resume the immediate subject of the present article, and shall first speak of Chicago's most interesting and remarkable branch of industry—its

FLOUR AND GRAIN TRADE,

which, starting up a little more than twenty-seven years ago, has developed with much rapidity, and has already reached proportions so gigantic as to stamp it as one of the chief marvels of the history of modern commerce. To trace it rise and progress would be completing the record of the development of the great city itself, for it has been the food on which it has built its growth. By this commodity we trace the progress of the hamlet into the vilage, the village into the town, and the town into the emporium which has won for itself the proud title of the Western Metropolis. Who, dating back to 1838, when the sum total of the grain trade of Chicago was thirty-nine sacks or *seventy-eight bushels*, could have realized the marvel that twenty-eight years have produced. Then the whole trade of the city was supplied by two small vessels. Now Chicago estimates the tonnage of her fleets by thousands, and the networks of iron traversing the prairies in every direction, pour in upon her the fruits of their harvests. The grain traffic of the country, beginning at an early period with the meagre productions of the Eastern states, was gradually extended westward, and when navigation between the East and West was opened, then it was that our inland seas became the highways of a commerce which has already attained a magnitude greater than that of most nations of the old world. Then it was that the vast territory which lay west of the lakes, hitherto uncultivated, became the field for the pioneers of industry and civilization, who laid the foundation of what are now nine flourishing states and as many territories in training for a like destiny. And to-day, Chicago, occupying the centre of this enormous traffic, takes rank as the leading grain market of the world.

In order that the magnitude of the grain interests of Chicago may be fully comprehended, the two following tables are cited. the former of which shows the whole quantity of grain shipped eastward for eight years, as shown by the official records of the receipts at the western termini of the Baltimore and Ohio and Pennsylvania Central Railroads, and at Dunkirk, Buffalo, Suspension Bridge, Oswego, Ogdensburg, Cape Vincent, Montreal and Rochester, while the latter shows the quantity of grain shipped eastward from Chicago alone, for the last nine years:

SHIPPED EASTWARD BY ALL OTHER ROUTES.

Year.	Flour, bbls.	Wheat, bush.	Corn, bush.	Other grain, bushels.
1856.....	3,780,301	19,505,358	14,283,432	4,562,569
1857.....	3,318,496	16,713,639	8,658,378	2,236,678
1858.....	4,421,202	20,802 492	10,495,514	4,917,729
1859.....	3,658,409	16,539,356	4,886,262	4,022,076
1860..	4,106,057	32,536,494	18,128,226	7,547.793
1861.....	6,535,838	49,043,924	28,906,891	9,336,079
1862.....	8,433,037	51,220,529	32,998,049	10.749,430
1863.....	7,782,920	30,513,952	24,995,885	15,983,111

SHIPPED EAST FROM CHICAGO.

Year.	Flour, bbls.	Wheat, bush.	Corn, bush.	Other grain, bushels.
1856	265,389	8,364,420	11,129,668	1,034,279
1857	250,648	9,846,052	6,814,645	524,761
1858	470,402	8,850,257	7,726,264	1,658,688
1859	686,351	7,166,698	4,349,360	1,806,325
1860	698,132	12,403,197	18,700,113	1,516,689
1861	1,603,920	15,835,953	24,372,723	2,253,584
1862	1,828,164	13,808,898	29,452,610	4,516,357
1863	1,537,816	10,759,152	24,906,934	11,536,373
1864	1,289,545	10,240,380	14,182,644	17,696,896

The total shipments of grain from ports on Lake Michigan, for six years, shows the proportion of lake exportation absorbed by Chicago, thus:

	From Chicago.	From other ports.		From Chicago.	From other ports.
1858	20,040,178	7,839,115	1861	50,511,862	18,977,257
1859	16,768,857	9,060,896	1862	56,477,110	11,641,565
1860	31,109,059	12,102,389	1863	54,741,839	19,968,825
Total (bushels)				229,648,905	59,791,041

Among the sights and wonders of Chicago are its elevators—sombre, gloomy-looking buildings—which tower above and overhang the river here and there on every side. Without the aid of these Chicago could never have risen to its present position. Their machinery for receiving and discharging grain is wonderful, each elevator doing the labor of a thousand men, and capable of moving a million bushels of grain in a single day. The facilities possessed by the port, through its elevators and storehouses, can only be estimated by their enumeration and a statement of their capacities, which are as follows:

	Capacity.
Sturges, Buckingham & Co, ("A")	700,000
do do ("B")	700,000
Flint & Thompson	1,250,000
do	750,000
Munn & Scott	1,250,000
do	700,000
do	600,000
do	200,000
Munger, Wheeler & Co., (Munger & Armour)	600,000
do do (Hiram Wheeler)	500,000
do do (Charles Wheeler)	500,000
do do (L. Newberry)	300,000
do do (George Sturges)	75,000
O. Lunt & Brother	80,000
Howe, Robbins & Perry	80,000
Total capacity	9,935,000

The trade movements of the city and port for the year ending March 31, 1865, will now be considered under separate heads:

Flour.—The receipts during the year, from all sources, amounted to 1,170,274 barrels, the receipts during the preceding year having been 1,424,055 barrels. The shipments of flour during the same period amounted to 1,287,545 barrels, against 1,507,816 barrels in the previous year.

The following table shows the movement (in barrels) of flour in Chicago for the last ten years:

Year.	Received.	Shipped.	Year.	Received.	Shipped.
1855.....	320,312	168,419	1860.....	945,348	698,132
1856.....	410,989	265,389	1861.....	1,479,884	1,603,920
1857.....	489,934	250,648	1862.....	1,927,371	1,828,164
1858.....	660,540	470,402	1863.....	1,647,187	1,537,816
1859.....	887,821	686,851	1864-5.....	1,434,111	1,289,545

The manufacture of flour in the city during the year 1864–65, amounted to 290,137 barrels, against 223,123 barrels manufactured during the previous year, thus showing a highly gratifying increase. The quality of this home manufacture is rapidly improving, and it is gradually supplanting foreign brands, which have hitherto held the estimation of consumers.

The following is a list of the mills engaged in the manufacture of flour in the city, together with the amount produced by each mill:

Mills and millers.	Barrels.	Mills and millers.	Barrels.
B. Adams & Co	62,000	Oriental mills.....	50,000
Chicago mills	20 000	State mills	40,000
Jirah D. Cole, Jr	26,592	Marples mills.....	28,000
Empire mills	12,000		
Lake street mills	26,000	Total in 1864–65	290,137
Michigan mills	25,545		

and for the previous four years—

1860.....	282,000	1862.....	260,980
1861.....	291,852	1863-4.....	223,123

The proportion of the flour manufactured in the city to that consumed is about as five to three, about one hundred thousand barrels more than is consumed being manufactured.

Wheat.—The receipts of wheat amounted to 10,888,436 bushels, a decrease of 1,573,118 bushels from the receipts of 1863–64; the shipments during the same period amount to 10,249,330—an increase of 3,082,632 bushels over 1863–64. The falling off in the trade in wheat is mainly owing to the light crops which the season produced in the northern portion of Illinois and Wisconsin. In the central and southern portions of Illinois the yield was also light, though the quality was generally fair.

The receipts and shipments for the last ten years have been as follows:

Year.	Received.	Shipped.	Year.	Received.	Shipped.
1855.....	7,535,097	6,298,155	1860.....	14,427,083	12,403,197
1856.....	8,767,760	8,364,420	1861.....	17,285,002	15,835,953
1857.....	10,554,761	9,846,052	1862.....	13,978,116	13,808,898
1858.....	9,639,644	8,850,257	1863.....	12,461,554	10,759,152
1859.....	8,060,766	7,166,698	1864-5....	10,887,436	10,249,330

Owing to the crowded state of the agencies of transportation during the past season, a considerably larger portion than usual of the crop of 1864 was kept over until after the close of navigation; and buyers in Iowa and Minnesota met with great difficulty in marketing the crop, so that it is believed that a large quantity has been left in the hands of the farmers to come forward during the present year.

Corn.—The receipts during the year amounted to 13,197,340 bushels, a decrease from the previous year of 11,963,176 bushels. The receipts and shipments for ten years have been as follows:

Year.	Received.	Shipped.	Year.	Received.	Shipped.
1855.....	8,532,877	7,547,678	1860.....	15,262,394	13,709,113
1856.....	11,888,398	11,129,668	1861.....	26,369,989	24,872,723
1857.....	7,490,000	6,814,615	1862.....	29,574,328	29,452,610
1858.....	8,252,641	7,726,264	1863.....	25,160,516	24,906,937
1859.....	5,401,870	4,849,360	1864-5....	13,197,340	14,182,644

The large decrease in the movement in this grain is owing to the failure of the crop of 1863, it having been nearly destroyed by early frosts. The crop of 1864 was a fair yield, and on account of the scarcity of old corn it was marketed much earlier than usual, which contributed towards swelling the receipts of the past year beyond what they otherwise would have been.

Oats.—The following is a statement of receipts and shipments for the past ten years:

Year.	Received.	Shipped.	Year.	Received.	Shipped.
1855.....	2,947,188	1,889,538	1860.....	2,198,188	1,691,698
1856.....	2,919,884	1,014,637	1861.....	2,067,072	1,663,237
1857.....	1,707,217	506,778	1862.....	4,688,723	3,112,366
1858.....	2,283,596	1 519,066	1863.....	11,005,743	9,909,175
1859.....	1,757,699	1,185,703	1864-5.....	16.365,440	16,470,929

Since the commencement of the war, now happily closed, the demand for this article which existed in the army, had the effect of raising prices to a comparatively high figure, and encouraged farmers to devote more attention than they otherwise would have done to this product, thus causing the receipts for the two past years to be very much larger than ordinarily.

Rye.—The receipts and shipments to and from Chicago for the last ten years were as follows:

Year.	Received.	Shipped.	Year.	Received.	Shipped.
1855.....	68,166	92,028	1860.....	318,976	156,642
1856.....	47,707	19,051	1861.....	490,989	393,813
1857	87,711	17,893	1862.....	1,038,825	871,796
1858.....	71,012	127,008	1863.....	747,295	683,946
1859.....	281,514	134,404	1864-5.....	1,077,776	898,536

The increase in the trade in rye during the last year is owing to two causes—a more abundant crop than usual, and the imposition of the two dollar tax on whiskey, which, by lessening the consumption of grain, had the effect of throwing a large supply, for which there was no home use, on the market.

Barley.—The barley crop last season was very light, as compared with former years, and the receipts, consequently, smaller than might otherwise have been expected. The following statement shows the receipts and shipments for the past ten years:

Year.	Received.	Shipped.	Year.	Received.	Shipped.
1855.....	201,875	98,011	1860.....	617,619	267,749
1856.....	128,457	19,051	1861.....	449,488	226,534
1857.....	127,689	17,993	1862.....	872,052	532,195
1858.....	413,812	132,020	1863.....	1,244,584	943,252
1859.....	652,696	486,218	1864-5.....	893,000	237,431

We close our account of the flour and grain market with a general recapitulation, showing the amounts shipped from the city from 1838 to 1862, a term of twenty-seven years:

Year.	Flour and Wheat, bush.	Corn, bushels.	Oats, bushels.	Rye, bushels.	Barley, bushels.
1838.....	78	.....	.....	.....	.....
1839.....	3,678	.....	.....	.....	.....
1840.....	10,000	.....	.....	.....	.....
1841.....	40,000	.....	.....	.....	.....
1842.....	586,907	.....	.....	.....	.....
1843.....	688,907	.....	.....	.....	.....
1844.....	923,494	.....	.....	.....	.....
1845.....	1,024,620	.....	.....	.....	.....
1846.....	1,599,619	.....	.....	.....	.....
1847.....	2,136,994	67,135	38,892	.....	.....
1848.....	2,286,000	596,460	65,280	.....	.....
1849.....	2,192,809	644,848	26,849	31,453	.....
1850.....	1,387,989	252,013	186,054	22,872	.....
1851.....	799,380	3,221,317	605,827	19,997	.....
1852.....	941,470	2,757,011	2,030,317	127,028	17,315
1853.....	1,680,998	2,780,253	1,748,493	120,275	82,162
1854.....	2,744,860	6,837,899	3,239,987	148,421	41,153
1855.....	7,110,270	7,547,678	1,889,539	92,023	98,011
1856.....	9,419,365	11,129,668	1,014,637	19,051	19,057
1857.....	10,783,292	6,814,615	506,778	17,993	17,993
1858.....	10,909,243	7,726,264	1,549,069	127,008	132,020
1859.....	10,759,359	4,349,361	1,185,707	134,404	486,218
1860.....	16,892,857	12,700,113	1,091,698	156,642	267,749
1861.....	23,855,553	24,372,723	1,633,237	393,843	226,534
1862.....	22,508,143	29,452,610	3,112,366	871,796	532,195
1863.....	18,298,532	24,996,934	9,909,175	683,946	943,252
1864–5.....	16,687,055	14,182,644	16,470,929	898,536	887,431

PORK AND BEEF PACKING.

The second most remarkable instance of the wonderful development of Chicago, is the extraordinary proportions which have within a very short period been attained by her packing business. The commencement of this branch of industry in Chicago dates from the year 1835, when 3000 head composed the total number of cattle, cut and packed in the city. Since that time the packing business has been increased with the growth of the city. The other cities and towns of the interior, which have hitherto been considered prominent packing points, were successively led by Chicago, and in 1861, Cincinnati yielded to the lake city the title of the Porkopolis of the country. And now Chicago furnishes one-third the entire package in all the States engaged in this business. The same causes which made Chicago the greatest grain market in the country have contributed towards making it the most important packing point. The development of the great interior and the grand network of railroads which extends, and is still extending wider and further over its great bosom, have rendered this the chief collecting point for the immense numbers of cattle and hogs which are raised by the farmers and stock-breeders: and wherever the cattle and hogs are, there will concentrate the capital to purchase, to pack and to ship the product to the Eastern States and Europe.

The receipts and shipments of hogs during the first seven years exhibit the progress of the business through that period. They were as follows:

Years.	Received.	Shipped.	Years.	Received.	Shipped.
1858.....	340,486	192,013	1862.....	1,348,890	491,135
1859.....	271,204	140,246	1863–4.....	1,677,757	856,485
1860.....	392,864	227,164	And,		
1861.....	675,902	289,094	1864–5.....	1,410,320	536,173

The decrease in 1864-5 was owing to an actual falling off in the raising of hogs. The same cause reduced the receipts at all the packing points. The season's packing was also reduced both here and elsewhere. The following shows the number packed at Chicago during ten seasons:

Years.	Hogs.	Years.	Hogs.
1855-56	80,380	1860-61	271,885
1856-57	74,000	1861-62	505,691
1857-58	99,262	1862-63	970,264
1858-59	179,684	1863-64	904,689
1859-60	151,339	1864-65	760,514

The following table shows the firms engaged in packing in the city, and the number of live and dressed hogs packed by each, together with the average weights:

Packers.	Live Hogs.	Dressed Hogs.	Tot. Hogs.	Av'wt.
A. E. Kent & Co	59,036	3,099	6,285	171
Culbertson, Blair & Co	54,805	1,668	56,473	176
Reid & Sherwin	40,578	.....	40,578	171
Cragin & Co	40,110	.....	40,110	203
Tobey & Booth	34,421	.....	34,421	172
Davis, Pope & Co	3,734	22,583	26,317	191
Wooster, Hough & Co	27,531	.....	27,531	178
J. M. Spafford & Co	7,000	20,000	27,000	212
Thorne & Co	22,862	.....	22,862	166
R. McCabe & Co	21,440	461	21,901	182
D. Kreigh & Co	21,205	.....	21,005	189½
Leland & Mixer	18,275	1,396	19,671	174
McKichan, Quirk & Co	.....	18,657	18,657	182
Taylor, Barron & Co	18,186	.....	18,186	172
Bowers & Co	17,123	.....	17,123	184
G. S. Hubbard & Co	16,149	264	16,683	208
G. W. Higgins & Co	.....	18,192	18,192	198
Keyt, Blackmore & Co	14,644	.....	14,644	184½
Jones, Gifford & Co	14,000	.....	14,000	170
Singer & Co	13,870	.....	13,870	189
Stewart, Sanger & Hollihan	13,672	.....	13,672	183½
V. A. Turpin & Co	13,598	.....	13,598	188
S. Favourite & Son	12,868	.....	12,868	198
Freeman, Burt & Co	.....	13,997	13,997	195
Rhodes & White	3,560	8,350	11,910	187
S. A. Ricker	11,480	.....	11,480	196
Pulsifer & Co	8,328	2,889	11,217	182
Flirt, Thompson & Co	10,364	.....	10,364	190
Boyd & Small	.....	10,350	10,350	187
Gardner & Co.	10,300	.....	10,300	190
J. B. Nerwood, agent	9,035	.....	9,035	198
Turner & Nicols	8,864	.....	8,864	174
Griffin Bros	4,605	3,280	7,885	176
Gregston & Co	7,000	.....	7,000	190
John Nash	5,683	.....	5,683	179
Daggett & Whiteside	4,500	1,500	6,000	200
Charles Cleaver	5,463	.....	5,463	180
Murphy & Co	5,167	.....	5,167	185
Thomas Nash & Co	5,040	.....	5,040	180
Louis Richberg	.....	3,320	3,320	210
A. Bell & Co	1,863	716	2,579	197
Nash & Kirkwood	2,140	.....	2,140	185
McConkey & Hall	.....	2,500	2,500	183
Coffins, Perkins & Co	5,000	.....	5,000	195
John Bayard	900	.....	900	186

Packers.	Live Hogs.	Dressed Hogs.	Tot. Hogs.	Av'y w't.
L. French & Co	.....	4,763	4,763	191
George Rhodes, Jr.	.....	4,337	4,337	206
Shaw & Co.	1,980	.....	1,980	195
Six Houses, estimated	5,520	16,254	21,774	191
Total	601,938	158,576	760,514	

In addition to which there were cut at the various houses, 282,828 barrels of pork, and 20,193 boxes of middles.

But, while there was a falling off in the number of hogs packed during the season of 1864-65, the number of cattle slaughtered in the city was largely increased. The receipts of beef cattle during the year amounted to 343,726—an increase of 43,104 head over the previous year. The shipments were 262,436 head—an increase of 75,378 over the year before. By this a faint idea may be obtained of the growth and magnitude of the trade. Since the year 1860, the receipts at Chicago have increased within a fraction of 100 per cent,—a rate of growth altogether unprecedented.

The beef packing during the same season amounted to 92,459 head, against 70,086 head during the previous season. This exceeds, by nearly 22,000 head, the largest number hitherto packed in Chicago.

The following is a statement of the receipts and shipments of cattle for the last eight years:

	Received.	Shipped.		Received.	Shipped.
1857	48,524	25,502	1861	204,579	124,145
1858	140,534	42,638	1862	209,655	112,745
1859	111,694	37,584	1863	300,622	187,068
1860	177,101	97,414	1864-5	303,726	262,446

The number of cattle packed in Chicago during a series of years is shown in the following statement:

Year.	Number.	Year.	Number.	Year.	Number.
1851-2	21,806	1856-7	14,971	1861-2	53,754
1852-3	24,664	1857-8	34,675	1862-3	59,687
1853-4	25,431	1858-9	45,503	1863-4	70,086
1854-5	23,691	1859-60	51,606	1864-5	92,459
1855-6	28,972	1860-1	34,623		

The firms engaged during the season of 1864-65 in beef packing, and the number of cattle packed by each, is shown in the following statement:

Cragin & Co	16,184	John Hayward	4,534
A. E. Kent & Co	14,394	Turner & Nichols	4,433
Culbertson, Blair, & Co	10,127	Jones, Gifford & Co	4,000
Griffin Brothers	10,083	D. Kreigh & Co	3,182
S. Favorite & Son	8,711	Leland & Mixer	2,675
G. S. Hubbard & Co	7,312	Louis Richberg	750
Wooster, Hough & Co	6,169		
Total			92,459

LUMBER TRADE OF CHICAGO.

Next in importance the Lumber trade of the city commands attention; and here again Chicago stands foremost, the most considerable lumber trade market in the world. Like the grain trade it has sprung up, at first almost imperceptibly; but soon gaining pace with the meteor like pro-

gress of the city, it, too, has developed into the most enormous and startling proportions. From thirty-two millions of feet, which comprised the whole amount of lumber received in 1847, in the next ten years it increased millions on millions, until it had reached four hundred and forty millions of feet. Hitherto a very large portion of the country bordering on the Mississippi was supplied by the upper tributaries of that river; but these sources have been drawn upon until they are well nigh exhausted, and can no longer be worked as before, because the distance which it is necessary to draw the logs before they can be floated, renders it more expensive than it is to bring the lumber from Chicago. And thus has Chicago supplanted the other sources from which lumber has been supplied, until now its trade is almost a monopoly. The lumber regions of Canada, Michigan, and Wisconsin, inexhaustible as it would appear, are all accessible to the lakes, and the lumber is readily transported to Chicago at a trifling expense, so that in purchasing at this port dealers can do almost as well as if in the very heart of the lumber region many miles distant.

The receipts of lumber, lath, and shingles, by lake, since 1847, are shown in the following statement:

Year.	Lumber, ft.	Shingles, No.	Lath, No.
1847	32,118,225	12,148,500	5,655,700
1848	60,009,250	20,000,000	10,025,100
1849	78,259,553	39,057,750	19,281,733
1850	100,364,779	55,423,750	19,809,700
1851	125,056,437	60,338,250	27,583,475
1852	147,816,232	77,080,500	19,759,670
1853	202,101,098	93,488,734	39,133,116
1854	228,336,683	82,061,250	32,431,550
1855	297,567,669	158,770,800	46,487,550
1856	441,961,900	135,876,000	79,235,120
1857	459,639,000	131,832,680	80,130,000
1858	278,943,000	127,565,000	44,559,000
1859	302,845,207	165,927,000	49,102,000
1860	262,494,626	127,894,000	36,691,000
1861	249,308,705	79,356,000	32,637,000
1862	365,674,045	131,255,000	23,880,000
1863	413,301,818	172,361,878	41,768,000
1864-5	501,592,406	190,169,750	65,953,900

The shipments from Chicago for the past six years have been as follows:

Year.	Lumber, ft.	Shingles, No.	Lath, No.
1859	226,120,389	195,117,700	28,236,525
1850	225,372,340	168,302,525	32,170,420
1861	189,379,445	94,421,186	33,282,725
1862	189,277,079	55,761,630	16,966,600
1863	221,799,330	102,634,447	33,293,547
1864-5	269,496,579	138,497,256	36,242,010

The estimated stock on hand, on the 15th of January, 1865, was 90,000,000 feet of lumber; 28,000,000 of shingles; 7,000,000 pieces of lath; 25,000,000 posts; and 300,000 pickets.

MISCELLANEOUS TRADE.

The detailed consideration of the other branches of the cities business, many of them extensive and important, is prevented by want of sufficient

space. Among these, the manufacture and trade in high wines stands prominent. The manufacture in the city, in the year 1864–5 was less by 18,669 than in the year previous. This diminution is due to the passage, by Congress, of the act taxing distilled spirits two dollars per gallon, which at once put a stop to the further manufacture until the old stock, which escaped taxation, should be exhausted. The highly enhanced prices of the article had also the effect of diminishing both production and consumption. The progress of this interest for the nine years ending with 1864–5 is shown in the following statement:

Year.	Bbls. received.	Bbls. shipped.	Bbls. manu.
1856	30,000	6,266	27,550
1857	28,185	10,657	50,000
1858	28,644	28,007	60,000
1859	29,431	24,529	53,000
1860	62,124	65,223	62,400
1861	89,915	111,240	89,915
1862	61,703	130,170	61,703
1863	137,947	159,312	77,525
1864–5	102,032	138,644	58,855

We close this article with the yearly returns of the trade in salt, hides, seeds, wool, coal, cord-wood, lead, potatoes, and fish, which together form interests respectively of large value and importance. The following are the results for ten years:

Year.	Salt, bbls.	Hides, lbs.	Seeds, lbs.	Wool, lbs.
1855	170,823	31,149	3,024,238	1,942,415
1856	184,824	70,560	2,843,202	1,853,920
1857	200,946	178,770	2,466,973	1,506,820
1858	334,997	11,606,997	4,271,732	1,053,626
1859	316,291	12,681,446	5,241,547	918,319
1860	255,148	11,233,918	7,071,074	859,248
1861	390,499	9,962,723	7,742,614	1,184,208
1862	612,003	12,747,123	8,176,342	1,523,571
1863	775,364	17,557,728	9,885,208	2,831,194
1864–5	680,346	20,052,235	10,180,781	4,304,383

Year.	Coal, tons.	Wood, cords.	Lead, lbs.	Potatoes, bbls.	Lake Fish
1859	131,204	114,352	14,351,179	228,548	24,082
1860	131,080	83,071	13,315,260	200,598	39,669
1861	184,089	76,770	14,554,743	262,466	25,429
1862	218,423	101,781	12,766,188	123,386	41,312
1863	284,196	110,703	16,412,302	182,647	56,729
1864–5	323,275	149,312	10,699,678	684,527	57,369

ELEMENTARY STATISTICS OF THE AMERICAN STATES.

No. 1.—THE STATE OF OHIO.

[In the year 1849 and subsequently, a succession of articles appeared in Hunt's Merchant Magazine under the title of "*Debts and Finances of the States of the Union.*" These articles were very elaborate, and embraced a wider scope of information than their title implied, the author having called to his aid in illustration of his subjects the collateral statistics of land sales, population, public works, etc., etc., and appears to have had in view the industrial as well as financial condition of the states treated upon. This characteristic gave to the articles a far greater value than they could otherwise have possessed, and created for them a high public appreciation. It is now proposed to continue these articles by covering the space of time elapsed since their publication, and illustrating the progress made by the states severally. The years that have intervened have added largely to our experience, and furnished important information. Nearly all the states have re-organized their financial systems, the national census has twice noted their status and the annual reports of state departmental officers have cumulated vast stores of statistics relating to every branch of public economy. Armed with these, we enter upon the task of reviewing the changes accomplished, confident that the results will not be without value. We shall not, however, restrict our researches to the exact line laid down by our predecessor, but modify and extend it as may suit the general purpose we have in view, which is—the illustration of the progress of the several states of the Union in their material, industrial, and financial development. To attain this object we shall begin *ab initio*, using or rejecting so much of the articles already alluded to as may be proper to our purpose.]

Ohio has a territorial extent of 39,964 square miles, or 25,576,960 acres, being one seventy-fifth part of the national area. Twenty four states are of greater and twelve states of less extent.

This state is undoubtedly one of the most prosperous in the Union. The earliest planted of the land states, it has now a large settled population. Its climate favors industrial pursuits, and while the bowels of the earth teem with coal and iron, the surface has a soil sufficiently rich for all agricultural operations. Its position in the line of states occupying the really temperate zone of North America, that which has absorbed so large a share of our immigrant population, has probably favored its rapid development more than any other agency. Through its borders pass the great lines of east and west travel—lines of railroad extending to the great seaboard cities on the one hand, and to the westward limits of civilization on the other. The great lakes border it on the north and the river from which it takes its name on the south—the first forming an almost maritime front, and the latter a waterway to every part of the great interior valley. Such a combination of resources and facilities has seldom occurred; or produced such auspicious results as those traced in the pro-

gress of this State from its foundation to the present day—results which the statistics embodied in this article are intended to exhibit.

The progress of Ohio cannot be better illustrated than by the fact of its having attained a population, in the three-quarters of a century since its foundation, exceeded only by two others of the states of the Union, New York and Pennsylvania. The census of 1860 returned a population of 2,339,511, which is equivalent to 58.54 souls to the square mile of the territory occupied, and to 7.44 per cent of the total population of the United States. In density of population it is exceeded by six states, all belonging to the oldest settled portions of the Union, and very limited in their dimensions or area. These are Massachusetts with 157.83, Rhode Island with 133.70, Connecticut with 98.45, New York with 82.56, New Jersey with 80.77, and Pennsylvania with 63.17 to the square mile. The greatest portion of these are on or near the seaboard and largely engaged in manufactures and commerce, which have the effect of aggregating population to their localities. The western parts of New York and Pennsylvania are by no means so well populated as Ohio. Cincinnati the metropolis of the state, had, in 1800, only 752, but in 1860 161,044 inhabitants, and for numbers was in the latter year the sixth city of the Union, New York, Philadelphia, Brooklyn, Baltimore, and Boston alone out-numbering it.

The following illustrates the progress of the State in population since 1800:

Census. Years:	Absolute Population. White.	Colored.	Total.	Pop. to sq. m.	Rate of Incr'se.	Prop. to Total.
1800	45,028	337	45,365	1.18	408.67	0.36
1810	228,861	1,899	230,760	5.78	151.96	3.19
1820	576,572	4,862	581,434	14.55	61.31	6.08
1830	928,329	9,574	937,903	23.47	62.01	7.29
1840	1,502,122	17,345	1,519,467	38.02	30.33	8.90
1850	1,955,050	25,279	1,908,329	49.55	18.14	8.54
1860	2,302,838	36,673	2,339,511	58.54		7.44

Allowing that the rate of increase may have been retarded by the late war to one per cent per annum, the present (1865) population would be 2,458,849 or an increase in five years of 5.10 per cent. The State, however, is losing in its relation to the total of the United States.

The progress of the principal cities and towns have been as follows:

Cities, &c.	1800.	1810.	1820.	1830.	1840.	1850.	1860.
Cincinnati	752	2,540	9,602	24,831	46 338	115,436	161,044
Cleveland	66	309	606	1,076	6,071	17,034	43,417
Dayton	....	....	812	2 965	6,067	10,970	20,081
Columbus	....	....	2,050	2,437	6,048	17,882	18,554
Toledo	....	....	....	....	1,222	3,829	13,768
Zanesville	....	....	2,052	3,094	4,766	7,929	9,229
Sandusky	....	....	187	593	1,117	5,087	8.408
Chilicothe	....	1,369	2,246	2,846	3,977	7,100	7,626
Hamilton	....	....	552	1,079	1,409	3,201	7,223
Springfield	....	....	....	1,080	2,062	5,108	7,002
Portsmouth	....	....	527	1,063	1,368	4,011	6,264
Steubenville	....	....	2,539	2,937	5,203	6,140	6,158

Besides the above enumerated, there are many other important cities and towns, which are enumerated in the following list, with the popula-

tion in 1860: Mill Creek, 13,844; Salisbury, 7,958; Springfield (Hamilton County), 5,543; Brooklyn, 5,358; Newark, 4,675; Xenia, 4,658; Mansfield, 4,581; Marietta, 4,323; Lancaster, 4,303; Canton, 4,041; Tiffin, 3,992; Colerain, 3,933; Delaware, 3,889; Storrs, 3,862; Massillon, 3,819; Ironton, 3,691; Fremont, 3,510; Akron, 3,477; Urbana, 3,429; Sycamore, 3,427; Gallipolis, 3,418; Montgomery, 3,323; East Cleveland, 3,011, &c., &c.

Of the aggregate population of the State in 1860, 2,011,257 were American born, and 328,254 foreign born.

Of the native or American population, 476,966 were born in other States than Ohio, and as follows:

Alabama..	345	Iowa....	1,595	Mississippi	656	South Carolina	1,106
Arkansas..	179	Kansas...	31	Missouri....	1,007	Tennessee	2,006
California .	386	Kentucky	15,074	New Hamp	4,111	Texas.....	136
Connectic't.	16,741	Louisiana	942	N. Jersey.	17,787	Vermont	11,651
Delaware..	3,045	Maine...	3,011	New York.	75,550	Virginia.....	75,874
Florida....	23	Maryland	28,680	N. Carolina.	4,701	Wisconsin	843
Georgia ..	437	Mass....	16,313	Oregon....	16	Dis. of Colum.	573
Illinois ...	2,968	Michigan	3,698	Pennsylv'ia.	174,764	Territories....	34
Indiana...	11,009	Minnesota	114	Rhode Isl'd.	1,558	At sea.....	251

and not stated, 4,440. The total born in Ohio, and remaining in the State was 1,529,560. The number of Ohio-born in other States was 593,045, chiefly in the States west of Ohio.

The foreign-born population originated from the countries annexed:

Asia	48	German States, viz:		Gt. Britain	148	Scotland	6,535
Africa,....	25	Austria...	1,317	Greece ...	5	Spain	38
Australia .	56	Bavaria...	26,206	Holland ..	1,756	Sweden.....	117
Atla'c Isl's	14	Baden	19,035	Ireland....	76,826	Sardinia	209
Belgium...	519	Hesse. ...	12,324	Italy	407	Switzerl'd...	11,078
Brit. Am...	7,082	Nassau ...	1,134	Mexico ...	31	South Am...	33
China	3	Prussia ...	17,117	Norway ..	19	Sandwich I's.	1
Denmark .	164	Wurtenb'g	14 511	Portugal ..	9	Turkey	5
England ..	32,700	Other St's.	76,574	Poland ...	326	W. Indies...	102
Europe ...	61		———	Pacific Is'ls	2	Wales	8,365
France ...	12,870	Total..	168,210	Russia....	452	Other Cou'ies	43

The census of 1860 enumerates the employments or occupations of 644,966 of the inhabitants of the State. These are engaged in 331 pursuits, only a few of the more important being included in the following list:

Apprentices.....	4,150	Grocers.....	4,291	Pedlers.....	1,588
Bakers	1,201	Innkeepers	1,576	Physicians.....	4,220
Barkeepers.....	1,526	Laborers.....	78,523	Plasterers.....	1,659
Blacksmiths.....	10,088	Laundresses	2,900	Printers	1,457
Boatmen.....	1,457	Lawyers	2,537	Railroadmen	3,041
Bricklayers.....	1,078	Lumbermen	2,786	Saddlers	1,730
Butchers.....	2,581	Machinists	6,541	Sawyers	1,299
Cabinet-makers ..	3,059	Mantua-makers ..	5,597	Seamstresses	7,160
Carpenters	21,571	Manufacturers ...	1,165	Servants	33,679
Carters	1,504	Mariners	4,297	Shoemakers	11,396
Civil Engineers..	2,107	Masons	6,691	Steamboatmen.....	2,248
Clergymen	2,927	Merchants.....	10,680	Stonecutters.....	1,284
Clerks	10,962	Millers	5,206	Students	4,923
Coach-makers....	1,929	Milliners.....	3,876	Tailors	7,139
Colliers.....	1,807	Millwrights.....	1,364	Teachers.....	10,501
Coopers	5,912	Miners	18,759	Teamsters	2,261
Farmers.....223,485		Moulders	3,104	Tinsmiths	1,401
Farm laborers ...	76,484	Officers [public] .	1,345	Tobacconists	1,601
Gardiners, etc ...	1,827	Painters	3,766	Wheelwrights	2,684

The unit of the military force of this State is ascertained to be 46 per cent of the total male population. This includes all males between 18 and 60 years of age, and in accordance with the law of proportion here noted, the number of persons capable of bearing arms was—in 1810. 55,032; in 1820, 141,037; in 1830, 220, 668; in 1840, 357,658; in 1850, 461,892, and in 1860, 538,990. And if the rate of increase has been the same as of the total population, we may safely add to the figures of 1860, five per centum, making the total military force for 1865, 565,939. During the late war Ohio sent to the field a total of 346,326 men, and in the last year of its progress, one half that number was under arms. During the struggle 35,000 men were probably lost to the State; 45,000 returned home disabled in various grades. These deducted from the total for 1865, leaves 516,000 the present number liable to duty.

New York and Illinois alone exceed Ohio in the extent of their improved lands, and New York, Pennsylvania, and Illinois in the value of farming implements and machinery. The value of the latter in Louisiana is also larger, but this includes machinery for sugar making, which is a speciality requiring large capital. The comparison between the land and implement statistics for 1850 and 1860, was as follows:

	1850.	1860.		Change.
Land in Farms.....acres	17,987,498	20,472,141	Increase,	2,474,648
Improved Land.....	9,851,498	12,625,394	"	2,773,901
Unimproved Land.....	8,146,000	7,846,747	Decrease,	299,253
Value of Farms.....	$358,758,603	$678,132,991	Increase,	$319,374,388
Value of Implements, etc....	12,750,585	17,538,832	"	4,787,247

—from which it appears that while the quantity of land in farms increased only 14 per cent, and improved lands 28 per cent, the cost value of farms increased 89 per cent.

With regard to live-stock generally no other state is better supplied than Ohio. No other state has a larger number of horses. New York alone exceeds it in the number of its milch cows, and Texas and California in the aggregate number of horned cattle. In 1860 Ohio had 400,000 sheep more than New York, and owned one-seventh of all the sheep in the Union. Five states exceeded it in the number of its hogs. The total value of its live-stock was $80.384,819, and in this it was exceeded by New York only.

The following table shows the number and value of live-stock in the State in 1850 and 1860 comparatively:

	1850.	1860.		
Horses.....	468,397	625,346	Increase.	161,949
Asses and Mules.....	3,423	7,194	"	3 771
Working Oxen.....	65,881	63,078	Decrease.	2,303
Milch Cows.....	544,499	676,585	Increase.	132,086
Other cattle.....	749,067	895,077	"	146,010
Sheep.....	3,942,929	3,546,767	Decrease.	396,162
Swine.....	1,964,770	2,251,653	Increase.	286,383
Value of live stock.....	$44,121,741	$80,384,819	"	$36,263,078

This table shows the curious facts that there were in the state in 1860 one horse to every four inhabitants, one milch cow to every three, two sheep to every three, and one hog to every man, woman and child.

In the products of animals Ohio holds a high rank among her sister states. New York and Pennsylvania are the only states making larger

quantities of butter. New York alone makes more cheese. But Ohio stands at the head of all in wool. In the value of animals slaughtered it is exceeded by New York and Illinois. The following figures compare the animal products of Ohio in 1850 and 1860:

	1850.	1860.	Increase.
Butter.....lbs	34,439,879	48,543,162	14,103,283
Cheese	20,819,542	21,618,893	799,351
Wool	10,196,371	10,608,927	412,556
Animals slaughtered.....$	7,439,243	14,725,945	7,286,702

The quantitative rank of the State in regard to grain growing under the three last censuses will be seen in the following form:

	1840.	1850.	1860.
Wheat	First.	Second.	Fourth.
Rye	Sixth.	Seventh.	13th.
Oats	Third.	Third.	Third.
Barley	Third.	Second.	Third.
Buckwheat	Fourth.	Fourth.	Third.
Indian Corn	Fourth.	First.	Second.

The following is the bushelage produced in the same years:

	1840.	1850.	1860.
Wheat	16,571,661	14,487,351	15,119,947
Rye	814,205	425,918	683,686
Oats	14,393,103	13,472,742	15,409,234
Barley	212,440	354,358	1,663,868
Buckwheat	633,139	638,060	2,370,650
Indian Corn	33,668,144	59,078,695	72,543,190
Total grain	66,292,692	88,457,124	108,789,675

—Which gives in 1840, 43.63; in 1850, 44.67; and in 1860, 46.59 bushels to each inhabitant.

The proportion (per cent) of each crop in Ohio to the whole crop of the United States was as follows:

	1840.	1850.	1860.
Wheat	19.53	14.42	8,73
Rye	4,37	2.22	3.24
Oats	11.70	9.19	9.09
Barley	5.10	6.86	10.51
Buckwheat	8.68	7.12	9.49
Indian Corn	8.92	9.97	8.77

The other food and miscellaneous crops in 1840, 1850, and 1860 are shown in the following table:

	1840.	1850.	1860.
Tobacco.....lbs.	5,942,275	10,454,449	25,092,551
Peas and beans.....bush.	.....	60,168	102,511
Irish potatoes	5,405,021	5,057,769	8,695,101
Sweet potatoes		187,991	204,445
Orchard products.....$	475,271	695,921	1,929,209
Wine.....galls	11,524	48,207	568,617
Market garden products.....$	97,606	214,004	907,515
Hay.....tons	1,02?,037	1,443,142	1,564,582
Clover seed.....bush.	.....	103,197	243,439
Grass seed	.....	37,310	54,900
Hops.....lbs	62,195	63,731	27,533
Hemp, dew rotted.....tons	9,080	100	269
Hemp, water rotted		50	15
Hemp, other prepared		..	923
Flax		223½	441

Flax seed ..... bush	.....	188,880		242,420
Silk cocoons ..... lbs	4,317	1,552		7,394
Maple sugar	6,363,386	4,588,209		3,345,508
Maple molasses ..... galls	.....	197,308		370,512
Sorghum molasses	.....	.....		779,076
Beeswax ..... lbs	38,950	864,275		53,786
Honey				1,459,601
Home manufactures ..... $	1,853,937	1,712,196		596,197

The increase of the above is chiefly confined to tobacco, potatoes, orchard products, wine, market-garden products, clover seed, sorghum molasses, (new,) beeswax, and honey. Hay has increased only 10 per cent. Hemp has decreased largely, and also home manufactures. Ohio is the sixth State for tobacco, the third for Irish potatoes, the second for orchard products, the first for wine, the sixth for market products, the fourth for hay, the first for clover seed, the first for silk, the fourth for maple sugar, the fifth for sorghum, the sixth for honey, etc.

We now leave the field for the workshop, to take a view of general industry—mining, manufactures, mechanics, arts, etc. This embraces productions and manufactures of all kinds, except agricultural, in which class manufactures produced in families are always included. The four States producing most largely, as shown by the census returns of 1840, 1850, and 1860, were New York, Pennsylvania, Massachusetts, and Ohio. The relative position of these as producing and manufacturing States in the years named is shown by the value of products and manufactures, noted in the following tables:

Census.	New York.	Pennsylvania.	Massachusetts.	Ohio.
1840.....	$91,203,647	$63,191,867	$73,545,895	$29,604,564
1850.....	238,437,155	155,241,162	151,201,726	68,053,778
1860.....	379,623,000	285,500,000	266,000,000	125,000,000

and in relation to the total of the United States the percentage was thus:

	Aggregate.	Relative per centum.			
Census.	United States.	New York.	Pennsylvania.	Mass.	Ohio.
1840.....	$488,278,215	18 87	13.07	15.21	6.12
1850.....	1,055,595,899	22.60	14.70	14.32	5.97
1860.....	1,900,000,000	19.98	15.00	14.00	6.59

Thus far the rank of Ohio among the States in general industry has been the fourth. The collections under the United States Revenue Law in the above named States on productions and manufactures for the year ending June 30, 1864, were as follows:

United States.	New York.	Pennsylvania.	Massachusetts.	Ohio.
$102,214,165	$24,636,051	$12,960,483	$11,960,652	$11,791,834
Per cent of total	24.10	12.68	10.92	11.54

—which figures change the relative places of Massachusetts and Ohio, giving the latter the third instead of the fourth rank.

The principal mineral productions of Ohio are coal, iron, and salt. Of late years petroleum or rock oil has also become a leading product.

The following table shows the quantity of coal, iron and salt produced in the years represented in the returns of 1840, 1850 and 1860:

	1840.	1850.	1860.
Coal ..... bushels	3,513,409	8,000,000	50,000,000
Pig iron ..... tons	25,959	52,658	105,500
Salt ..... bushels	297,350	550,350	2,000,000

These figures are from the tables of the Commissioner of Statistics for 1864, and are obviously more accurate than the U. S. census returns for the same years, which, indeed, omit several of the most productive counties altogether.

The U. S. census returns of 1840 give the statistics of mining as follows:

	Quantities.	Hands.	Cap. inv'd.
Pig and cast iron.....tons	35,236	2,268	$1,161,900
Bar iron.....	7,466		
Anthracite coal.....	296	4	1,250
Bituminous coal.....bushels	3,513,409	434	45,525
Salt.....	297,350	240	113,196
Granite and Marble.....tons	195,831	296	27,496
Total.....		3,242	$1,349,366

The census of 1860, so far as relates to mining, is yet incomplete. The following, in relation to coal, iron and salt, have been published:

		Value
Bituminous coal.....bushels	28,339,900	$1,559,713
Iron ore, mined.....tons	228,794	2,327,261
Pig iron, made.....	94,647	
Bar, and other rolled iron.....	10,439	692,000
Iron castings.....	.....	1,650,323
Salt.....bushels	1,744,240	276,879
Total value of coal, iron and salt.....		$6,486,175

The rank of Ohio as a coal, iron and salt producing State, as deduced from the census of 1860, was as follows:

It ranks next to Pennsylvania in bitumous coal, the first having produced 66,994,295, and the latter 28,339,900 out of a total of 144,376,927 bushels.

In pig iron it ranks also second to Pennsylvania, which produced 553,560, and Ohio 94,647 out of a total of 884,474 tons. Five other States produce more bar and other rolled iron than Ohio. The total production was 406,298 tons, of which Pennsylvania produced 259,709, New York 38,275, New Jersey 25,006, Massachusetts 20,285, Virginia 17,870 and Ohio only 10,439 tons.

The total production of salt was 12,190,953 bushels, of which New York produced 7,521,335, Virginia 2,056,513, and Ohio 1,744,240 bushels.

Passing again to the general products and manufactures in which the above are included, we compare the aggregate census statistics of 1850 and 1860, which will exhibit the progress made in the intervening ten years:

	1850.	1860.
Establishments.....	10,622	10,700
Capital invested.....	$29,019,538	$53,000,000
Value of raw material.....	$34,678,019	$70,000,000
Employed—males.....	47,054	69,800
" females.....	4,437	11,400
Value of products.....	$63,053,778	$125,000,000

The stationary return in the number of establishments is due to the increased employment of steam power, which has the effect of diminishing the number of small establishments, the existence of which is only possible in a primitive condition of manufactures.

The value of the principal articles of production and manufacture compare as follows:

Products, &c.	1850.	1860.
Flour and meal	$14,372,270	$27,129,405
Clothing	2,765,232	8,615,329
Lumber	3,864,452	5,600,045
Steam engines, &c	2,153,297	4,855,005
Spirits	.....	4,197,429
Furniture	1,809,390	3,703,605
Boots and shoes	2,320,096	3,623,827
Leather	2,100,982	2,799,239
Agricultural implements	557,932	2,690,943
Soap and candles	611,193	2,418,972
Iron castings	2,484,878	1,650,523
Printing	357,565	2,150,783
Malt Liquors	.....	1,912,419
Cotton goods	594,204	629,500
Woolen goods	1,513,978	692,383
Illuminating gas	.....	491,748
Sewing machines	.....	178,785

The following exhibits in more detail the manufactures specified:

	Establishments.	Capital invested.	Value of Raw material.	Hands employed.	Cost of labor.	Value of Products.
Clothing	486	$3,021,221	$4,339,684	13,196	$2,264,352	$8,615,329
Furniture	355	2,273,743	844,797	4,090	.....	3,703,605
Boots and shoes	950	1,115,476	1,455,686	4,601	1,340,712	3,623,827
Soap and candles	25	621,927	1,778,642	244	.....	2,418,972
Cotton goods	7	250,000	250,000	610	112,400	629,500
Woolen goods	113	623,650	388,340	509	137,064	692,383
Gas	22	1,668,650	92,470	356	135,936	491,748
Sewing machines	8	46,200	36,072	114	40,706	178,785

From the preceding figures it is ascertained that Ohio has doubled its products and manufactures every ten years since 1840, and that throughout that period it has constantly produced from 6 to 6¼ per cent of the total value in the Union. In the meanwhile in Massachusetts the annual value has decreased gradually from 15¼ to 14 per cent of the total. Does not this indicate a progressive increase of manufacturing industry westward to the disadvantage of the eastern manufacturing States? In each of the census years to which we have referred, the Ohio values have, with the exception of 1850, been about one-third those of New York, indicating a like relative progress with that great and flourishing State.

With regard to Petroleum we have few, and these imperfect, sources of information. According to the returns of the United States Internal Revenue authorities, the tax paid on this material in 1863–'64 amounted to $241,013 46, which, at 10 cents per gallon, supposes the production in the year named to have been 2,410,134 gallons. This important article of commerce and consumption, moreover, promises a future development into one of the most productive branches of the States' industry. The location of the producing wells is the southeastern section of the State, south of the coal fields and east of the chief iron region. The whole mining region of Ohio, indeed, is included between the Ohio River northward to latitude 40½°, and westward to longitude 82½°.

The movement of the agricultural and manufactured products of the State is facilitated by one of the most complete and convenient systems

of railroad and canal facilities that is to be found in any of the United States. The railroads either cross the State from the south to the north, connecting the waters of the Ohio with those of Lake Erie, or east and west connecting the eastern and western through routes to and from the sea-board and trans-Mississippi States, of which Ohio is the middle section. Thus Ohio has outlets to the sea-board *via* the New York Central and the Erie roads in New York, the Philadelphia and Erie, and the Central in Pennsylvania, and the Baltimore and Ohio in West Virginia and Maryland, reaching, through their connections, the Atlantic ports by the directest lines of transportation. Westward the lines connect with Chicago, Dubuque, Burlington, St. Louis and Cairo, etc., crossing the west State line at six principal points. The canals have generally a north and south course, but of late years their traffic has been greatly diminished, the railroads competing for and taking away their legitimate tonnage. These are owned by the State, but are in reality unproductive, their earnings having scarcely paid current expenses for many years. They are, however, still useful for agricultural and other heavy produce, the value of which in the markets is too small to pay for railroad transportation.

The following table shows the general features of the railroads of this State with the kinds and amounts of capital invested in them up to the latest dates, chiefly at that point when their fiscal years closing nearest to January 1, 1865, terminates:

Corporate Titles of Co's.	Capital Account.				Cost of road & Equipm't	Miles in Ohio.	Miles in other
	Shares.	Bonds.	Debt.	Total.			
Atlantic and Great Western*..	2,000,000,	10,000 000	.....	12,000,000	12,000,000	256	—
Bellefontaine and Indiana.....	2,562,251	1,040,550	.....	3,602,801	3,254,520	118	—
Carrollton†	225,000	.....	.....	225,000	225,000	12	—
Central Ohio*.....	2,000,000	3,000,000	. .....	5,000,000	5,000,000	137	—
Cin. Hamilton, and Dayton...	3,000,000	1,629,000	.....	4,629,000	4,634,929	60	—
Cin. and Indianapolis Junction	500,000	1,000,000	.....	1,500,000	1,500,000	21	25
Cincinnati and Zanesville*....	2,000,900	1,300,000	.....	3,300,000	3,300,000	132	—
Clev., Columbus, and Cincin..	6,000,000	491,000	. .....	6,491,000	4,750 000	191	—
Cleveland and Mahoning†.....	1,036,065	1,752,400	128,857	2,917,322	3,553,162	78	—
Cleveland, Painesville & Asht	4,000,000	1,501,000	.....	5,501,000	4,718,845	69	25
Cleveland and Pittsburg†	3,832,712	4,324,605	94,329	8,251,646	7,836,094	204	—
Cleveland and Toledo	4,690,600	2,614,810	.....	7,305,410	7,424,022	188	—
Cleveland, Zanesville, & Cin†.	369,673	577,250	632,486	1,579,409	1,574,683	61	—
Clev. and Indianapolis Cent'l*	4,000,000	1,500,000	.....	5,500,000	5,500,000	133	73
Columbus and Xenia....	1,692,300	248,800	.....	1,941,100	1,714,241	55	—
Dayton and Michigan	2,316,705	3,782,930	.....	6,099,635	5,992,114	144	—
Dayton and Western†.....	308,107	698,000	60,000	1,066,107	1,104,085	28	—
Dayton, Xenia and Belpré†....	437,838	422,658	.....	840,496	860,496	16	—
Eaton and Hamilton	469,763	717,734	.....	1,187,497	1,227,898	45	—
Fremont, Lima, and Union* ..	500,600	500,000	.....	1,000,000	1,000,000	40	—
Greenville and Miami†.....	300,000	473,000	75,000	748,000	888,000	22	—
Iron†	123,165	35,000	5,000	163,165	250,641	13	—
Little Miami.....	3,572,436	1,400,000	.....	4,972,436	4,126,278	84	—
Marietta and Cincinnati..	12,047,731	3,011,293	... .	15,059,024	15,805,315	269	—
Pittsburg, Col., and Cincinnati	1,906,736	2,400,000	466,215	4,772,951	4,772,951	126	—
Sandusky, Dayton, and Cincin.	3,260,887	1,495,728	11,190	4,767,805	4,578,973	205	—
Sandusky, Mansfield, & New'k	886,909	1,292,000	123,272	2,302,181	2,426,916	116	—
Toledo and Wabash.....	3,427,050	6,653,868	.....	10,080,918	10,080,918	75	167
	67,465,928	53,861,626	1,596,349	122,923,903	119,267,815	2959	292
Indianapolis and Cincinnati*..	2,000,000	2,000,900	.....	4,000,000	4,000,000	17	93
Mich. South. and Nor. Indiana	9,720,200	8,564,115	.....	18,284,315	16,555,412	83	490
Ohio and Mississippi*	8,000,000	2,000,000	.....	10,000,000	10,000,000	17	175
Pittsburg, F't Wayne, & Chic.	8,181,126	12,657,000	.....	20,838,126	21,164,329	346	222
	27,901,326	25,221,115	.....	53,122,441	51,719,741	363	940
Total	95,367,254	79,082,741	1,596,349	176,046,344	170,986,656	3322	1351

* Cost estimated. † Statements more than a year back.

From the above table it will be seen that the roads attributed to Ohio have a length of 3.251 miles, and have cost $119,267,315, or $36,686 per mile, and the roads of other States, part of which are in Ohio, have a length of 1,352 miles, and have cost $51,719,741, or $38,624 per mile. Hence the

2,050 miles of Ohio road in Ohio cost.....	$108,755,874
and 363 miles of foreign road in Ohio	14,020,512
Making the total cost of 3,322 miles of road in Ohio.....	$122,776,386

or, in round number, $37,000 per mile. This cost includes equipment and all property used in operations. The original cost, however, must have been considerably larger, probably $45,000 per mile, as many of the companies have been reorganized by the bondholders after reducing or wholly expunging the stock interest. The details of these would be too cumbersome for our present purpose.

That the war recently brought to a conclusion has developed a large amount of new traffic for the great east and west railroad lines of this continent, by the blocking up of the Mississippi and the diversion of this trade to the land routes is well ascertained; and it is certain that in this development the railroads of Ohio have largely participated. In another part of this month's *Hunt's Merchants' Magazine* are published the results of the operations of the principal New York railroads for the past four years, which show that the business and earnings thereof have generally doubled in that period. The same has obtained in Ohio, as indicated by the following comparison of the returns by the great lines, for 1860 and 1864, which are as follows:

Railroads.	Year.	Gross Earnings.	Operating Expenses.	Profits of Business.	Dividends.
Bellefontaine.....	1860	314,091	211,326	102,765	—
do	1864	976,881	797,813	279,068	6
Cin. Hamilton, & Dayton.	1860	644,229	361,529	282,700	7
do do	1864	1,241,857	738,629	503,228	19
Clev., Painsv'lle & Ash'la.	1860	1,063,405	429,758	633,647	15
do do .	1864	2,424,298	1,171,055	1,253,243	26
Clev., Columbus, & Cin..	1860	1,085,799	505,178	580,621	10
do do ..	1864	2,499,348	1,264,186	1,235,162	15
Clev. & Pittsburg.....	1860	1,020,638	564,497	456,141	— —
do do	1864	2,512,315	1,505,636	1,006,679	8
Clev. & Toledo.....	1860	919,971	426,015	493,956	—
do	1864	1,691,266	856,486	834,780	10
Dayton and Michigan....	1860	375,002	162,895	212,107	—
do do	1864	1,069,187	637,207	431,980	—
Little Miami.....	1860	1,200,499	858,908	341,591	8
do	1864	2,433,286	1,818,645	614,641	30
Sand., Dayton, & Cin....	1860	450,245	391,656	58,589	— —
do do	1864	600,162	466,315	133,747	—
Toledo & Wabash.....	1860	661,722	485,950	375,772	—
do do	1864	2,050,322	1,104,830	945,492	3½

The following table exhibits the ratio per cent of expenses to gross earnings in the two years, 1860 and 1864:

	1860.	1864.		1860.	1864.
Bellefontaine	67.28	71.44	Clev. & Toledo.....	46.30	50.63
Cin. Ham. & Dayton.	56.12	59.48	Dayton & Michigan.	43 43	59.60
Clev. Pains. & Ash'a.	40.41	48.30	Little Miami.....	71.57	74.74
Clev. Colum. & Cin.	46.52	50.58	Sand. Dayton & Cin.	86.88	77.72
Clev. & Pittsburg...	55 31	59.98	Toledo & Wabash..	56.88	57.45

Were it possible to get full returns of the traffic, as well as earnings, of all the Ohio railroads the results would be more satisfactory, as then we might distinguish the material from the financial development. Only a few of the companies, however, publish annual reports, and still fewer give the quantitative results of their business. This defect ought to be remedied by compelling each company to report to the legislature annually at a period fixed by law and on a uniform plan. Until this be done we can never know the aggregate of the commercial movement of the State. Mr. Mansfield, the intelligent commissioner of statistics, has made inquiries relative to these points, but, in the main, failed to elicit the information required. He, however, obtained the financial results for 1860, in full, and in his report for 1863 published these with an estimate for 1862. These we reproduce, with an estimate for 1864 :

	1860. (Actual.)	1862. (Estimate.)	1864. (Estimate.)
Miles of Road	4,307	4384	4,403
Miles in Ohio	3,024	3,051	3322
Cost of Roads	$153,000,491	$153,142,391	$170,986,028
Capital	$77,507,608	$77,950,000	$95,367,254
Bonds	78,949,948	77,850,000	79,082,741
Floating Debt	10,515,792	10,000,000	1,596,849
Gross Earnings	$17,172,285	$22,323,970	$35,144,570
Operating Expenses	10,040,717	12,947,897	22,989,577
Profits	7,131,568	9,376,073	12,154 993

The estimate of earnings and expenses for 1862 is based on an increase over 1860 of 30 per cent. That for 1864 is 100 per cent increase on the earnings of 1860, and 120 per cent on the expenses. The estimate for 1864 is a nearly correct average as deduced from the tables given above. That the increase in expenses should have been so small compared with the experience of the New York roads, is a matter of congratulation, and testifies to improved economy in management. The result has been highly beneficial to the owning companies. It has enabled them to pay off the debts which encumbered them previous to the commencement of the war, and almost all have greatly improved their properties. Dividends have been paid where dividends were least expected, and companies which had heretofore paid dividends have doubled and, in some cases, trebled the rates. The war indeed has had its compensations, and railroads have so far shared in these as to have wholly changed their financial characteristics.

The canals of Ohio, although they have never yielded to the State the interest on their cost, and are now financially worthless, are well constructed, and have been of vast service in developing the regions through which they have their courses. These, with the National Road and several minor roads, which, in their day, proved also of great advantage to the settlement of the country, constitute the public works of Ohio, for the construction of which the larger portion of the State debt was contracted. Their history dates from 1825, on the 4th of July of which year ground was formally broken for the National Road at St. Clairsville, and for the Ohio canal at Licking Summit.

The National Road was constructed from funds derived from allowed per centages on the sales of the public lands, and was completed at a cost to the Federal Government of $2,081,008 36 in 1838. The tolls since collected on it have been scarcely sufficient to pay for its preservation.

The Ohio canal was projected to connect the Ohio river at Portsmouth with Lake Erie, at the point at which the city of Cleveland has grown up. It was finished in 1832. The Miami canal commences on Main street, Cincinnatti, and extends to Dayton on Mad river, between which points it was completed in 1829. The Miami Extension canal extends thence to Perrysburg on the Maumee. These are the largest of the works. It is not, however, proposed to enter extensively into the history of these, and hence we resort to tabulation as the best means of abbreviating the information which it is desirable in this connection to record. The following table exhibits a statement of the length and cost of each work:

Canals.	Termini of Lines.	Miles.		Cost.
Miami, So. Div.	Cincinnati to Junction with N. Div	182		$3,259,518
Warren Co. Branch	Middletown to Lebanon	19		217,552
Sidney Feeder	Lockington to Sidney, 8 m. and Miami Dam	14		392,258
St. Mary's Feeder	St. Mary's to Selina	11		528,222
Miami, No. Div	Junct. to Manhat. and Ind. Line	88		
Side Cut	To Swan Creek	1		3,057,187
Side Cut	To Perrysburg	2		
Ohio	Cleveland, via Roscoe and Carroll to Portsmouth	309		
Side Cut	To Eastport	4		
Side Cu	To Dresden	2		4,695,204
Side Cut	To Granville	6		
Side Cut	To Columbus	11	23	
Walhonding	Roscoe (Ohio C.) to Rochester	25		607,269
Hocking Valley C. and Slackwater	Carroll (Ohio C.) to Athens	56		975,491
Muskingum Improvement	Dresden (Ohio C.) to Marietta	91		1,627,318
Total length and cost of canal &c.		821		$15,359,999

The length of the locks varies from 87 to 90 feet, with a width of 15 feet. The locks in the Muskingum Improvement are 75x16 feet. The lock above Zanesville is 120x22.

Towards the cost of these works Congress made large grants of land, in all amounting to some 2,000,000 acres, which, in some instances, were sold, and in others used as a basis of credit. In this amount, the lands granted to Indiana for the Wabash and Erie canal, and transferred by that State to Ohio for the construction of that part of the canal within the latter State, are included. These, collectively, yielded to the State about two and a half million dollars.

The following table shows the earnings of the several canals at quinquennial periods:

Year.	Miami.	Ohio.	Walhonding.	Hocking.	Muskingum.	Total.
1835.....	$51,917	$185,684	$——	$——	$——	$237,601
1840.....	76,088	452,122	——	1,898	2,216	534,319
1845.....	186,041	240,369	1,283	5,502	30,551	493,796
1850	315,162	397,332	2,555	8,079	36,724	759,852
1860.....	158,755	94,457	839	16,788	17,586	288,405

The greatest yield of revenue from these works was in 1847, when it amounted to $805,019. The influence of the railroads was then beginning to be felt, and from that period a gradual decline set in, so that, in 1860, the total revenue was only $288,405. The expenses of maintenance in the same year $359,782, showing a loss in the year of $71,377. The

canals were now leased, and have been since June 1, 1861. We have the results of 1863 and '64, which were as follows:

Year.	Revenue to State.			Expenses p'd by State.	Actual Revenue.
	Rent.	Other.	Total.		
1863.....	$20,075	$18,970	$39,045	$25,606	$13,439
1864.....	20,075	3,532	23,607	14,143	9,464

Thus it appears that, so far as the canals are concerned, they have ceased entirely to be productive, and their cost only remains, which is the sum of indebtedness on the books of the State Treasury.

In the preceding pages we have exhibited a full statistical record of the progress of the State from its settlement to the year 1860, when the last Federal census was taken—from 1800, when the total population was only 45,365 to 1860, when it was 2,339,511, between which dates the population of its chief city had risen from 752 to 161,044. We have also traced its growth in agriculture and general industry, and the rapid, but gradual, development of its resources and wealth. In a former paper on this subject, published in October, 1849, we brought the records down to that year. We have partially retraced these, but still we refer the reader to that paper for minuter information than was necessary in the present instance. It still remains, however, for us to take a survey of the finances of the State since the period referred to, and this we shall do in as brief a space as figures will allow of.

The chief revenues of Ohio, as of all the other new States, have always been based on taxation either present or prospective, and taxation on the valuation of real estate and personal property. Special taxation has seldom been resorted to as a means of raising revenue. The wealth of the State is supposed to reside in the fixed property, and hence this alone has been subject to tax.

The progress of wealth and taxation, as shown by the returns at quinquennial periods from 1826, has been as follows:

Year.	Valuation or Wealth.	Taxation.		Total Amount.
		General and Sinking Fund.	School and Other.	
1826.....	$59,527,336	$106,688	$268,227	$362,915
1831.....	64,248,932	257,454	369,955	604,909
1836.....	85,812,382	201,623	637,143	779,997
1841.....	128,358,657	642,153	1,248,252	1,890,405
1846.....	150,909,331	1,208,462	1,371,611	2,580,073
1851.....	462,148,620	1,621,228	1,317,902	2,939,130
1856.....	820,661,037	1,395,125	1,231,058	2,626,183
1861.....	892,850,084	2,495,400	1,560,979	4,056,379
1864.....	1,006,696,116	1,909,579	1,408,384	3,329,963

Previous to 1847, land was valued in a state of nature. In that year a new system was adopted by which it was assessed more in accordance with its real value. Again, in 1853, a further improvement was effected, and since then a more rigid system of valuation has obtained, both as regards real estate and personal property. The effect of these changes in the mode of assessment is seen in the above table by the increased amount subject under the law to taxation. In the total taxes for 1864 are included $2,012,050, levied for war purposes.

In the following tables are given in detail (1) the valuation of real and personal property; (2) the taxes for State purposes; (3) the taxes for county purposes; (4) the taxes for city, town, and borough purposes,

(5) the aggregate of State, county, and local taxes; (6) a recapitulation of the population valuation, taxation, and State debt for each year, from 1849 to 1864, both years inclusive, and (7) a table reducing these to their proportional results.

VALUATION OF TAXABLES.

Fiscal years.	Quantity of lands. Acres.	Valuation of Taxables. Lands and buildings. $	City and town lots. $	Personal property. $	Total valuation. $
1849	23,792,318	264,661,957	71,177,354	95,000,074	430,849,385
1850	24,018,075	266,751,103	74,687,735	98,487,502	439,876,340
1851	24,391,745	269,010,542	77,330,691	115,807,387	462,148,620
1852	24,597,318	273,378,773	81,558,375	152,644,763	507,581,911
1853	24,868,793	278,169,709	85,321,192	229,905 947	593,396,848
1854	25,063,032	429,245,467	140,622,943	297,061,572	866,929,982
1855	25,220,083	432,261,785	145,596,754	283,018,815	860,877,354
1856	25,191,629	433,245,177	147,389,810	240,026,550	820,661,037
1857	25,328,620	435,614,676	150,906,006	263,793,897	849,414,579
1858	25,298,968	437,183,132	153,102,815	250,514 084	840,800,031
1859	25,320,842	438,439,600	155,674,404	251,785,947	845,899,954
1860	25,511,705	492,593,587	147,300,724	243,408,290	888,302,601
1861	25,321,275	494,064,638	148,818,918	248,966,532	892,850,034
1862	23,329,580	494,101,182	151,568,898	243,615,212	889,285,292
1863	25,360,407	495,399,666	154,100,356	286,871,222	936,371,244
1864	25,341,346	498,221,589	157,376,511	351,193,016	1,006,696,116

TAXATION FOR STATE PURPOSES.

Fiscal years.	General revenue. $	Sinking fund. $	Common schools. $	District libraries. $	War fund. $	Volunteer relief. $	Total Taxes. Amount. $	Rate. p. 100
1853	593,397	1,186,794	1,186,794	59,340	.....	.....	3,026,824	5.10
1854	606,851	1,083,662	1,300,395	86,693	.....	.....	3,077,601	3.55
1855	516,526	860,877	1,291,316	86,088	.....	.....	2,754,807	3.20
1856	820,669	574,456	1,231,007	.....	.....	.....	2,626,133	3.20
1857	589,276	757,517	1,262,602	.....	.....	.....	2,609,395	3.10
1858	587,247	1,057,902	1,259,092	83,921	.....	.....	2,978,122	3.55
1859	590,870	1,055,120	1,267,433	84,495	.....	.....	2,997,918	3 55
1860	709,326	1,551,575	1,242,812	.....	.....	.....	3,503,713	3.95
1861	1,247,700	1,247,700	1,249,054	.....	311,925	.....	4,056 379	4.55
1862	887,661	1,242,727	1,555,221	.....	310,685	533,179	4,529,473	5.10
1863	934,726	1,308,614	1,216,411	.....	327,150	935,703	4,722,608	5.05
1864	1,005,042	904,537	1,307,830	.....	100,504	2,012,050	5,329,963	5.30

TAXATION FOR COUNTY PURPOSES.

Fiscal years.	County expenses. $	Bridge purposes. $	Poor purposes. $	Building purposes. $	Road purposes. $	Railroad purposes. $	Aggregate county taxes. $
1853	1,101.717	217,416	177,522	240,688	270,369	248,110	2,255,822
1854	1,148,566	316,678	187,263	463,877	370,026	238,787	2,725,197
1855	1,188,568	332,079	238,333	272,538	364,715	366,072	2,762,305
1856	903,804	229,065	212,213	276,553	243,071	367,589	2,232,294
1857	996,048	208,866	223,247	293,923	188,569	431,639	2,402,285
1858	1,130,935	361,939	222,472	320,954	450,435	462,430	2,849,219
1859	1,305,996	398,403	277,328	374,664	402,294	493,360	3,151,140
1860	1,309,137	437,538	260,607	228,444	394,425	538,870	3,169,021
1861	1,326,140	324,491	342,225	261,087	430,254	538,176	3,222,373
1862	1,159,949	214,466	227,781	157,469	211,864	812,205	2,783,735
1863	1,111,957	339,225	264,159	83,066	225,149	648.337	2,671,943
1864	1,062,038	432,373	395,684	192,868	272,381	627,541	2,982,855

TOWNSHIP, TOWN, AND CITY, AND OTHER LOCAL TAXES.

Fiscal Years.	Township Expenses.	Special School and School-house.	Other special Purposes.	City, town, and borough purposes.	Aggregate Local Taxes.
	$	$	$	$	$
1853	269,977	987,496	119,235	934,149	2,311,057
1854	292,939	1,295,425	155,872	1,328,192	3,072,428
1855	302,841	1,246,346	200,337	1,194,094	2,943,618
1856	278,010	1,285,939	184,917	1,090,077	2,838,943
1857	299,922	1,418,097	282,919	1,316,719	3,267,657
1858	284,051	1,438,811	216,425	1,417,891	3,356,678
1859	309,685	1,440,250	245,860	1,471,958	3,467,703
1860	349,361	1,487,247	349,236	1,506,048	3,691,926
1861	323,286	1,373,863	585,028	1,560,198	3,792,375
1862	326,454	1,021,012	279,743	1,322,092	2,849,301
1863	290,284	1,226,047	1,202,261	1,455,736	4,174,284
1864	436,787	1,630,745	3,975,698	1,976,811	8,019,491

AGGREGATE TAXATION.

Fiscal Years.	For what Purposes			Delinquent Taxes.	Total Taxes & Delinquencies.
	State.	County.	Local.		
	$	$	$	$	$
1853	3,026,324	2,255,822	2,311,057	230,602	7,823,805
1854	3,077,601	2,725,197	3,072,428	217,113	9,092,339
1855	2,754,807	2,762,805	2,943,618	493,781	8,954,512
1856	2,626,133	2,232,294	2,838,943	312,144	8,009,514
1857	2,609,395	2,402,285	3,267,657	393,961	8,673,299
1858	2,978,122	3,849,219	3,356,678	572,630	9,756,65
1859	2,997,918	3,151,140	3,467,703	428,576	10,045,338
1860	3,503,713	3,169,021	3,691,928	453,013	10,817,676
1861	4,056,379	3,222,373	2,792 275	585,686	11,656,814
1862	4,529 973	2,788,735	2,849.301	372,776	10,135,286
1863	4,722,608	2,671,943	4,174.284	290,739	11,859 574
1864	5,329,963	2,982,865	8,019,491	262,299	16,594,639

RECAPITULATION.

Years.	Population.	Valuation.	Taxation.	State Debt.
	$	$	$	$
1849	1,946,922	430,819,385	.....	16,849,362
1850	1,980,329	439,876 340	.....	16,509,594
1851	2,011,033	462,148,620	.....	17,050,639
1852	2,042,188	507,581,911	.....	15,690,757
1853	2,073,786	593,896,848	7,823,805	15,574,582
1854	2,105,847	886,929,982	9,092,339	15,280,980
1855	2,138,874	860,977,354	8,954,512	14,541,857
1856	2,171,874	820,661,087	8,009,514	14,016,446
1857	2,201,854	849,414,579	8,673,299	13,985,786
1858	2,238,821	840,800,031	9,756,650	14,334,915
1859	2,273,286	845,899,951	10,045,338	14,324,417
1860	2,339,511	888,302,501	10,817,676	14,250,233
1861	2,362,906	892,850,084	11,656,814	14,897,273
1862	2,386,580	889,285,292	10,135,286	14,141,662
1863	2,410,401	936,371,244	11,859,574	13,464,89 9
1864	2,434,504	1,006,696,116	16,595,639	13,500,751

PROPORTIONAL RESULTS.

Fiscal years.	Valuat'n to popula. per cap.	Taxes to population—Dollars per capita.				Taxes to Valuation—Mills per Dollar.				State Debt—to	
		State.	County.	Local.	Total.	State.	County.	Local.	Total.	Popula. p. cap.	Valu ets. p. cts
	$	$	$	$	$	m	m	m	m	$	
1853	286 15	1 46	1 09	1 11	3 77	5.10	3 80	3 89	13.80	7 51	2.63
1854	421 18	1 43	1 29	1 46	4 81	3 55	3.09	3.49	10.25	7 54	1 78
1855	402 63	1 29	1 29	1 38	4 19	3 20	3.21	3.42	10 40	6 80	1.69
1856	377 94	1 21	1 03	1 31	3 69	3.20	2.72	3.46	9.76	6 45	1 70
1857	385 78	1 18	1 09	1 47	3 94	3 10	2.84	3.84	10.21	6 35	1.64
1858	375 55	1 32	1 27	1 50	4 86	3.55	3.39	3.99	11.60	6 40	1.70
1859	372 10	1 32	1 39	1 52	4 57	3.55	3 72	4.10	11.89	6 31	1.70

1860	379 71	1 50	1 33	1 57	4 62	3 95	3.57	4.16	12.18	6 09	1.60
1861	377 86	1 71	1 36	1 61	4 93	4.55	3.61	4.25	13.06	6 30	1.67
1862	372 64	1 90	1 16	1 19	4 25	5.10	3.13	3.29	11.40	5 92	1.59
1863	383 47	1 85	1 11	1 73	4 92	5.05	2.89	4.46	12.66	5 58	1.44
1864	413 51	2 19	1 22	3 29	6 84	5.30	2 96	7.96	16.48	5 54	1.34

The above tables give a complete review of the wealth and burdens of the people, and the relation one holds to the other.

The sources of revenue otherwise than taxation are small. The principal of these are pedlers' and showmen's licenses, and auction duties, convict labor, etc., which enure to the general revenue fund; the rents of public works which go to the Canal Fund; and the proceeds of land sales, investments, etc., which form part of the revenue of the Sinking Fund. The operation of these and other funds managed by the State is exemplified in the following abstract of the receipts and expenses of the State Treasury, for the year ending November 15, 1864, but exclusive of transfers and balances:

REVENUE.

General Fund.—Taxes collected	$924,897 56	
Licenses and auction duties	4,380 10	
Convict labor	85,515 79	
Overwork of convicts	7,232 26	
Sundry receipts	4,850 55	
		$1,026,876 26
Military Fund.—Proceeds of Loan	$237,102 50	
Transportation sold	96,241 21	
United States	15,179 70	
Overdrafts, etc., returned	3,109 06	
		$451,632 47
Canal Fund.—Rents		23,606 66
Sinking Fund.—Taxes proper	$1,294,781 88	
" (war fund)	323,506 37	
Sales of sections 16 and 29	134,040 38	
Principal and interest Virg. Military Sch. lands	6,737 67	
Principal and interest U. S Surplus revenue	40,874 91	
Turnpike & R. R. dividends, etc.	15,867 26	
Other receipts	11,359 75	
		1,826,367 72
Common School Fund.—Taxes collected		1,202,984 87
Volunteer Relief Fund—Taxes collected		926,932 43
National Road Fund.—Tolls		21,568 95
Allotment (Soldiers') Fund.—Receipts		2,251,555 46
Total receipts		$7,781,519 82

DISBURSEMENTS.

General Fund.—Judiciary	$68,895 83	
State officers	14,605 25	
Legislature	45,841 85	
Benevolent Institutions	248,759 32	
New Buildings	38,122 75	
Criminal Expenses	13,510 19	
Ohio Penitentiary	112,999 47	
Laws and Journals	65,151 85	
Sundries	227,970 00	
		830,856 01
Military Fund.—		656,299 20
Canal Fund		14,261 25

Sinking Fund.—Interest	$789,258 52	
Redemptions	405,464 94	
Interest on irreducible debt	180,248 24	
Expenses, etc.	5,892 33	
		1,380,864 03
Common School Fund.—Paid County Treasurers		1,220,841 70
Volunteer Relief Fund.—Paid County Treasurers		916,079 65
National Road Fund.—Superintend'ce and repairs		19,558 89
Allotment Fund.—Warrants redeemed		1,622,850 46
Total disbursements		$6,661,589 53

Leaving a balance in favor of revenue $1,069,030 24, or exclusive of the Allotment Fund, which indeed ought not to be included in the State accounts of $441,225 24. The Military, Volunteer Relief, Canal, and National Road funds, indeed, ought to be stricken out, the two first as exceptional, and the two latter as special and self supporting. With these excisions the real receipts and expenses of the State for support of itself and schools and the satisfaction of the State debt and interest was in 1863-64 only as follows:

	Revenues.	Expenses.
General Fund	$1,026,876 26	$830,856 01
Sinking Fund	1,826,367 72	1,380,864 03
School Fund	1,202,984 87	1,220,841 70
Total	$4,056,228 85	$3,432,561 74

The Funded Debt of Ohio, as it existed on the 15th November, 1864, consisted of the following loans:

Foreign Loan of 1860—6 per cent					$1,141,585 55
do	1865—5	do			1,015,000 00
do	1868—6	do			379,866 00
do	1870—6	do			2,183,531 93
do	1875—6	do			1,600,000 00
do	1881—6	do			4,095,309 47
do	1886—6	do			2,400,000 00
Total foreign debt					$12,815,212 95
Domestic—Stock of 1849			(interest ceased)	$1,765 00	
do	National Road Bonds		do	60 86	
do	Miami Ex. Canal L'n of 1863		do	4,000 00	
do	Union Loan of 1866		do	500 00	
do	do	1868		279,213 13	
do	do	1871		400,000 00	685,538 49
Total Fund Debt, Nov. 15, 1864					$13,500,751 47
Irreducible Debt, being amount deposited with the State, derived from sale of school and ministerial lands, the interest on which is paid to counties, and to Ohio University for school and ministerial purposes					3 163,578 45
Total of all debts					$16,664,329 92

On the following page we give a table showing the State Debt proper, as it existed on the 1st day of January, 1844, and the amounts outstanding on the 15th of November yearly thereafter, together with a statement of the amounts originally issued:

PUBLIC DEBT OF THE STATE OF OHIO.

Statement showing the amount of Foreign and Domestic Debt of the State of Ohio, as it existed on the 1st of January, 1844, and thereafter yearly on the 15th November, 1845–64.

(Compiled from the Annual Reports of the Auditor of the State)

Year.	FOREIGN DEBT OUTSTANDING.											DOMESTIC DEBT OUTSTANDING.				Aggregate amount of Foreign and Domestic Debt outstanding, Nov. 15.
	1825 $400,000	1825 $1,000,000 1827 1,300,000 1828 1,300,000 1830 600,000 1832 100,000	1843 $1,500,000	1837 $150,000	1836 $30,000 1837 677,849 1838 1,362,666 1839 1,361,123 1840 2 0,000	1838 $700,000 1839 2,051,000 1840 1,618,000 1841 1,172,281 1842 580,000 1843 880,500	1850* $410,000 1850* 632,000	1861 $379,866 (Union Loan)	1842 $753,400 1843 75 663 1850* 1,516,468	1850* $1,600,000	1860* $4,095,309	1856* $2,400,000	1842: Faith and Credit $181,602 Miami C. Lands 98,746 W. & E. Canal 5 196	1843: Faith and Credit $229,400 Miami C. Lands 94,100	1846: Canal & Sch'l Lands $91,742 Turnpikes 181 416 National Road 67,175	1861 $831,273 1864 400,000 (Union Loan.)	
	5s. 1850	6s. 1850	7s. 1851	5s.1856	6s. 1856	6s. 1860	5s- 1865	6s. 1868	6s. 1870	6s. 1875	6s. 1881	6s. 1886	6s. var.	6s.var.	6s. var.	6s '65'71	
1844	400,000	4,100,000	,500,00	150,000	3,514,638	6,901,781	.....	.....	829,063	.....	.....	.....	285 544	323.500	.....	.....	18,004,526
1845	400,000	4,018.659	,500,00	150,000	3,365,779	6,862,781	.....	.....	667 063	.....	.....	.....	285 544	323 500	.....	.....	17.573 326
1846	400,000	4,018,659	,500,00	150,000	3,365,779	6,862,781	.....	.....	667.063	.....	.....	.....	285 544	323,500	340 333	.....	17,913 659
1847	400,000	4,018 659	,500,000	150,000	3,365,779	6,862,781	.....	.....	667.063	.....	.....	.....	268.019	323,500	272 857	.....	17,528,659
1848	400,000	4,018,659	,500,000	150,000	3,365,779	6,862,781	.....	.....	667 063	.....	.....	.....	254,801	3 3.500	175,191	.....	17 717.778
1849	400,000	3,285.659	,468,20	150,000	3,365,779	6,812,481	.....	.....	667 063	.....	.....	.....	250.896	323.500	155 783	.....	16,869.364
1850	400,000	2,469,190	,429,98	150,000	3,365,779	6,812,481	.....	.....	1 367.063	.....	.....	.....	48,316	322,300	154,483	.....	16,509,592
1851	.....	.....	,429,98	150,000	3,365,779	6,812,481	1,025,000	.....	2 183 532	1.600,000	.....	.....	33,197	29-,685	151,983	.....	17 050,634
1852	.....	.....	.....	150,000	3,365,779	6,812,481	1,025,000	.....	2.183.532	1.600,000	.....	.....	33 197	298 695	151,083	.....	15.619,759
1853	.....	.....	.....	150,000	3,365,779	6,812,481	1,025,000	.....	2,183.532	1,600.000	.....	.....	33,197	98.685	105,908	.....	15,574,587
1854	.....	.....	.....	150,000	3,292,133	6,666,336	1,025,000	.....	2.183 532	1.600.000	.....	.....	1,765	298.685	1,529	.....	15,218,982
1855	.....	.....	.....	150,00	2,769,932	6,511,394	1.025,000	.....	2.183.532	1,60 ,000	.....	.....	1,765	298,685	1,529	.....	14,541 830
1856	.....	.....	.....	85,350	2,423,360	6,413,325	1,025,000	.....	2 183 532	1,600,000	.....	.....	1.765	282 585	1,529	.....	14,016.447
1857	.....	.....	.....	85,350	.....	6,413,325	1,025,000	.....	2 183 532	1,600 000	.....	2.400,000	1,765	275,385	1,429	.....	†13,985,786
1858	.....	.....	.....	85,350	.....	6,413,325	1.025,000	.....	2,183 532	1 600.000	.....	2.400,000	1,765	275,385	558	.....	†14.334,915
1859	.....	.....	.....	85,350	.....	6,413,325	1.025,000	.....	2,183,532	1,600,000	.....	2,400,000	1,765	275,385	60	.....	†14.334.417
1860	.....	.....	.....	1,166	.....	6,413,325	1.025,000	.....	2.183.532	1 60 ,000	.....	2,4 0,000	1,765	275.385	60	.....	14,250 238
1861	.....	.....	.....	1,166	.....	6,198,325	1.025,000	379.866	2.183 53	1,600.000	.....	2,40 .000	1,765	275,385	60	831,273	14,897 273
1862	.....	.....	.....	1,166	.....	1,608,905	1 015 000	379 866	2.183 532	1,600,000	4,095 309	2,4 0,000	1,765	275.385	60	580,673	14,141,662
1863	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1,262,279	1.015.000	379 866	2 183,532	1,600,000	4, 95,309	2.400,000	1,765	245,785	60	281,213	13,464,809
1864	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1,141,505	1,015 000	379 866	2,183,532	1 600 000	4.095,309	2 400,000	1 765	4 000	60	679,713	13,500,751

* Stock issued in redemption of original stock due in the year of issue.

† Including $350,000, 6's temporary Loan, 1858–61.

The *Commercial and Financial Chronicle*, of August 26, 1865, in a very fair review of the financial condition of Ohio, makes the following remarks:

An instructive lesson is to be gathered from the statistics furnished above concerning the State debt and taxation of Ohio. It was not until 1803 that the State was admitted into the Union, yet in 1860 she possessed a population of nearly two millions and a half, from whom she raised local taxes amounting to nearly eleven millions of dollars, or over four dollars per capita. But it is from the statistics of her public debt that the best evidence of the excellent management which has been bestowed upon her finances is to be gathered. In 1825 the debt of the State was but $400,000. From this it grew to $4,520,000 in 1836, mainly under that policy of building public works at the public expense, which at that time was practiced very generally all over the country, and which, were it barren of any other consequences than the unquestioned benefits in the shape of railroads, canals, etc., which have done so much to populate and enrich the nation, could only be in the highest sense commendable. In 1837 the great financial revolution occurred. The public work system and the credit system had been pushed to their last degree of endurance. Vast enterprises only befitting the capital and resources of old and wealthy nations were on foot in every direction; bank money was poised in enormous sums upon extremely limited resources; commercial credit was piled up to a great height, while its base was confined to a small hoard of available capital. The inevitable result was a grand toppling over. The circulation of all the banks in the United States in 1837 was $149,185,890, while the specie was but $37,915,340. In 1844 the circulation was reduced to $75,167,646, and the specie increased to $49,893,269. In 1837, the discounts were $525,115,702, while six years later, in 1843, they fell to 254,544,937.

It is not to be supposed that Ohio passed unscathed through these exhausting vicissitudes. From $4,520,000 in 1836, her State debt increased to $18,004,526 in 1844. This was mainly for improvements in progress prior to 1837, and for losses sustained by the State during the great crisis. These eighteen millions of debt represented all her old score of go-aheadativeness and of folly, of unnatural activity and reactional paralysis; and from the moment Ohio fully realized this fact she inaugurated a career of retrenchment and reform, of cautious progress and sufficient taxation, which, to her very great advantage, she has continued to this day. She was one of the very few States that did not suspend payment of the interest on her debt. Mississippi, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, Louisiana, Florida, Arkansas, Maryland, and Pennsylvania—all these States either "repudiated" or suspended payment. But Ohio stood firm, and by means of rigorous taxation and rigid economy emerged safely from the storm, with tattered sails it is true, but with hull as sound and water tight as could be wished.

Ten years later, and the debt of Ohio is seen to have diminished to $15,218,990. This was in 1854, the year which marks the final recovery of the country from the disastrous effects of 1847, as is evidenced by the banking capital and discount line, by the market prices of commodities, and by the reinstatement of foreign capital in former employments and enterprises. At this time the valuation of taxable property in Ohio, in proportion to her population per capita, was

421 18; in other words, it was estimated that each inhabitant of the State possessed an average of $421 18 worth of taxable property. Of course this is not understood to be literally true, because if all the capital at that time belonging to capitalists in other States of the Union and in foreign countries, which is included in this estimate, had been taken out of it, no doubt but that the valuation of native taxable property per capita in the State of Ohio, would have dwindled down to a much smaller sum. But whether the property of native or foreigner, it was alike subject to taxation, and this was sufficient for the purpose. Out of this $421 18 the insignificant sum of 10½ mills per dollar sufficed to pay State, county, and local taxation, which embraced not only the budget of current expenditures, but a gradual sinking of the entire debt outstanding.

From $15,218,980, or $7 54 per head, in 1854, the State debt receded, under good management, to $14,016,446, or $6 45 per head, in 1856, and in the face of the panic of 1837, fell by the end of that year to $13,985,786, or $6 35 per head. In 1860 it was $14,250,233, or $6 07 per head.

This brings us to the commencement of hostilities in the South. The reader will therefore be prepared to find the debt of Ohio enormously increase with each successive year of the war. She was one of the first of the States to answer the national call to arms, and she stinted neither men nor money to support the Government until the very end of the struggle was reached, and the Federal authority fully reinstated all over the country. But instead of perceiving an increase of debt since 1861, it will be found to have actually decreased, so that last year it amounted to but $13,500,751, or $5 54 per head.

This triumph of financial skill is well worthy of closer inspection. In 1854 the valuation of taxable property to population per capita was $421 18. In 1856 it was $377 94, and maintained this average until 1864, when, under a more rigid system of assessment, it rose to $413 50. Upon these amounts 10½ mills per dollar was levied in taxes in 1854; 11 6-10 in 1858; 13 6-100 in 1861, 11 4-10 in 1862; and 16 48-100 in 1864; so that the tax on capital is seen to have been, with little exception, constantly increased. The same result attended the tax per capita. In 1854 the total yearly tax paid by each inhabitant of the State was $4 31. This fell to $3 69 in 1856, and rose to $4 93 in 1861. It fell to $4 25 in 1862, and in 1864 had again risen to $6 84. Under this treatment not only has the total amount of indebtedness steadily fallen, but the proportion of debt to population has fallen also. In 1854 it was $7 54 per head, and in 1864 but $5 54 per head, so that if each person pays as much this year as he did last, and the tax per head to cover expenditures of the current year does not exceed $1 30, the whole debt can be extinguished by the termination of the fiscal year 1865. The present population of Ohio being about 2,500,000 this amounts to saying: if the State expenditures of the current year do not exceed the sum of $3,250,000, and her people pay as much per capita in the form of taxation as they did last year, that the entire State indebtedness of $13,500,751 will be paid off and extinguished.

Of course, in view of the extra heavy burdens which her people are now called upon to shoulder in order that the Federal debt may be carried, it is not to be apprehended that the financiers of the State government of Ohio will put them

to this great task without better reason for it than the mere satisfaction of balancing her books a few years in advance of the appointed time; but the hypothesis is entertained in order to show in the strongest possible light the extraordinary resources of the Buckeye State in wealth and yield of taxes, that capitalists should not fail to bear them in mind when opportunities offer for investments in Ohio.

Had the Federal Government followed the example of Ohio in the management of its debt, not only would its sum total have been at this day but a mere vulgar fraction of what it is, but much of the popular dissatisfaction which now prevails upon this head might have been prevented. While the people would have been called upon to pay but a small yearly addition per capita, vast sums in the aggregate would have been saved. The expenditures of the general government since the beginning of the war have been as follows:

Fiscal Year.	Amount.	Fiscal Year.	Amount.
1862.....Actual.....	$474,744,778	1864.....Estimated... ..	$865,734,087
1863..... "	714,709,995	1865..... "	895,729,135

This includes $145,000,000 for interest. The taxes raised during these years, assuming that the population of the loyal States remained stationary at 20,000,000, was as follows:

Year.	Total Taxes.	Taxes per capita.
1862.....	$51,935,720 actual	$2 59
1863.....	111,399,760 "	5 56
1864.....	260,632,717 estimated	13 03
1865.....	344,512,389 "	17 22

But the truth is that the estimates for 1864 and '65 are much above the mark. The taxes of the fiscal year just closed do not much exceed $200,000,000, while those of the current year may not be much greater. And again, the population *has* increased, not only in the loyal States, but by the accretion this year of the entire population of the South. To state the actual truth then, the tax per capita which has been raised, and which will be raised this year by the Federal Government, is as follows:

Year.	Population.		Tax per capita.
1862.....	20,000,000	Loyal States only	$2 59 actual
1863.....	20,000,000	" "	5 43 "
1864.....	21,000,000	" "	10 00 estim'd
1865.....	33,090,000	All " "	6 66 "

Now, if this taxation had been the same in the other years as it was in 1864, or ten dollars per capita, the result would have been that at the termination of the current fiscal year, our debt would not much exceed $2,000,000,000, and had it been twenty dollars per capita the debt would scarcely exceed 1,200,000,000, —perhaps, if the waste and extravagance be taken into account, not even so much.

"Pay as you go" has always been found to be the best motto for the merchant, and as Ohio has taught us, it is the best also for the financier; and the surprising results of this excellent policy can be no better illustrated than by the tables presented to the reader in the foregoing statistical exposition.

COMMERCIAL LAW.—NO. 25.

THE LAW OF SHIPPING.

(Continued from page 133, vol. 53.)

SALVAGE.

In the Law of Shipping and the usage of merchants, the word "salvage" has two quite different meanings. If a ship or cargo meets with disaster, and the larger part is destroyed or lost, and a part be saved, that which is saved is called the "salvage." Thus, if a ship be wrecked, and sold where she lies, because she cannot be got off, her materials, wood and metal, her spars, sails, cordage, boats, and everything else about her which has any value, constitute the "salvage." And all of this, or the proceeds of it if it be sold by the master, belong to the owner or to the insurer, accordingly as circumstances may indicate; and this question will be considered in the chapter on the Law of Insurance.

Besides this, which is the primary meaning of the word, salvage has quite another signification. By an ancient and universal law, maritime property which has sustained maritime disaster, and is in danger of perishing, may be saved by any persons who can save it, whether they are or are not requested to do so by the owner or his agent. And the persons so saving it acquire a right to compensation, and a lien or claim on the property saved for compensation. The persons saving the property are called "salvors;" the amount paid to them is paid for saving the property, or, as it was called, for the "salvage," meaning at first by this word the act of saving it; but the habit of paying so much "for salvage" led to understanding by "salvage" the money paid. Then it was said, the money was paid *as* salvage. This is now the more common use of the word. Thus, a party bringing a saved vessel in demands "salvage," and estimates the salvage as so much; and the owners are said to loose so much by salvage, or so much money is charged to salvage, and insurers, are said to be liable for salvage, meaning in all these and similar cases the amount paid for saving, or for the act of salvage.

This law is not only applicable to all maritime property, but is confined to that; and is wholly unknown in reference to property saved from destruction on land. Judge Story, in one of his works, intimates that he who finds and restores valuable property on land should be entitled to compensation for his labor or risk. Morally, this may be so; but no such claim was ever allowed in England or in this country, unless on a promise (expressed or implied by a request for the service) by the owner.

Because this principle is wholly and exclusively maritime, no court but that of Admirality acknowledges and enforces it. The way in which it is enforced is this. We have already said that salvors have a lien on the property saved for their compensation; that is, they have possession of it, and have a right to keep possession of it until their claim be satisfied. For this purpose they bring it into the nearest port, and then make their claim of the owner or his agent, if they can find him, and he is within reach. If he cannot be found, or if he refuses what they think proper to demand, they employ counsel who are acquainted with the practice in Admiralty courts, who present to the court in the district where the property is a

libel, as it is called in admiralty law, setting forth the facts, and the demand for salvage. Thereupon the court takes possession of the property, and orders notice to the owners, if possible. The owners thereupon appear, and either resist all the demand for salvage, on the ground that no services were performed which entitled the party to salvage, or, admitting the service, they go to trial to determine whether any salvage, and, if so, how much, shall be paid. On this question evidence and argument are heard, and the court then issues such decree as the case seems to require.

Although services were rendered to the ship or cargo, or both, it does not follow that they were salvage services in the legal sense of the word. For certainly every person who helps another at sea does not thereby acquire a right to take possession of the property in reference to which his assistance was given, and carry it into port. To give this right, the property, whether ship or cargo, must have been, in the proper and rational sense of the term, *saved;* that is, there must have been actual disaster and impending danger of destruction; and from this danger the property must have been rescued by the exertions of the salvors, either alone, or working together with the original crew.

It is to be noticed, however, that neither the master, nor officers, nor sailors of the ship that is saved can be salvors or entitled to salvage. The policy of the law-merchant forbids the holding out such a reward for merely doing their duty. It considers that sailors might be induced to let the vessel get into danger, if they could expect a special reward for getting her out of it. They are already bound by law to do all they possibly can do to save the ship and cargo under all circumstances. But courts of Admiralty have sometimes allowed gratuities to seamen, for extraordinary exertions and very meritorious conduct. A passenger may be a salvor of the ship he sails in, because he has no special duty in regard to it.

If the court of Admiralty find it to be a case for salvage, there are no positive and certain rules which determine how much shall be given, or in what proportions to the different salvors. In every case the court are governed by the circumstances of that case. It is, however, quite generally agreed that if a ship or cargo be entirely abandoned at sea, or, in maritime phrase, *derelict*, those who find it and take possession of it, and bring it in, take one half of the property saved, for salvage. More than this is very seldom given; but this has been done in a few extraordinary cases.

If the property may not be entirely derelict or deserted, and all hope of recovering it by the original crew given up, then less than half is given by way of salvage. How much less depends on the circumstances. It may be very little, or nearly half. The court inquire how much time was lost by the salvors, how much labor the saving of the property required, and, most of all, how much exposure the salvors underwent, or how much danger they incurred. For it is an established rule, that, in addition to a fair compensation for time, labor, and loss of insurance (for which see the chapter on Insurance), the court will give a further sum by way of reward, and for the purpose of encouraging others to make similar exertions and incur similar perils to save valuable property. And in this point of view, all necessary exposure and danger are considered as entitled to liberal reward.

If the court have not restored the property to its owners on their giving bonds, with sureties, to pay the salvage and costs, they order the property sold; and they may do either of these things at any period of the proceedings. At the close, they decree the whole amount of salvage, and also direct particularly its distribution.

A large part, usually about one fourth of the whole salvage, is allowed to the owners of the saving ship or ships; another large part to her master, less parts to the officers in proportion to their rank, and the residue is divided among the crew, with such discrimination between one and another as greater or less exertions or merit require.

The trial is had, and the whole decree and this distribution of the salvage made, by the court alone, without a jury. But the statute of the United States, which gives our courts of Admiralty (which are exclusively United States courts, no State court having any Admiralty power) jurisdiction in Admiralty over our inland lakes and rivers, provides that disputed facts shall be tried by a jury, in most cases, at the request of either party.

THE NAVIGATION OF THE SHIP.

1. *Of the Powers and Duties of the Master.*—The master has the whole care and supreme command of his vessel, and his duties are coequal with his authority. He must see to everything that respects her condition; including her repair, supply, loading, navigation, and unloading. He is principally the agent of the owner; but is, to a certain extent, the agent of the shipper, and of the insurer, and of all who are interested in the property under his charge.

Much of his authority as agent of the owner springs from necessity. He may even sell the ship, in a case of extreme necessity; so he may make a bottomry bond which shall pledge her for a debt; so he may charter her for a voyage or a term of time; so he may raise money for repairs, or incur a debt therefor, and make his owners liable. All these, however, he can do only from necessity. If the owner be present, in person or by his agent, or is within easy access, the master has no power to do any of these things unless specially authorized.

If he does them in the home port, the owner is liable only where by some act or words he ratifies or adopts the act of his master. If in a foreign port, even if the owner were there, he may be liable, on his master's contracts of this kind, to those who neither knew nor had the means of knowing that the master's power was superseded or qualified by the presence of the owner. The master being by the law merchant the *general agent* of the owner of the ship, no one dealing with him can be prejudiced by any private or secret limitations to his authority by the owner.

Beyond the ordinary extent of his power, which is limited to the care and navigation of the ship, he can go, as we have said, only from necessity. But this necessity must be greater to justify some acts than for others. Thus, he can sell the ship only in a case of extreme and urgent necessity; that is, only when it seems in all reason impossible to save her, and a sale is the only way of preserving for the owners or insurers any part of her value. We say "seems;" for if such is the appearance at the time, when all existing circumstances are carefully considered and weighed, the sale is not void for want of authority, if some accident, or cause which could

not be anticipated, as a sudden change in the wind or sea, enables the purchaser to save her easily. Several such cases have occurred.

So, to justify him in pledging her by bottomry, there must be a stringent and sufficient necessity; but it may be far less than is required to authorize a sale. It is enough if the money is really needed for the safety of the ship, and cannot otherwise be raised, or not without great waste.

So, to charter the ship, there must be a sufficient necessity, unless the master has express power to do this. But the necessity for this act may be only a mercantile necessity; or, in other words, a certain and considerable mercantile expediency.

So, to bind the owners to expense for repairs or supplies, there must also be a necessity for them. But here it is sufficient if the repairs or supplies are such as the condition of the vessel, and the safe and comfortable prosecution of the voyage, render proper. Where the master borrows money, and the lender sues the owner, great stress is sometimes laid upon the question whether the captain was obliged to pay the money down. But we do not see in principle any great difference between incurring a debt for service or materials which the owner must pay, or incurring the same debt for money borrowed and applied to pay for the service or materials.

So the master—unlike other agents who have generally no power of delegation—may substitute another for himself, to discharge all his duties, and possess all his authority, if he is unable to discharge his own duties, because, in that case, the safety of the ship and property calls for this substitution.

Generally, the master has nothing to do with the cargo between the lading and the delivery. But, if the necessity arises, he may sell the cargo or a part of it, at an intermediate port, if he cannot carry it on or transmit it, and it must perish before he can receive specific orders. So he may sell it, or a part, or pledge (or hypothecate) it, by means of a *respondentia* bond, in order to raise money for the common benefit. A bond of respondentia is much the same thing as to the cargo, that a bottomry bond is as to the ship. Money is borrowed by it, at maritime interest, on maritime risk, the debt to be discharged by a loss of the goods. But it can be made by the master only on even a stronger necessity than that required for bottomry; only when he can raise no money by bills on the owner, nor by a bottomry of the ship, nor by any other use of the property or credit of the owner. Indeed, it seems that, when goods are sold by the master to repair the vessel, it is to be considered as in the nature of a forced loan, for which the owner of the vessel is liable to the shipper, whether the vessel arrive or not.

The general remark may be made that a master has no ordinary power, and can hardly derive any extraordinary power even from any necessity, except for those things which are fairly within the scope of his business as master, and during his employment as master. Beyond this, he has no agency or authority that is not expressly given him.

The master has a lien on the freight money for his disbursements and charges for the owner. The extent of this lien is not quite certain on the authorities. But in this country, we think, it secures the whole amount due to him, for wages, primage, (which is a certain small charge

or commission customarily allowed him,) or disbursements. And that he may hold the cargo even from the consignor or shipper, untill his lien is discharged.

The owner is liable also for the wrong-doings of the master; but, we think, with the limitation which belongs generally to the liability of a principal for the torts of his agent, or of a master for the torts of his servant. That is, he is liable for an injury done by the master, while acting *as the master of his ship.* But not for the wrongful acts which he may do personally, when he is not acting in his capacity of master, although he holds the office at the time. Thus, if, through want of skill or care, while navigating the ship, he runs another down, the owner is liable for the collision. But not if the master, when on shore, or even on his own deck, quarrels with a man, and beats him. Nor is the owner liable if the master embezzles goods which he takes on board to fill his own privilege, he to have all the freight and profit. Nor for injury to, or embezzlement of, goods put clandestinely on board, when the owner is on board and attending to the lading of the ship, and the shipper of the goods knows this, or has notice enough to put him on his guard.

2. *Of Collision.*—The general rule in this country, in respect to collision, is, that if both parties be equally in fault, the loss is apportioned between them; if neither party be in fault, the loss rests where it falls; but if the fault be wholly or substantially, on the one side, the other can recover full compensation. There are certain rules in regard to sailing, founded on the principle that the ship which can change its course, to avoid collision, with least inconvenience, must do so; and therefore, that the ship that has a fair or leading wind shall give way to one on a wind, or go under her stern; and it is said that, if vessels are approaching each other, both having the wind on the beam, or so far free that either may change its course in either direction, the vessel on the larboard tack must give way, and each pass to the right. The same rule governs vessels sailing on the wind, and approaching each other, when it is doubtful which is to the windward. But if the vessel on the larboard tack is so far to windward that, if both persist on their course, the other will strike her on the lee side, abaft the beam, or near the stern, in that case the vessel on the starboard tack should give way, as she can do so with greater facility and less loss of time and distance, than the other. Again, when vessels are crossing each other in opposite directions, and there is the least doubt of their going clear, the vessel on the starboard tack should persevere on her course, while that on the larboard tack should bear up, or keep away before the wind.

It is also held that steam-vessels are regarded in the light of vessels navigating with a fair wind, and are always under obligations to do whatever a sailing vessel going free or with a fair wind should be required to do under similar circumstances. Their obligation extends still further, because they possess a power to avoid the collision not belonging to sailing vessels, even with a free wind, the master having the steamer under his command, both by altering the helm and by stopping or reversing the engines.

COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW.

A Quiet Month—The Wheat Crop Falling Off—Tax Laws—Cotton Movements—Estimates of Supply—Failure of the Atlantic Cable—Enormous Frauds and Defalcations in Wall street—Market Rates for Money—Prices of Merchandise—Import Tables of Dry Goods—Total Foreign Imports since 1st January—Great falling off of same—Result of our Tax System—Statistics of Specie—Course of Exchange—Prices of Government Bonds and of Gold—Railway Shares—No Orders—Markets but little changed and tending to equalization.

EACH successive month is now more and more devoid of those stirring events that characterized the history of commercial affairs during the war. Commercial activity is more equalized. It is less spasmodic in its modes of manifestations. But it is not lessened; for in the place of the quick local market ventures which, during the war, attracted the admiration and absorbed the attention and efforts of our commercial world, we have the slower but infinitely more extensive, though less attractive, operations of a legitimate foreign commerce and domestic traffic.

August has passed away without a single military or political event, except the late proclamation of President JOHNSON allowing arms to be imported into the South, an event of no commercial importance whatever.

The crops, that element of the country's material prosperity, which is second in importance only to the maintenance of its foreign commerce, are reported to be good in quality this year and plentiful in quantity, though the returns, as estimated by the Commissioner of the Department of Agriculture, on the 1st of August, show a falling off in one crop, that of wheat, as compared with last year's, of 26,241,698 bushels, or one sixth of the whole, *e. g.:*

Crop of 1864, (bushels)	160,695,822
Estimate for 1865, (bushels)	134,454,124
Decrease	26,241,698

Of this amount of decrease, 23,864,744 bushels are imputed to the Western and Northwestern States.

This by no means argues an inferior capacity of productiveness. It may simply mean that an unwise system of spasmodic legislation has caused a large portion of the population to abandon agricultural pursuits, and turn their attention to the exotic industries brought into existence by forms of taxes, which have not yet found their point of equalization. The statistics of next year will undoubtedly show an opposite swing of the pendulum, unless, indeed, more changes are created by the legislation of the incoming Congress—for which, if made in the right direction, we must say there is plenty of room.

The striking movements of cotton begin to awaken universal attention. Such an unusual quantity of the staple is making its appearance in the great markets of New Orleans, New York and Mobile, that strong fears are entertained of a severe fall in prices.

Before the promulgation of President JOHNSON'S order in June last, abrogating all fees and restrictions attached by military order to the removal, sale and exportation of cotton, the price of the staple was about 55 cents. Immediately

after it fell to 45 cents, which figure it still maintains, though at one time it fell to 40 cents. The position of affairs is this: The crop of 1864 is estimated at 1,500,000 bales, more or less. We regard this as pretty correct. But what were the crops of 1863, 1862 and 1861? The crop of 1860, we know from the census, was 5,337,052 bales of 400 pounds each. At the rate of increase which this crop showed over the previous ones, the crop of 1861 must have been 6,500,000 bales. The war did not begin until the spring of that year, and by that time the crop was planted and growing. In the following years it is well known that the slaves, who had previously been employed in the cultivation of cotton, were put to other work: to raising cereals, to manufacturing, to army work, etc Cotton culture began to steadily decline, until the crop in 1864 was but 1,500,000 bales. Now, if during this time (1861 to 1864) the crop successively declined (and this is undeniable), then, according to the law of arithmetrical progression, the cotton crop during the war must have been somewhere about as follows: Crop of 1861, 6,500,000; crop of 1862, 4,800,000; crop of 1863, 3,100,000; crop of 1864, 1,500,000—making altogether 15,900,000 bales. Allowing for shipments by blockadge running, shipments to Mexico, shipments up the Mississippi to Cairo and other points, smuggling across the lines, secret and connived at, domestic consumption at the South, cotton burnings by both Northerners and Southerners, and cotton seizures by our armies, there must still remain a considerable portion, perhaps an entire fourth of these aggregate crops hidden in remote places or buried in underground *caches* throughout the South. This conclusion is supported by the experience of a traveling agent who was recently dispatched by an enterprising cotton firm in Liverpool to explore the entire cotton region and learn the facts for himself. Regardless of railroad and steamboat routes, this gentleman, with horse and saddle bags, went over the whole ground, and came to much the same conclusion which we have arrived at by a different method. He says there is plenty of cotton to be seen in out of the way places, and all of it awaiting facilities for transportation to market; and he believes that there is plenty more still hidden away. But about the future supply he is more reticent. And this is the principal problem to be solved. The stock now accumulated in shipping ports is over a quarter of a million of bales. True, this only shows either a lack of shipping facilities, or a determination on the part of owners to hold. But how long will this continue? Will any more cotton be grown in the Southern States; and, if so, will the crop ever again amount to more than a trifling one? These questions are impossible to answer without going to the spot and judging for one's self, for those who have done so, and *can* answer them, are not at all willing to part with their information. For our own part, however, we believe that the halcyon days of cotton cultivation are over, and if we hit the mark concerning the effect of free labor as closely as we did that of the probable effects of the removal of cotton restrictions, expressed in our July number, we shall have answered the main question as explicitly as any cotton speculator can desire.

We regret to be obliged to chronicle the failure of the Atlantic cable enterprise, and the return of the *Great Eastern* to England. The cable parted at a point distant about 600 miles east of Newfoundland, and another year must elapse before the enterprise can be renewed.

Frauds of a very extensive nature have made their appearance in Wall street during the month. On Monday, the 14th, Edward B. Ketchum, of the firm of Ketchum, Son & Co., Exchange place, absconded, in consequence of forgeries of gold certificates, of which he was the author. It was subsequently discovered that they amounted to $1,500,000, and that he had also robbed his firm of securities to the amount of $2,500,000, making altogether the large sum of four millions of dollars, nearly all of which is supposed to have been sunk in stock speculations. On the following day, as the result of this exposure, Ketchum, Son & Co. made an assignment, and Graham & Co., who suffered largely by it, suspended payment. Several other smaller failures were announced, but the combined effect of all of them has been nothing more serious than a temporary tightness in money, a falling off in discounts, a momentary fall in stocks, and a slight depression in governments and gold, from all of which the markets have already fully recovered. As this bold fraud was accompanied by the announcement of the robbery of the Phenix Bank, by its assistant paying teller Jenkins, to the extent of $300,000, which it seems also found its way into the stock pool, a serious panic was at one time imminently threatened; but the time for the catastrophy has not yet come; and, if the present suspension of specie payments is maintained until United States bonds approximate to par, and the effects of the past few years of alternate inflation and loss shall have diffused themselves among all classes of the community, and insensibly made the innocent to pay for the past excesses of the guilty, it may never come.

The rates for money during the month, as the following table illustrates, have been tending, on the whole, to greater ease, and demonstrate an increase of loanable funds and a decrease of commercial paper. This fact will find corroboration in the tables of bank discounts published in the Journal of Banking, etc., on p. 238 of this volume. The temporary stringency in loans on stock collaterals, occasioned by the Ketchum and Jenkins frauds, will also appear under the same head in the tables of rates of call loans:

DISCOUNT MARKET FOR AUGUST, 1865.

	Aug. 5 to 19.	Aug. 26.
Dry Goods paper	7½@ 8	7@ 7½
Grocers "	7½@ 8	7@ 7½
Bankers "	7 @	6@ 6½
Produce Commission	9 @12	8@10

The following comparative table of the prices of several leading articles of general merchandise will exhibit the present state of the markets:

	June 28	July 28.	Aug. 28.
Ashes, pots, 1st sort	$7 37½@ 7 62½	.. @ 7 50	7 50 @ 7 62½
Coffee, Rio, prime	.. @ 22	22 @	21 @ 21½
Cotton, N. O, mid	.. @ 46	.. @ 48	. @ 45
Flour, State, superfine	5 20 @ 5 60	6 20 @ 6 70	6 70 @ 7 40
Hay, N. R. shipping	95 @ 1 00	1 00 @ 1 05	80 @ 85
Nails, cut	5 00 @ 5 25	5 00 @	5 50 @ ..
Petroleum, crude 40@47 grav.	34½@ 35½	34 @ 35	31½@ 32
Pork, prime mess, new	18 50 @ ..	26 00 @27 00	31 50 @32 00
Tobacco, Kentucky lugs	6 @ 9	6 @ 9	7 @ ..
Leather, oak (Sl.) light	30 @ 32	33 @ 36	34 @ 35
Lumber, spruce, Eastern	14 @ 18	18 @ 20	18 @ 22
Corn, white Southern	85 @ 95	nominal.	1 10 @ 1 12
Wheat, white Genesee	1 75 @ 1 90	1 85 @ 2 15	2 15 @ 2 20
Sheetings, brown, standard	28 @ 30	32 @ 33	30 @ 30

From which it will be seen that with the exception of a heavy fall in hay, and a speculative advance in pork, the other changes have been light, the general prices, however, tending upwards, doubtless, by reason of the increased vigilance of tax collectors.

The following table shows the import of dry goods at this port for the past month:

VALUE OF DRY GOODS ENTERED FOR CONSUMPTION IN AUGUST 1865.

	1864.	1865.
Aug. 3	$4,550,014	$ 2.734,196
" 10	855,553	2,824,248
" 17	673.418	2.258.448
" 24	668,610	1,714,759
" 31	794,279	2,480,101
Total	$7,041,874	$11,511,752

WITHDRAWN FROM WAREHOUSE.

	1864.	1865.
Aug. 3	$835,940	$734,579
" 10	411,291	527,275
" 17	473,108	633,864
" 24	439,515	555.436
" 31	514,091	536,418
Total	$2,673,945	$2,989,072

ENTERED FOR WAREHOUSING.

	1864.	1865.
Aug. 3	$1,846,824	$365,152
" 10	1,178,073	561,507
" 17	419,919	374,256
" 24	466,080	296,285
" 31	672,080	353,310
Total	$4,582,926	$1,950,460

	1864.	1865.
Total entered for consumption	$7,041,874	$11,511,572
Add withdrawn from warehouse	2,673,945	2,987,072
Total thrown on the market	$9,715,819	$14,498,644
Total entered for warehousing	$4,582,926	$1,950,460
Add entered for consumption	7,041,874	11,511,572
Total entered at the port	$11,624,800	$13,462,032

COMMERCE OF NEW YORK FOR SEVEN MONTHS.—We take from the *Journal of Commerce* its summary of the trade of this port the past seven months. The imports for July show an increase upon any former month of this year, but are not equal to the total for the corresponding month of last year. Owing to the falling off in the market price of gold and the demand for merchandise, a much larger portion of the goods have been entered directly for consumption, and the stock in bond has been diminished. The following is a comparative summary:

FOREIGN IMPORTS AT NEW YORK FOR THE MONTH OF JULY.

	1863.	1864.	1865.
Entered for consumption	$9,080,210	$6,882,928	$10.176,820
do warehousing	6,057,342	14,954,635	7,845,947
Free goods	685,880	917,684	886,431
Specie and bullion	182,245	128,052	253,640
Total entered at port	$16,003,677	$22,883,299	$19,161,838
Withdrawn from warehouse	4,227,265	3,386,573	8,612,411

The total landed in July, 1862, was $20,353,202, so that the July importation this year cannot be called an extravagant business. The imports of this port since Jan. 1st are nearly 60,000,000 below the corresponding total for last year, a decrease which may well attract attention. We annex a comparative summary, which includes the business of seven months in each of the years named:

FOREIGN IMPORTS AT NEW YORK FOR THE SEVEN MONTHS FROM JAN. 1.

	1863.	1864.	1865.
Entered for consumption.....	$60,458,240	$82,417,617	$48,301,218
do warehousing.....	37,486,309	69,699,057	45,657,066
Free goods.....	8,029,186	7,070,098	5,910,143
Specie and bullion	1,036,013	1,555,066	1,305,463
Total entered at port.....	$107,009,748	$160,741,838	$101,173,890
Withdrawn from warehouse.....	24 822,196	86,226,610	50,259 232

It will interest many of our readers to analyze the imports for seven months, and for this purpose we have separated dry goods from the general merchandise and specie, and brought forward the comparative totals for the same period of each year since 1850.

RELATIVE IMPORTS OF DRY GOODS, SPECIE, AND GENERAL MERCHANDISE AT NEW YORK FOR THE FIRST SEVEN MONTHS OF THE LAST FIFTEEN YEARS.

Seven Months.	Imports of			Total Imports.
	Dry Goods.	Gen'l Mdse.	Specie.	
1851.....	$42,240,217	$43,174,714	$1,480,476	$86,895,407
1852.....	34,994,294	37,215,842	2,028,248	74,238,384
1853.....	57,421,619	59,393,895	1,099,516	117,915,030
1854.....	55,808,993	58,126,842	1,606,090	115 041,725
1855.....	34,724,393	49,008.832	523,151	84,256,376
1856.....	60,296,946	72,757,795	963,500	134,018,241
1857	66,716,293	84,156,080	5 857,310	156,729 683
1858.....	30,169,358	48,805 765	1,815,258	80 290,381
1859.....	71,782,984	83 866,928	1,901,082	156,459,994
1860.....	63,362,687	78,485,850	751,188	142,599,725
1861.....	81,515,606	54,378,955	32,906,166	118,797,727
1862.....	30,183,764	74,488,315	731,556	105,403,635
1863.....	35,112,935	70,860,800	1,036,013	107,009,748
1864.....	53,122,729	106,064,043	1,555,066	160,741,838
1865.....	31,850,399	68,018,028	1,305,463	101,173,890

From the above it will be seen that the imports of general merchandise for the first seven months of 1864 were 5,000,000 greater than the total imports of every description for the seven months just ended. The figures given above represent the foreign gold values, and do not include freight, duty, or other charges.

The revenue from customs in July shows a very great increase, and this has misled many persons in regard to the total imports. Seeing the large sums received daily at the Custom House, and comparing them with the very moderate receipts in July of last year, the inference was natural that the goods were arriving much more rapidly than they did in July, 1864. It will be found upon examination that the total imports, as we have shown, are less, and the difference in the receipts for customs is accounted for by the different disposition made of the goods. In July of last year over 22,000,000 were landed here, of which only 10 000,000 were thrown on the market. Last month less than 19,000 000 were landed, and over 19,000,000 were marketed, the remainder being taken out of bond. Of course the duties are collected on the dutiable goods marketed, or

which enter into consumption. A few goods remain in bond after the duties are paid, but the amount is so trifling that they need not enter into the calculation. This great falling off in the imports this year must be attributed to our peculiar tax system, which discourages importation and encourages domestic manufactures.

The statistics of specie movements for the city of New York are as follows:

SPECIE RECEIPTS, SHIPMENTS, &c.

	1864.		1865.		
	Received.	Exported.	Received	Exported.	Gold in Bank.
July 1,.....	.....	560,677	.....	156,578	15,854,990
" 8,.....	301,207	486,339	793,175	15,408	19,100,544
" 15,.....	.....	801,244	.....	261,846	20,500,441
" 22,.....	249,095	556,464	299,629	132,115	22,332 908
" 29,.....	.....	.....	.....	180,715	20,778.155
Aug. 5,.....	.. ..	90,111	.....	21,108	19,400,340
" 12,.....	.....	341,883	... ..	324,018	20,163,292
" 19,.....	571,281	48,009	.....	245,865	19,604 636
" 26,.....	.....	206,398	.....	143,164	16,028,615

The rates of exchange have ruled as follows:

RATES OF EXCHANGE IN GOLD.

	London, 60 days.	Paris, 60 days.	Amsterdam.	Frankfort.	Hamburg.	Berlin.
July 7	108 a 108⅛	5.22½ a 5.16¼	40¼ a 41	40¼ a 40⅞	35⅝ a 36⅛	71 a 71½
" 14	109 a 109½	5.16¼ a	40¼ a 40⅜	40¼ a 40⅜	35½ a 36	71 a 71½
" 21	108⅝ a 109	5.18¾ a	40¼ a 40⅜	40¼ a 40⅜	35⅝ a 35⅞	70⅝ a 71½
" 28	108⅜ a 109	5 18¾ a 5 17½	40¼ a 40⅜	40¼ a 40⅜	35⅝ a 37	70⅝ a 71⅜
Aug. 5	108¼ a 108½	5.22½ a 5.21¼	40 a 40⅜	40 a 40⅜	35¼ a 35⅝	70½ a 71
" 12	108⅞ a 109½	5.17½ a 5.16¼	40¼ a 40½	40¼ a 40½	35½ a 35⅞	70½ a 71
" 19	109⅝ a 109⅞	5.15 a 5.13¾	40⅜ a 40⅞	40¼ a 40⅝	35⅝ a 36¼	71 a 71⅜
" 26	109½ a 109⅝	5.16¼ a 5.15	40½ a 41	40½ a 40⅞	35⅝ a 36¼	71 a 71⅜

Government bonds and gold have ruled as follows:

PRICES OF UNITED STATES PAPER AND GOLD.

	6's, 1881.		5-20's.				
	Reg.	Coup.	Reg.	Coup.	10-40's.	1 year certif.	Gold price.
July 5,....	110¼	110¼	104	105	97⅝	99⅞	139⅝ a 140⅜
" 12,....	107¼	107⅜	105	105⅛	97⅝	99⅞	140⅜ a 142
" 19,....	107¼	107⅜	104⅝	105	97	99⅞	142¼ a 143⅝
" 26,....	107	107⅛	105	105¼	97	98	143¼ a 143⅝
Aug. 5,....	107	107⅛	104⅞	105⅛	97¼	97⅝	143⅜ a 143⅞
" 12,....	106¼	106⅜	104⅛	104⅜	97⅛	97⅜	141⅝ a 142
" 19,....	106¼	106¼	101⅜	104⅞	97⅞	98⅛	143¼ a 144⅛
" 26,....	106⅝	106⅞	104⅜	104⅞	98⅛	98¼	144 a 144⅜

The following table shows the fluctuations of gold during the month of August, 1865:

DATE	Open'ng	Highest	Lowest	Closing	DATE	Open'ng	Highest	Lowest	Closing
Aug. 1.....	144¼	145¼	143⅞	145⅛	Aug. 18.....	142¼	143¾	142¾	143¼
" 2.....	144⅞	145¾	144⅞	145	" 19.....	143¾	144¼	143⅝	143⅞
" 3.....	144¼	144⅝	141⅜	143¼	" 21.....	144¼	144⅝	141⅜	143¼
" 4.....	144¼	144¼	143⅜	143⅜	" 22.....	144	144	143¼	143⅜
" 5.....	143¼	143¾	143¼	143⅝	" 23.....	143⅝	143¾	143¼	143¾
" 7.....	144	144	143¼	144	" 24.....	143¾	143⅞	143⅝	143¾
" 8	144¼	144¼	144¼	144¼	" 25.....	143⅝	144	143⅝	143⅞
" 9.....	144⅜	144⅜	143⅝	143⅞	" 26.....	144	144¼	144	144¼
" 10.....	143⅝	143⅝	142¾	142⅝	" 28.....	147⅞	144¼	143⅞	143⅞
" 11.....	141¾	141⅞	140¾	141⅜	" 29.....	144¼	144¾	144⅛	144¾
" 12.....	141¾	142	140⅞	142	" 30.....	144⅜	144⅞	144	144⅜
" 14.....	142¼	142⅞	142¾	142¾	" 31.....	144¾	145	144⅜	144⅜
" 15	141¾	141¾	140¼	141¼					
" 16.....	142	142¼	141¾	142¼	Month.....	144¼	145½	140¼	144
" 17.....	141¾	142¾	141¾	142¾					

The monthly fluctuations since the commencement of the year has been as follows:

January	226	234⅜	197¼	204⅜	June	137⅜	147⅝	135⅝ 141⅛
February	202⅜	216¾	196¾	202	July	141	146⅝	135½ 144
March	200⅜	201	148⅛	157⅛	August	144⅛	145½	140⅝ 14
April	151	154⅛	143⅛	146⅜				
May	145¼	145¼	128⅛	137⅛	Eight months	226	234⅜	135⅛ 14

The following table exhibits the price of railway shares:

PRICES OF RAILWAY SHARES.

	April 27.	May 29.	June 29.	July 31.	Aug. 28.
New York Central	103	89	93½	95½	9[illegible]
Hudson River	115½	97	108	...	10[illegible]
Erie	85½	72⅝	77	95	8[illegible]
Reading	110⅝	91⅝	95½	106	10[illegible]
Mich. So. and N. I.	74	58	60½	66⅝	64
Illinois Central	117½	117	128	...	122
Cleveland and Pittsburg	83½	61	67½	71	7[illegible]
Chicago and N. W.	34	21⅝	25	27½	7[illegible]
Chicago and R. I.	105	93½	98½	108½	10[illegible]
Fort Wayne	103	92⅝	96	96½	96½

From the above table it will be observed that prices have undergone no change whatever, except in Erie, beyond the slight daily fluctuations caused by the usual push and pull of an unspeculative market. The marked change in Erie simply indicates that the brokers have no orders, that being the stock on whose mutations they see-saw themselves in leisure times.

On the whole, the month has been quiet and uneventful; prices have undergone but little change, and the former disturbing causes of military occurrences, new tax laws, etc., having ceased to galvanize the market in the old way, everything is gradually equalizing itself to an average, and will probably continue to do so until Congress meets again and stirs up the commercial pot once more.

JOURNAL OF BANKING, CURRENCY, AND FINANCE.

Statement of the Public Debt—Tax on Brokers' Sales—The Evening Exchange—The Revenue Commission—Losses of Banks by the late Forgeries—Money Market—Loan Assurance—Returns of New York City Banks—Weekly Averages—Philadelphia City Banks—Banks of Ohio—National Banks—New York State Banks—Business of Assistant Treasury at New York—Business of Assay Office—Bank of England Returns—Bank of France, etc., etc.

THE Secretary of the Treasury has issued a statement of the public debt, dated 31st August, which differs but little from the preceeding one, dated 31st July. The following table furnishes the particulars:

Debt bearing interest in coin	$1,108,310,191
Interest	64,500,590
Debt bearing interest in lawful money	1,274,478,105
Interest	73,[illegible]31,047
Debt on which interest has ceased	1,[illegible]3,050
Debt bearing no interest	373,398,256
Total debt	$2,757,689,571
Total interest	138,031,820
Legal tender notes in circulation,—one and two year five per cent notes	33,954,330

United States notes, old issue	402.968
United States notes, new issue	432,757,601
Compound interest notes, act of March 3, 1863	15,000,000
Compound interest notes, act of June 0,3 1864	202.024,160
Total	$684,138,959

The exhibit is of an exceedingly gratifying character, and ought to prove strongly assuring of the Government credit. The following are the totals of debt for August 31st, and July 31st:

	August 31.	July 31.
Debt bearing interest in coin	$1,108.310,191	$1,108,662,641
Debt bearing interest in lawful money	1,274,478,103	1,289,156,545
Debt on which interest has ceased	1.503,020	1,527,120
Debt bearinng no interest	373,398,256	357,906,968
Total	$2,757,689,571	$2,757,253,275
Increase		$436,296

Thus, it appears that within the month of August, the debt has increased only $436,296

Taking however, the amount of debt outstanding at each period, without deducting the amounts in the Treasury, we find a material decrease in the actual outstanding obligations, thus:

Outstanding obligations July 31	$2,873,982,907
Outstanding obligations Aug. 31	2,845,907,625
Decrease	$28,075,282

This reduction has been effected mainly by the following changes:

DECREASE.		
Six per cent temporary loan	$2,469453	
Certificates of Indebtedness	21,61[illegible],000	
One and two year 6 per cent notes	6,000,000	
Unpaid requisitions	13,625,000	
		$44,707,453
INCREASE.		
Five per cent temporary loan	$11,530.130	
Three year compound interest notes	4,962,690	
Fractional currency	594,700	
		17,027,520
		$27,679,933

This satisfactory exhibit is chiefly owing to the large amount held in the Treasury at the opening of the month, and in a partial degree to the liberal receipts of internal revenue. The unusually large balance of $81,401,774 in the hands of the Secretary on the 31st July, has enabled him to meet the maturing obligation to a large extent in cash, and to issue a less amount of Certificates of Indebtedness, than he retired. The liberal balance of $42,782,283 of currency now in the Treasury, will afford like advantages in the management of affairs during September, and gives reason for anticipating a favorable exhibit at the the close of the month. The best feature of the Treasury management during August, is the reduction of the temporary loans at 6 per cent, and the increase at 5 per cent; that is good, practical financiering.

The Secretary enters upon September with $45,435,771 in coin, and $42,782,-

283 in currency, making a total amount in Treasury of $88,218,055. The only interest payable during the month is $4.319,252 upon Ten forties, which became due on the 1st inst. With internal revenue receipts of say $25,000,000, and $10.000,000 from customs, it would appear that the month's liabilities will be amply provided for.

The following are the principal changes in the items of the statement of the public debt, dated August 31, as compared with the statement of July 31;

Five per cent temporary loan	inc.	$11,530,180
Six per cent temporary loan	dec.	3,469,453
One year Certificates of Indebtedness	dec.	21,613,000
One and twe year five per cent notes	dec.	6,000,000
Three years compound interest notes	inc.	4,902,690
Fractional currency	inc.	594,710
Suspended requisitions	dec.	13,625,000
Coin in Treasury	inc.	10,097,914
Currency in Treasury	dec.	38,619,491
Legal tender circulation	dec.	1,097,310

A recent decision of the Courts in relation to the tax on sales of bonds, has placed the government in rather an undignified attitude. The government claimed that the tax was due under the internal revenue act, and the bankers disputed the claim. Thereupon the government brought suits in the United States Circuit Court in this district against some of the bankers, to test the point and recover the amount of the tax. Judge NELSON, before whom it was heard decided against the government, holding that bankers are not liable to pay a tax on sales of bonds, made not as brokers for others, but on their own account. The government was not satisfied with the decision, and made an appeal to have the question determined by the Supreme Court at Washington, to which there is no objection, of course.

But the Secretary has gone further, and ordered the assessors and collectors to proceed to collect the tax, just as if the decree of the Court had been in favor of the government, instead of against it, and the consequence is that a bill in equity has been filed by Messrs Fisk & Hatch, R. L. Cutting, Vermilye & Co., Henry Clews & Co., Clark, Dodge & Co., and H F. Morgan & Co., complaining that, notwithstanding the recent decision of Judge NELSON, the assessor and collector of their district insist upon their returning the amount of their sales of stock made for themselves, and threaten to enforce the collection of the tax thereon.

It remains to be seen which side will triumph; but in either case it is to be wished that the government had abided the issue, before ordering such summary proceedings.

Resolutions have been passed by the Regular and Open boards of stock brokers, and by the Gold Exchange, prohibiting their members, under pain of expulsion, from having any dealings, directly or indirectly, with the Evening Exchange. The following is the resolution passed by the Gold Exchange:

Resolved. That, whereas, on the 17th of February last, resolutions were passed by the New York Gold Exchange, recommending its members to abstain from attending at the Evening Exchange, which has since received the concurrence of the Regular and Open board of stock brokers, it is now resolved that any member of the New York Gold Exchange who shall be present, directly or indirectly, at the Evening Exchange, shall cease to be a member of this board.

Mr. Gallagher, in deference to the views expressed by the majority of brokers, has decided to close the Evening Exchange. This does away with a crying source of evil. To attend the session of this board the brokers were compelled to literally work both night and day, and many of them broke down under the burden. In addition to this it encouraged a propensity for gambling.

The commission appointed by the Secretary of the Treasury, in obedience to act of Congress, which is now in session at the Custom House, in this city, to consider defects in the present tax system, have not yet concluded their labors, nor is it expected that they will do so this winter. Nevertheless they will report to Congress at the opening of the session, detailing all that they have already done, and proposing to go on and finish up their really arduous and extensive work during the winter months. So far, they have not reached any very definite conclusions. They are still engaged in hearing the evidence, which all goes to show that our present system of taxing an infinitude of articles, not only increases the cost of collection without any corresponding advantage, but renders the system so complex as to make it difficult to be managed at all. This being the case, we have reason to believe that they will favor a change of tactics, and recommend such amendments to the law as will throw the whole brunt of taxation on a few leading articles of consumption or use—as for instance real estate. This will soon diffuse itself and become equalized, and as much taxes will be raised by this means as by spreading the burden over a bewildering number of articles—and at less expense. If they effect no more good than this, the labors of these gentlemen will deserve the warmest thanks of the country.

Of the banking institutions which lost money through the gold certificates forged by EDWARD KETCHUM, we may mention the Fourth National, which held $255,000 of them, the Importers and Traders, which held $355,000, and the City Bank, amount unknown. Several private banking houses and some of the Connecticut banks, as well as some in other States, also lost heavily, but the particulars have not transpired.

The rates for call loans during the month have been as follows: First week 6 to 7 per cent; second week 7 per cent; third week 7 per cent for very choice names, with 10 to 20 per-cent margin on collaterals. For other names no loans were possible. Fourth week 4 to 5 per cent; fifth week 3½ to 5 per cent.

The first week commenced with a reduction of over eight millions in the bank deposits, which caused a slight stringency of money. There was no reason to believe that the Treasury balance on 1st August of eighty odd millions had been reduced; and besides this great amount locked up, considerable sums were being sent to the West and South to move the grain and cotton crops. These causes and considerations left the market rather poorly supplied with funds, and the rate advanced during the following week to seven per cent sharp. In the third week the failure of a broker named MUMFORD to a large amount, and under rather equivocal circumstances, the discovery of the defalcation of JENKINS, and to crown all, the forgeries and robbery of young KETCHUM, amounting in the aggregate to four or five millions of dollars, threw the whole market into a panic. The extreme rates allowed by law were charged to the very best applicants for loans, and all others were peremptorily refused, the law not permitting a higher rate of interest to be taken. This beautiful result of the usury law compelled nine brokers

out of ten to sell out their customers' stocks without warning, and enabled those parties who usually engineer these money panics when a favorable chance occurs, and who can borrow money of the banks at seven per cent under any circumstances, to jump in and buy up the stocks, and so to earn two or three per cent in as many days; for after the lapse of that time the stringency is over, and prices go up again. The whole transaction amounts in fact to a shave upon all parties who hold stocks on margins, and who have not the confidence of banking boards of directors; and the only way which, under our present laws, it can be put a stop to, is through the system of loan assurance suggested in the CHRONICLE of August 12, 1865. This is, in short, an insurance company formed to *assure the absolute security* of loans of every nature, so that with the assurance of this company upon both, a bank will as soon loan its funds upon the note of an entire stranger as upon that of one of its own directors. The question of risk is entirely set at rest by the indorsement, so to call it, of this company; and under such an arrangement a broker or a merchant of limited means need never be obliged to go to the wall, as he has now to do, in times of panic; for after having paid to have his loans assured, (the premium for which varies of course with the risk he represents,) he will stand as high as anybody, and can borrow money as easily.

The following are the returns of the New York City Banks:

NEW YORK CITY BANKS.

(*Capital, Jan.*, 1864, $69,494,577; *Jan.*, 1865, $69,658,787; *April*, $76,658,787.)

Date.	Loans.	Specie.	Legal tender.	Circulation.	Net Deposits.	Clearings.
July 1,	216,585,421	15,854,990	60,904,454	5,818,445	191,656,773	473,720,318
" 8,	218,541,975	19,100,590	62,519,708	9,001,774	198,199,005	875,504,141
" 15,	221,285,052	20,400,441	60,054,646	6,250,945	200,420,283	550,959,312
" 22,	222,960,205	22,332,903	62,756,229	6,589,766	198,790,096	517,174,950
" 29,	222,341,766	20,773,115	46,956,782	7,085,454	186,766,671	494,854,139
Aug. 5,	219,102,793	19,400,380	43,561,973	7,656,870	178,247,674	576,961,325
" 12,	215,409,342	20,163,292	43,006,428	8,050,361	175,788,185	468,483,275
" 19,	210,827,581	19,604,636	45,583,980	7,639,575	174,593,016	492,697,782
" 26,	209,423,805	16,023,615	54,249,806	7,932,414	179,083,676	372,124,309

The changes during the month are therefore a falling off in deposits of four millions, and their recovery to their former figure, a falling off of ten millions in loans, a falling off in specie of four millions, a heaping up of eleven millions in legal tender, and a decrease of two hundred millions per month in balances—all indications of lessened business and an absence of speculative transactions in the general markets.

The following statement shows the operations of the Bank clearing House for the weeks corresponding with those for which the above bank averages are given;

Weeks ending.	CLEARINGS. Total of week.	CLEARINGS. Daily averages.	BALANCES. Total of week.	BALANCES. Daily averages.
July 1,.....	$473,720,318	$78,953,386	$17,883,010	$2,980,501
" 8,.....	875,504,141	62,584,023	18,234,545	3,039,091
" 15,.....	550,959,312	91,826,552	20,150,787	3,358,464
" 22,.....	517,174,956	86,195,826	22,396,080	3,732,680
" 29,.....	494,854,139	82,475,690	18,577,262	3,096,210
Aug. 5,.....	576,961,325	96,161,221	21,707,926	3,617,987
" 12,.....	468,483,276	77,247,212	19,374,247	3,229,041
" 19,.....	492,697,783	82,116,297	19,132,977	3,188,829
" 26,.....	372,124,310	62,020,728	19,726,131	3,287,688
Sept. 2, ...	395,963,697	65,993,946	18,944,140	3,157,356

The daily average clearings for the corresponding weeks of the year 1865-60 were as follows:

	1865.	1864.	1863.	1862.	1861.	1860.
July 1.	$78,953,386	$73,806,727	$53,552,155	$29,949,785	$17,664,446	$26,542,928
" 8..	62,534,023	56,086,914	53,324,275	27,964,954	14,398,848	23,456,448
" 15..	91,826,552	77,687,568	41,861,462	27,964,934	14,397,981	22,918,795
" 22..	86,195,826	67,190,691	47,447,403	27,108,468	14,327,511	21,289,451
" 29..	82,475,690	66,573,288	48,701,970	24,861,271	13,569,254	23,417,789
Aug 5..	96,161,221	78,431,149	49,897,334	23,321,046	13,402,889	22,626,029
" 12..	77,247,212	65,768,278	49,822,693	23,290,485	13,862,112	22,934,355
" 19..	82,116,297	62,338,464	62,292,630	24,609,848	13,824,338	22,433,949
" 26..	62,020,728	67,716,745	65,400,780	25,145,861	13,434,385	22,561,086
Sept 2.	65,993,676	72,780,320	65,802,885	25,679,147	14,843,149	24,072,405

The following is the statement of the weekly averages of the New York city banks for the weeks ending on the dates named:

Weeks ending	Aug. 26, '65.	Aug. 19, '65.	Differences.
Loans	$209,263,722	$211,000,352	Dec $1,736,630
Specie	16,023,688	19,620,802	Dec 3,507,114
Legal tenders	54,240,255	45,517,032	Inc. 8,723,223
Circulation	7,931,229	7,640,838	Inc. 290,391
Net deposits	179,084,004	174,480,870	Inc. 4,603,634
Av. ex	62,020,718	82,116,297	Dec. 20,085,589
Ratio of coin to liabilities	8.57 p. c.	10.76 p. c.	Dec. 2.19 p. c.
Inc. loans	21 banks.	21 banks.	
Inc. specie	23 banks.	34 banks.	

COMPARISONS FOR SIX YEARS.

Weeks ending	Aug. 26, '65.	Aug. 27, '64.	Aug. 29, '63.
Loans	$209,263,722	$188,502,729	$176,748,615
Specie.	16,023,688	19,902,949	32,030,055
Circulation	7,931,229	4,256,847	5,475,964
Net deposits	179,084,004	156,086,807	156,761,695
Av. ex	62,020,718	67,716,745	65,400,780
Ratio of coin to liabilities	8.57 p. c.	12.44 p. c.	19,74 p.c.

Weeks ending	Aug. 30, '62.	Aug. 31, '61.	Sept. 1, '60.
Loans	$158,278,552	$141,081,474	$129,543,928
Specie.	35,640,984	45,098,113	19,033,130
Circulation	9,545,806	8,446,155	9,264,016
Net deposits	141,971,741	120,436,010	79,473,817
Av. expenditure	25,145,861	134,343,805	22,531,086
Ratio of coin to liabilities	23 54 p. c.	34.99 p. c.	21.41 p. c.

The following are the returns of the Philadelphia Banks;

PHILADELPHIA BANKS.

(*Capital, Jan.*, 1863, $11,740,080; 1865, $13,315,720; *Feb.*, 1865, $14,485,450.)

Date. 1856.	Loans.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Legal tenders.
July 3,...	$50,449,649	$1,216,243	$6,888,488	$39,127,801	.....
" 10,...	50,188,778	1,187,700	6,758,585	41,344,056	....
" 17,...	50,221,528	1,152,911	6,821,938	43,966,927	....
" 24,...	52,454,760	1,154,537	6,886,449	46,166,928	$19,413,864
" 31,...	53,877,799	1,158,070	6,941,625	49,121,554	21,328,422
Aug. 7,...	54,357,695	1,154,005	6,986,662	47,762,160	21,219,466
" 14,...	54,529,718	1,153,931	6,989,217	44,561,749	20,845,048
" 22, ..	51,920,580	1,160,222	7,076,537	41,348,178	20,561,963
" 29,...	50,577,243	1,155,197	6,983,523	38,864,910	19,640,768

These returns exhibits, in their small way, the same state of affairs as exist in New York. Nevertheless, in both cities the local trade never was better. The bank tables only indicate that it is not done on credit.

The following is the quarterly statement of the banks of Ohio, showing the condition of the several incorporated banking institutions of that State on the first Monday of August, 1865, as shown by their returns, made under oath to the Auditor of State:

RESOURCES.

	Independent Banks.	Free Banks.	Branches State Bank of Ohio.	Total of all Banks.
Specie	$22,500	$258,867	$43,730	$325,097
Eastern Deposits	497	446,782	78,342	525,622
Notes of other banks and U. S. notes	16,697	1,528,239	191,501	1,731,438
Due from other banks and bankers	.....	108,411	297,279	405,690
Notes and bills discounted	14,677	1,752,171	1,510,465	3,277,313
Bonds of Ohio, other States and U. S.	93,926	736,971	.....	.....
Safety Fund and Bond and Mortgages	.....	.....	531,714	1,362,611
Real estate and personal property	.....	115,665	92,925	208,590
Checks and other Cash Items	6,869	76,563	2,948	86,381
Other resources	1,947	23,540	1,019,961	1,055,448
Total resources	$156,615	$5,052,212	$3,768,867	$8,977,696

LIABILITIES.

Capital Stock	$50,000	$965,000	$1,144,000	$2,159,000
Safety Fund Stock	.....	25,000	....	.....
Permanent Reserved Fund	.....	.....	210,250	235,250
Circulation	58,047	66,095	1,176,168	1,300,310
Due to banks and bankers	43,891	485,336	170,115	699,343
Due to individual depositors	916	3,244,599	662,731	3,908,247
Dividends unpaid	.....	400	16,013	16,413
Contingent Fund and undivided profits	.....	167,528	152,253	319,781
Discount, interest, &c	3,760	98,254	140,884	242,899
Government tax	.....	.....	1,780	1,780
Other liabilities	.....	.....	94,669	94,669
Total liabilities	$156,615	$5,052,212	$3,768,867	$8,977,669

The statement of the previous quarter was published in our June number. A comparison of the two exhibits a decrease of capital stock of $500,000, a falling off of circulation of $1,393,000, a falling off of deposits of $3,400,000, and an increase of bank investments in the east of $1,000,000.

The following table exhibits the aggregate National Bank circulation:

NATIONAL BANKS.

Number, capital, and circulation quarterly to the end of 1864, and periodically to date in 1865.

Date.	Banks.	Capital.	Circulation
July 1,	$1,378	$340,938,000	$146,927,975
" 8,	1,410	356,230,986	149,093,605
" 15,	1,447	364,020,756	154,120,015
" 22,	1,481	372,636,756	157,907,665
Aug. 5,	1,504	377,574,281	165,794,440
" 12,	1,523	379,731,701	169,598,960
" 19,	1,530	390,000,000	172,664,460
" 26,	1,534	392,614,333	175,265,690

The following figures show the resources and liabilities of the banks of the State of New York, as exhibited by their reports to the Superintendent of the Bank Department, on the 24th of June, 1865, compared with the two last quarterly returns:

RESOURCES.

	Dec. 31, '64.	March 25, '65.		June 24, '65.
Loans and discounts	$196,649,246	$159,665,827	.....	$87,866,594
Overdrafts	866.154	709,265	.....	384,859
Due from banks	22,916 081	18,628,244	.....	7,742,394
Due from directors	2,226,712	8,182,724	3,995,569	.....
Due from brokers	11,049.883	6,897,650	4,005,573	.....
Real estate	8,142.807	7.070,085	8,200 and	4,211.944
Specie	20,239,286	19,490,230	.....	13,536.769
Cash items	92,514,882	89,862,155	.....	34,646,090
Stock, promissory and U S. 7 3-10 notes and ind. certificates	120,459,776	92,068.059	7 3-10 notes 73,400, and	65,189,006
Bonds and mortgages	4,073,797	3,710,775	.....	2,073,451
Bills of solvent banks and U. S. demand notes	20,261.810	27,957.014	dem. notes.	22,735.687
Bills of suspended banks	2.643	2.718	.....	2,749
Loss and expense account	2,260,786	1,208,900	.....	999,087
Add for cents	877	827	.....	508
Total	$493,888,125	$420,344,099		$239,388,758

LIABILITIES.

Capital	$106,690.761	$90,492,828	$52,974,695
Circulation	31,180,546	27,550,208	14,521.287
Profits	28,345.847	22,085.269	14.382.857
Due banks	45,205,662	36,211,772	20,791,929
Due individuals and corporations other than banks and depositors	2,107,764	1,141,628	1.501.849
Due Treasurer State of New York	3.144,210	3,547,917	2.039,614
Due depositors on demand	269,042,097	289.961,586	181,850,371
Due others not included in above heads	2,671,197	2,282,763	1,406,754
Add for cents	521	445	291
Total	$488,388,125	$420,274,411	$289,369,197

The difference in the above totals for June 24, 1865, is occasioned by two banks having failed to make balances; both are closing. Of the 309 banks reported for 25th June, 1864, one (incorporated) has surrendered its charter by legislative authority, one (association) has discontinued banking business, and 183 have been converted into national banks. The present report, for June 24, contains statements from 184 banks, a considerable number of which have since perfected their papers and become national institutions, and a small number have given notice of finally closing their banking business.

CUSTOM HOUSE AND SUB-TREASURY

Summary of the statements of transactions at the Custom House and Sub-Treasury for the weeks ending as specified:

Weeks Ending.	Custom House.	Sub-Treasury Payments.	Sub-Treasury Receipts.	Sub-Treasury Balances.	Movement in balances.
July 1...	$1,648,507	$32,420,347	$27,420,613	$42,822,099—dec.	$4,999,734
" 8...	1,943,592	26,804,905	23,403,204	39,420,398—dec.	3,501,701
" 15...	2,884,349	24,213,367	33,213,240	48,420,270—inc.	8,999 872
" 22...	2,378,663	22,965,427	27,620,621	53,075,464—inc.	4 695,194
" 29...	2,516 631	23,598,588	31,012,926	60,489,802—inc.	7,414,338
Aug. 5...	2,948,682	33,224,646	33,675,533	60,940,689—dec.	450,887
" 12...	2,790,322	26,305,162	23,991,766	58,627,293—dec.	2,313,396
" 19...	2,072,490	26,097,010	20,866,095	53,396,378—dec.	5,230,915
" 26...	3,251,659	24,819,346	20,954,029	56,522,061—inc.	5,125,683
Sept. 2...	3,236,726	14,930,586	17,107,882	61,699,357—inc.	2,177,296

The following table shows the receipts and disbursements at the office of the Assistant Treasurer of the United States, at New York, for the month of August:

Balance, August 1, 1865		$42,840,020
Receipts during the month:		
Customs	$13,190,600	
Loans	9,937,893	
Internal Revenue	647,984	
Post-office Department	153,402	
Transfers	11,135,995	
Patent Fees	3,098	
Miscellaneous	27,555,408	
		62,624,180
Total		$105,464,201
Payments:		
Treasury drafts	$64,329,197	
Post-office drafts	47,906—	64,375,103
Debit balance August 1, 1865		$41,089,897
Balance, Cr., disbursing accounts	$17,745,239	
Receipts during the month	53,663,442—	71,408,681
Payments		53,218,459
Balance		$18,190,222
Balance, Cr., interest accounts	$2,710,310	
Appropriations	2,232,699—	4,943,010
Payments in gold	454,575	
Payments in notes	854,683—	2,309,258
Balance		$2,633,751
By receipts for customs in August, 1864		$6,272,002
By receipts for customs in August, 1865		13,190,400
Increase in August, 1865		$6,918,397
By balance Cr., Bullion and Expense Account for Assay Office		665,348
By coin received during month	$404,792	
By fine bars received during month	429,081—	833,073
Balance		$1,419,222
By funds in hand, in Assistant Treasurer's Office	$61,913,071	
By funds in Assay Office	353,911—	62,266,982
By fine bars at Assay Office	123,072	
By unparted bullion at Assay Office	813,481—	936,553
Total		$62,203,556
Less Temporary Loan, to be reimbursed	$1,612,847	
Due depositors	734,040—	2,346,589
Balance		$60,856,648

Statement of business at the United States Assay Office, at New York, for the month ending August 31:

Deposits of gold—	
Foreign coins	$10,000 00
do bullion	60,000 00
United States bullion	684,000 00
Total	$754,000 00
Deposits of silver, including purchases—	
Foreign coins	43,000 00
do bullion	9,000 00
United States bullion (contained in gold)	8,000 00
do do (old coins)	5,000 00
Total	$65,000 00

Total deposits, payable in bars	205,000 00
Total deposits, payable in coins	614,000 00
Total	$819,000 00
Gold bags stamped	930,142 00
Transmitted to United States Mint, Philadelphia, for coinage	588,850 00

The following are the returns of the Bank of England:

THE BANK OF ENGLAND RETURNS (IN POUNDS STERLING).

Date. 1865.	Circulation.	Public Deposits.	Private Deposits.	Securities.	Coin and Bullion.	Rate of Discount
July 5,...	42,717,616	9,348,667	14,443,335	33,629,456	15,099,943	3 "
" 12,...	22,943,563	4,590,233	16,229,345	31,559,914	14,561,150	3 "
" 19,...	22,789,406	4,932,103	14,894,217	30,992,455	15,083,867	3 "
" 26,...	22,590,254	4,770,902	15,939,813	32,181,100	13,603,050	3½ "
Aug. 2,...	23,203,757	5,214,377	14,681,727	31,054,027	13,603,815	3½ "
" 9,...	23,881,857	5,264,739	14,688,181	31,726,066	13,345,060	4 "
" 16,...	23,887,419	5,826,453	14,962,787	32,071,253	13,242,850	4 "

The London *Economist*, of the 19th, says:

"The demand for discount has been moderate throughout the week; but, owing to the unsettled state of the weather and consequent fears for the harvest, a general feeling of caution has been shown. Hence, although an abundant supply of capital exists, the usual rate has been maintained as high as the bank minimum of four per cent, and in only exceptional cases business has been done at a fraction less. To-day there has been a rather better demand, partly from the ordinary increase of applications on a Friday, and partly from the maturing of some rather large amounts of Indian and Australian paper."

Subjoined are the current terms for bills of various dates:

30 to 60 days	4 per cent.
3 months	4 do
4 months	4½ do
6 months—bank bills	4½ do
6 months—trade bills	5½ do

On the Stock Exchange there has been an abundant supply of money, and the rate for short loans has receded to 1 1-2 and 2 per cent.

The following are the returns of the Bank of France:

BANK OF FRANCE.

		Loans.	Cash and Bullion.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Interest.
July	6	591,852,987	521,352,745	859,170,675	221,419,987	3½
"	13	594,467,935	498,683,812	884,890,025	188,481,698	3½
"	20	601,711,488	493,997,271	899,347,175	179,473,477	3½
"	27	610,976,748	494,212,341	898,722,075	199,182,020	3½
August	3	629,135,610	493,250,442	898,333,075	219,233,186	3½
"	10	619,750,845	486,867,696	897,359,923	200,211,070	3½

Without any material change in the circulation or decrease of cash and bullion, the returns during the month exhibit a moderate increase of deposits and loans, until the 3d of August, when both these lines fell off, and showed a decrease of some ten million francs by the following week.

THE UNITED STATES DEBT.

We give below the statement of the Public Debt, prepared from the reports of the Secretary of the Treasury, for May, July, and August, 1865.

DEBT BEARING INTEREST IN COIN.

Denominations.	May 31	July 31	August 31.
6 per cent, due December 31, 1867	$9,415,250	$9,415,250	$9,415,250
6 do July 1, 1868	8,908,349	8,908,349	8,908,349
5 do January 1, 1874	20,000,000	20,000,000	20,000,000
5 do January 1, 1871	7,022,000	7,022,000	7,022,000
6 do December 31, 1880	18,415,000	18,415,000	18,415,000
6 do June 30, 1881	50,000,000	50,000,000	50,000,000
6 do June 30, 1861, exch'd for 7.30s	39,155,650	139,546,450	139,194,050
6 do May 1, 1867–83 (5.20 years)	114,780,500	514,780,500	514,869,500
6 do November 1, 1869–84 (5.20 years)	590,789,000	91,789,000	91,789,000
5 do March 1, 1874–1904 (10.40s)	172,770,100	172,770,100	172,770,100
5 do January 1, 1865, (Texas Indem.)	842,000	.....	.....
6 do July 1, '81 (Oregon war)	1,016,000	1,016,000	1,016,000
6 do June 30, 1881	65,000,000	75,000,000	75,000,000
Aggregate of debt bearing coin interest	$1,108,113,842	$1,108,662,142	$1,108,336,192

DEBT BEARING INTEREST IN LAWFUL MONEY.

4 per cent	Temporary Loan { 10 days' notice.	.....	$650,477	$646,936
6 do	do do	.....	11,365,920	22,899,260
5 do	do do	.....	59,412,425	74,570,641
6 do	Certificates (one year)	.....	126,586,000	105,705,000
5 do	One and two-years' notes	.....	50,856,380	39,954,220
6 do	Three years' comp. interest notes	.....	175,143,690	212,121,470
6 do	Thirty-year bonds, (Union Pacific R.)	.....	.....	1,258,000
7.30 do	Three years' treasury notes, 1st series	.....	300,000,000	300,000,000
7.30 do	do do 2d series	.....	300,000,000	300,000,000
7.30 do	do do 3d series	.....	99,511,650	220,000,000
Aggregate of debt bearing lawful money int.			$1,053,476,371	$1,289,156,545

DEBT ON WHICH INTEREST HAS CEASED.

7.30 per cent Three years' notes	$456,150	$358,500	$284,450
do Texas indemnity bonds	.....	839,000	839,000
Other bonds and notes	330,120	329,570	329,570
Aggregate of debt on which int. has ceased	$786,270	$1,527,120	$1,453,020

DEBT BEARING NO INTEREST.

United States Notes	$400,000,000	$400,000,000	$400,000,000
do do (in redemp. of the temp loan)	33,160,569	33,160,569	33,160,569
Fractional currency	24,667,404	25,750,032	26,344,742
Currency	$457,827,973	$458,910,601	$459,505,311
Uncalled for pay requisitions	40,150,000	15,736,000	2,111,000
Aggregate of debt bearing no interest	$497,977,973	$474,646,601	$461,646,602
Amount in Treasury—			
Coin	$35,148,702	$35,337,757	$45,435,771
Currency		81,401,774	43,782,284
Total in Treasury	$35,148,708	$116,739,632	$89,218,055

RECAPITULATION.

Debt bearing interest in coin	$1,108,113,842	$1,108,662,142	$1,108,336,192
Debt bearing interest in lawful money	1,053,476,371	1,289,156,545	1,274,493,193
Debt on which interest has ceased	786,270	1,527,120	1,453,020
Debt bearing no interest (currency)	557,827,973	458,910,601	459,505,311
Uncalled for requisitions	40,150,000	15,736,000	2,111,000
Aggregate debts of all kinds	$2,660,354,456	$2,874,092,908	$2,845,907,638
Cash in treasury	35,148,702	116,739,632	89,218,055

ANNUAL INTEREST PAYABLE ON DEBT.

Payable in gold	$64,480,489	$64,521,877	$64,560,589
Payable in lawful money	60,158,385	73,740,631	73,531,036
Aggregate amount of int. payable annually—not including int. on the 3 years' comp. int. notes, which is payable only at maturity.	$124,638,874	$139,262,508	$138,091,625

LEGAL TENDER NOTES IN CIRCULATION.

One and two years' 5 per cent notes	$50,856,380	$39,955,220	$39,954,220
United States notes (currency)	433,160,569	433,160,569	433,160,569
Three years' 6 per cent compound int. notes	175,143,690	212,121,470	217,094,160
Aggregate legal tender notes in circulation	$659,160,569	$685,236,259	$690,128,950

THE DETROIT CONVENTION AGAIN.

following letter from an old contributor, criticis-
mber on "the Detroit Convention." A few

rchants' Magazine:

The Detroit Convention," are apparently
take a liberty with a friend's letter,
intelligent Engineer, well known
guage of a Boston correspondent,
ide-spread reputation."
e 13th inst., on a tour to the West, having
e Niagara Canal resolution had a very cordial
of the Convention at Detroit."
ly informed, they were only opposed by one selfish
ions were answered on the spot.
correct your statement that "a resolution was adopted, to
inois Canal to ship capacity, and another made in favor of con-
, a Ship Canal, from Lake Champlain to the Hudson." No such reso-
n was introduced or voted on.

It is true as you state "that 400 of our leading citizens"—and they were intelligent merchants from all parts of the country—"got together in Detroit in familiar converse, to discuss matters vital to the best interests of 25,000.000 of men." It is also true, that the West, as well as the East, did in plain language—as they have a deep interest in a Northern Pacific Railroad, and the Niagara Ship Canal, say they would not be trifled with, and introduced the resolution you quote. They had, however, in familiar converse, reference to the Illinois and the Lake Champlain Canals and the Mississippi treaty, to court their influence. They stated truly, "That the State of New York was geographically located on the highway of Commerce, between the great chain of lakes, and the seaboard, having within her borders the Metropolis of the nation, she is bound by every consideration of interest and true policy, and the courtesy she owes her sister states to improve and enlarge the the *shortest* water communication between the Lake and tide waters, failing to do so," these 400 leading merchants moved not as a threat, "failing to do so, New York must not complain if a portion of her great inland commerce shall be directed through other and *cheaper* channels of commerce."

This language is only following the key note that was struck by the Board of Trade of Troy, in the resolution they passed the 24th June, 1864—a year ago—having under consideration the construction of a "railroad from Troy to the Niagara River" when they "*Resolved* that this Board notices with approval and satisfaction, a movement coming from Western men, for greater facilities between the Lake and the Sea Board by a new independent and competing link, through this State, already demanded, and with reference to the future, is indispensable." *Resolved*, that in the judgement of the Board, the best route

for a railroad from Lake Ontario eastward, through this state, as yet unoccupied" (this will apply to the Niaraga Ship Canal, the best and *shortest* water route) "and that partly the Hoosac Tunnel completed, an east and west line can be formed, which will rule the rates and command the traffic between the great West, and the eastern markets." This is as true as gospel, as I stand ready, if desired, to prove to you, by levels taken over the line of the level Bridge road from Niagara to Rome,* and then by the vallies of the Mohawk, the Hudson valley and tide water at New York.

On the 14th June, 1864, a prominent and intelligent citizen of Boston wrote me: "Boston requires a better connection with the Lakes and the West, and will not rest satisfied until the consummation of her wishes. While passing over the tunnel of the Hoosac Mountain," (I hear, from realiable authority, that they are now working 16 feet per diem, on the east, and working with compressed air after the Italian method at Mount Cenis) "Boston looks with deep interest to the most level lines, which are eventually to connect her by the most direct route with the flourishing cities of Oswego, Rochester and Lewiston"—on the Niagara river.

"It must not be forgotten," he adds, that the Erie Canal and the Central Railroad, with these branches have been built to reach New York, and that the most direct route to Liverpool, to the great seats of Eastern Manufactures, to the lumber ports of Maine and New Brunswick and Fisheries of Massachesetts and Nova Scotia is through the Hoosac Tunnel, the Deerfield Valley and Boston.

"Our State has assumed the Hoosac Tunnel as a state enterprize, working at four faces in an easy and self-sustaining talcou slate. They are sinking a large central shaft, and building a dam across the Deerfield River, to drive the work with machinery, moved by compressed air." I learn, as you may, "that Massachusetts is working 16 feet per diem, and has sunk a shaft 104 feet in the center. By these quotations you will perceive, that there is no fatal assumption by these intelligent merchants at Detroit."

They know, now that there is peace, that in two to three days—with steaming from New Orleans—will take a steamer beyond and to the north of the heated Gulf Stream, to cool waters. This was the former objection to this route, in its heating grain and souring flour, by my own experience; while, on the north, in Canada, it is found that the risk to enter the St. Lawrence, from fogs, is in a great manner done away with, by the use of steam to make courses that could not be made by sails.

The capitalists of Great Britain and Canada, since the repeal of the corn laws, and in a measure without reference to dividends, and since the evidences we have given, to raise wheat and corn on our rich western prairies, and also to place it, with our internal improvements, in the regulating market of the world—St. Mark's Lane, London—Great Britain feels independent, as she is, of the continent of Europe, and particularly of Russia, for supplies of food. To be independent and on the failure of her crops she has expended near $500,000,000 on the St. Lawrence Valley route, by the construction of the Tubular Bridge, the

---

*This part of the route from Oswego to Rome, 60 miles, will be finished in 2 months, the iron having arrived, and is now laying for which it has been delayed.

Grand Trunk and Great Western railways, leading to Detroit and our prairies, and by this route the sea-board, independent of New York.

There is no wonder then that Mr. Aspinwall, the President of the Board of Trade of Detroit, should ask New York "to improve and enlarge the shortest *water* connection with the lakes and tide waters," meaning, undoubtedly, State constructing, or aiding the United States Government to construct the Niagara Ship Canal.

Reliable reports from several competent civil engineers, have demonstrated this to be the "shortest" and best link from Lake Erie to Lake Ontario and to New York.

They prefer the use of natural waters for 150 miles via Oswego, untolled, often asked to be tolled by Buffalo, unless the city of New York think, with her, it better to use more expensive *artificial* waters in some places in sight of and parallel to Lake Ontario, even if they had to pump up water, on some of the levels, to supply the Erie canal, as was proposed to the canal Board by a leading merchant and forwarder of Buffalo, whose name is at your service, if desired, and who took a prominent part in the Detroit convention, against the Niagara Ship Canal.

On this principle of *artificial* waters, as by the Erie canal, with the present admitted difficulty of a supply of water from the heavens, to be caught in reservoirs, or pumped up on the several levels, to supply the canal and to keep the canal in repair, with repeated interruptions, by breaks, is better than *natural*, deep waters, by Lake Ontario, from Niagara river, and without tolls, is the better plan, Buffalo and our State engineers made a great mistake that they did not advocate the making of a canal alongside of and parallel to Lake Erie, and then by Cleveland, Toledo, etc., to the West.

The time was when Mr. F. Hunt, the former editor and proprietor of your valuable commercial magazine, published twelve and a half pages in your May number, 1845, Vol. 12, page 432, of a very able and plausible article, for the more speedy "enlargement of the Erie canal," written by Mr. J. Bloomfield Jervis, then State Engineer. I took leave to reply to it, in three and a half pages, August number, page 181—a little ahead of time—and said, among other arguments, "A canal around the Niagara Falls, and by Oswego to the Hudson, constructed for the special benefit of the growing West, and for the city of New York, could sustain, and it would be proper to charge discriminating tolls, and still be a cheaper route than the enlarged canal." . . . . . "The canal around the Falls of Niagara should be a *national* work, and such was the opinion, at the time, of General Jackson, to the writer, then President." I then added, "If it should be declined by the general government, let the Empire State construct and control the pass." . . . .

The article closed as follows, and to which I refer:

"I find, however, in my zeal for well constructed and located railways, to compete with canals, I have been lead from the subject, I wished to present to your readers, viz:

1st. That the Erie canal is not now used up to half its capacity. It can, by further improvements, be trebled.

2d. That the decrease of the forest will make room for more valuable tonnage, the produce of agriculture and manufactures.

3d. That a railway, such as the Penn. and Reading; or such a one as may be located and constructed from Lake Erie to the Hudson, is destined to relieve the Erie canal of much of its business.

Further, no enlargement of the Erie and Schuylkill canals, will permit these works to enter into successful competition, in carrying coal, lumber, provisions, or any bulky article, with a railway. The canal loses more than one year in three, and, in my view, this is about the ratio of comparative value and advantage to the public."

That railways do, and can transport as cheap, if not cheaper, in some situations, than canals, cannot be disputed. This will be found true in an examination of the actual cost of transportation on the Philadelphia and Reading railroad of Penn., compared with the Schuylkill Canal by its side. The Western railroad of Massachussetts, even with its heavy and long line of grades of 83 feet to the mile, is now carrying (1845) all classes of produce on better terms (1 6-100 cents per ton, per mile.) than the average charge made by our forwarders on the Erie canal, for the last five years. I had almost said for the average tolls on merchandize and provisions. exacted by the State of New York. . . .

"The late railroad charters granted in England are accepted with avidity, and are above par, parallel to canals and the coast, limiting the charge for freight at ¾ of a penny—equal to 1½ cents—per ton, per mile. These are strong facts in favor of railways.

"That a line of railway from Lake Erie can be located on a level or descending grade from Buffalo to the Hudson, there can be no doubt. Also, that when constructed with a double track and turn-outs, and with a heavy T or H rail of 70 pounds to the yard, it can transport more tonnage than can be carried by the Erie canal, even when enlarged. I am aware that this will startle many, and be considered entirely heterodox. Time, however, will test its truth. It now has (1865)—see the opinion of Mr. J. B. Jervis.

"Let us clearly understand our position. We have arrived at a new epoch in the history of the world. A new element of civilization has been developed, as was the invention of letters, as was the printing press, so is the railway in the affairs of mankind. It is a revolution among nations. A moral revolution, affecting the diffusion of knowledge, the interchange of social relations, the perpetuation of peace, the extension of commerce, and *a revolution in all the relations of property*

We refer, by the latter observation, to the cheapness of all kinds of commodities, by the facilities of carriage and the *saving of time*, on the part of producers, afforded by railways, and especially to the influence of railways on the value of houses and lands, ... hence the demand for railways, to connect every town. This view, presented in 1845, has lost none of its force by subsequent experience. . . . .

I take some pride, I will allow, in referring you to this article of 1845, as Mr. Hunt introduced it with the complimentary remark, and is my excuse for asking you to publish this in your next number:

"*Railroads and Canals Compared.*—We cheerfully give place to the follow-

ing article from an intelligent correspondent, a gentleman who has spent much time in investigating every subject connected with internal improvements. It will be seen that he advances views at variance with those contained in an article in the May number, Vol. 12, 'on the enlargement of the Erie canal' from the pen of J. B. Jervis, Esq. Our magazine is open, as we have repeatedly stated, to the free and *fair* discussion of every subject falling within its scope."

My essay of three and a half pages was not replied to.

It gives me pleasure to see that since he built the Hudson River Railroad and is now President of the Chicago, Fort Wayne, and P. Railroad, and that, as an old friend and relative, although we differed in views twenty years ago, he has sent me his valuable work—"A Treatize on Railways and their Management." This makes me the more anxious to claim of you the insertion of the enclosed article in your September number, or its return.

In October or November, the parties who intend to take steps to carry out the Troy and Boston views, as expressed by their Boards of trade, propose to move to get the most level railroad, aided by British capitalists, between the Hudson and Niagara rivers, on which, if you desire, I will keep you posted.

J. E. B.

REPLY.—Our correspondent has not justly apprehended the tenor of our remarks in relation to the proceedings of the late Commercial Convention at Detroit. It was the purpose to regard them in a light as favorable as possible. This may be perceived from the following sentences at the close of the article:

"The Detroit convention is now a story of the past. It has rendered an important service to the country. Four hundred of our leading citizens have come together in familiar converse, to discuss matters vital to the best interests of twenty-five millions of men, Regarding commerce, very properly, as of the last importance, their errors lay in that direction. If they could have added somewhat of statesmanship to their discussions, there would have been more prospect of practical results; whereas, now, they have been, to a great extent, beating the air. They only considered the European trade; forgetting that the South is to be opened for a commerce more stable and lucrative than the marts of Europe. The neglecting of the question of finance was unfortunate, tending, as it does, to impair confidence, in the wisdom and ability of the men controlling the proceedings.

"But the impetus given to the subject of reciprocal trade will compensate for all these short comings. It was a step taken in the right direction; and, if followed up, will aid in the adoption and perpetuating of a liberal commercial policy. This is most required at the present time to enable this country to recover from the depression created by the Great Rebellion, and place us again in the front rank of commercial nations."

This is not the language of prejudice or unkindness. As to the statements in regard to a resolution for the enlargement of the Illinois Canal, it was obtained from one of the reports of proceedings published at the time, we think, in a Cincinnati paper. There was, as our correspondent ought to know, a report made by S. Dewitt Bloodgood, in favor of a ship canal from Lake Champlain to the Hudson; and a printed copy of it is before us. So much for the issue, an unimportant one it seems to us, on the matters of fact.

The demand is made by the leading men at the Detroit Convention, if we understand our correspondent rightly, that New York shall impose a direct tax upon the inhabitants of the State for the purpose of construct-

ing a ship canal around Niagara Falls, so that western forwarders can send grain and flour east, without paying toll on the canals of New York. "Failing to do this," says their resolution, "she must not complain if a portion of her great inland commerce shall be diverted through other and cheaper channels of commerce." Anticipating that New York will not need this menace, the Convention wants the General Government to undertake the work.

We are aware that there has been, for many years, a rivalry between the merchants of Buffalo and those of Oswego—a rivalry which "crops out" whenever their representatives happen to be brought together, whether in a convention, or a legislative body. In this controversy we have no part. Our purpose is to comprehend the subject of commerce as a whole, paying little regard to local rivalship. We consider Buffalo and Oswego pretty much alike, both equally selfish and equally public-spirited; and we trust that each will receive due favor in our columns, and at the hands of the State Legislature and Federal Congress.

But the construction of internal improvements is not properly a part of the functions of government. Presidents Madison and Monroe took this view, and would give no sanction to the project of constructing a national canal through the State of New York. General Jackson vetoed the Maysville Road bill, on the same ground. Many of our States, however, acted on a different principle, and plunged into a vortex of indebtedness from which they have not yet succeeded in extricating themselves. Several of them sold their public works, and several have repudiated the debts for their construction.

Neither is this a time to demand of the United States, or of any State government to enter upon works of this character. A national debt of three thousand millions of dollars has been incurred to meet the expenditures of civil war; and till an equitable system of revenue shall be devised, and a financial policy adopted to make the debt manageable, no one should ask or expect Congress to add to the public burden for the sake of internal improvements. A further increase of indebtedness, every statesman knows, will take so much from the value of Federal securities.

Besides, the State of New York has done her whole duty in the matter. She constructed her canals when the Great West was but Indian hunting-grounds, and she has since expended for their enlargement, millions upon millions, which will never be returned to her treasury. The civil war has doubled her indebtedness, beside the immense sums borrowed by the towns and counties.

It is easy to see that while such immense indebtedness, with Sisyphean weight, bears down our population, no public man, except a reckless politician, would venture to sustain such a project. A people taxed to the limits of endurance, and perhaps beyond them, will not be likely to tolerate an addition to the load.

Besides, it is not necessary for the states or Federal government to engage in the work. Whatever may be the store of product in the West awaiting shipment, the present avenues of commerce, the railways and canals, are far from being crowded with transportation. The Erie canal, with one-seventh larger capacity than last year, or ever before, lies comparatively idle. Under these circumstances, with present facilities apparently

more than ample, it cannot be asked with propriety that they shall be increased.

When our correspondent attempts to show that immense quantities of flour, wheat, and corn in the West are awaiting transportation, he seems to forget that there is still another requisite of even greater impotance than railway or canal. Without a demand somewhere, their supplies are of little value.

It is not the legitimate function of Government to regulate commerce, either by discriminating burdens, or fixing or constructing its avenues. There is ample private capital for investment in routes of transit. The capitalists of Boston are hard at work with their Hoosac Tunnel, and they have built railways from that city to Lake Ontario. The New York Centrat Railroad Company is engaged in perfecting communications, so that trains of cars can be run continuously between New York and Cincinnati, also between New York and St. Louis.

In due time other enterprises will be commenced for the same purpose. It does appear to us that there are avenues of trade sufficient for the present exigency. But if our capitalists think differently, there will not be any considerable obstacle to the building of a ship canal around Niagara Falls. But there is no propriety, we insist, in seeking to throw this burden on Government. The time is probably not distant when it will be demanded that the State of New York shall abandon her canal policy outright, and following the example of other States, sell her public works. They are ceasing to be sources of revenue, and it is not consistent with principles of sound financial economy to keep property that is unremunerative. Especially is this true in the case of a government which should neither monopolise a department of industry, or maintain competition with private individuals.

We do not take issue with the Detroit Convention in regard to its purpose of securing facilities for commerce. Our only question is as to the means of accomplishing the result. While opposed to making appeals to State or National Legislature, or to British authorities to engage upon extensive systems of internal improvement, as opposed to sound republican and financial principle, we are in favor of every undertaking which enterprizing citizens may initiate for the furtherance of commercial intercourse. In calling attention to this matter, we believe that that Convention has done much good. In an eclectic spirit we are disposed to take advantage of it, while we discard the residue.

SILKS TO BE MORE COSTLY.

The silk breeders of France, says the London Pall Mall *Gazette*, are in a position of the greatest distress. A strange disease, which has reappeared among the worms from time to time—notably in 1688 and 1710—has, since 1863, recommenced its ravages, till the price of seed has risen ten-fold, and the demand for mulberry leaves has so fallen off that the planters threaten to cut down the trees and use the lands for some more profitable cultivation. The disease shows itself, according to a petition analysed in the China *Telegraph*, just as the worm is about to begin the cocoon, so that the breeder has the trouble of rearing for nothing, and has to purchase seed, as it were, in the dark. Repeated experi-

ing a ship canal around Niagara Falls, so that weste[illegible] send grain and flour east, without paying toll on the [illegible] "Failing to do this," says their resolution, "she m[illegible] portion of her great inland commerce shall be dive[illegible] cheaper channels of commerce." Anticipating [illegible] need this menace, the Convention wants the G[illegible] dertake the work.

We are aware that there has been, for [illegible] the merchants of Buffalo and those of [illegible] out" whenever their representatives [illegible] whether in a convention, or a legisla[illegible] have no part. Our purpose is to co[illegible] a whole, paying little regard to loc[illegible] Oswego pretty much alike, both e[illegible] and we trust that each will rece[illegible] hands of the State Legislature.

But the construction of int[illegible] the functions of government [illegible] view, and would give no s[illegible] canal through the State [illegible] Maysville Road bill, on [illegible] acted on a different pr[illegible] from which they have [illegible] of them sold their p[illegible] their construction.

Neither is this [illegible] government to [illegible] three thousand [illegible] tures of civil v[illegible] and a financi[illegible] ask or expe[illegible] nal impro[illegible] knows, w[illegible]

Besid[illegible] She co[illegible] grou[illegible] mill[illegible] do[illegible] ar[illegible]

[illegible] to Pennsyl-

[illegible]

[illegible]SURY DEPARTMENT,
[illegible]TROLLER OF THE CURRENCY,
WASHINGTON, August 9, 1865.

[illegible]ne amendment to section 21 of the Cur-
[illegible] that $150,000,000 of the amount of circula-
[illegible]oe apportioned to the different States, according
[illegible]nd $150,000,000 according to the existing banking
[illegible]t the several States. The amount allotted to New York
[illegible]on was $18,538,500; to Pennsylvania, $13,882,500; Ohio,
[illegible]ng banking capital, resources, business, &c., to New York,
[illegible]nia, $12,645,000; Ohio, $6,450,000; giving an aggregate in-
[illegible]t to New York of $58,473,000; to Pennsylvania of $26,527,500,
[illegible]5,500.

[illegible]ay on which this amendment was passed, another amendment was
[illegible]g that State banks having a capital not less than $75,000 should have
conversion to the national system, over new organizations, until July 1,
[illegible]ordingly, State banks were allowed to accept the provisions of the National
[illegible]act up to that date. The result has been to give New York $75,073,462,
[illegible]rania $40,366,996, and Ohio $18,487,500, which is an ex-cess in New York of
[illegible],152, in Pennsylvania of $13,839,196, and in Ohio of $864,900. These figures
[illegible]made from our books as they stood on the 1st inst. You will observe that Penn-
[illegible]nia, having exceeded her apportionment by over thirtern millions, is not equitably
[illegible]led to any additional sum: and as the entire amount of national currency pro-
[illegible]ded for in the law will be absorbed by banks already organized, or which have re-
[illegible]ived authority to organize, it is now impossible to consider new applications.

B. R. HULBURD, Deputy Collector.

CONTENTS OF SEPTEMBER NUMBER.

ART.		PAGE
1.	Hon. Lucius Robinson	169
2.	New York Railroad Movement	170
3.	Trade and Commerce of Chicago	183
4.	Elementary Statistics of American States. No. 1. The State of Ohio	188
5.	Commercial Law.—No. 25. The Law of Shipping	210
6.	Commercial Chronicle and Review	224
7.	Journal of Banking, Currency, and Finance	230
8.	The Detroit Convention Again	241

THE

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE

AND

COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

OCTOBER, 1865.

ARIZONA—ITS RESOURCES AND PROSPECTS.

BY HON. R. C. M'CORMICK, SECRETARY OF THE TERRITORY.

To be rightly appreciated Arizona must be taken as a whole. Those who know it only as "the Gadsden purchase," those who have no knowledge of more than the Colorado River District, and those who are only familiar with the newly opened central and northern regions, are incompetant to furnish that complete view of the Territory which is necessary to a correct understanding of its varied and extensive resources, and to a proper estimate of its progress and prospects.

The general lines of the Territory are thus defined in the organic act, approved February 24, 1863:—"All that portion of the present Territory of New Mexico situate west of a line running due south from the point where the south west corner of the Territory of Colorado joins the northern boundary of the Territory of New Mexico." In other words, all of New Mexico, as formerly existing, between the 109° longitude and the California line, embracing 120,912 square miles, or 77,383,680 acres, a district three times as large as the State of New York.

The locality of this broad area pre-supposes great metalic wealth. The mountain ranges are the prolongation of those which, southward in Sonora, Chihuahua and Durango have yielded silver by millions for centuries past, and which, northward in Nevada, are now amazing the world by their massive returns of the precious ores. The general direction of the mountains and the veins are northwest and southeast, and there are numerous parallel ranges which form long valleys in the same direction. These, and the broad and level bottoms of the rivers, which may be easily and cheaply irrigated by acequias or artesian wells, under which treatment the soils return an immense yield, and, independent of the seasons, produce, so far as tested, every variety of grain, grass, vegetables, fruits and flowers. While it has some barren and desolate country, no mineral region belonging to the United States, not excepting California, has, in proportion to its extent, more arable, pastoral and timber lands. Those who have assert-

ed to the contrary have been superficial and limited in their observations, or wilfully inaccurate in their statements. In the language of a recent editorial in the *Arizona Miner:*

"For its extent, there is not a section in the United States which more abounds in glades and vales, and wide-spreading plains, suitable for cultivation, and only awaiting the hand of industry to blossom as the rose."

The climate, considered either in its relations to health and longevity, or to agricultural and mining labor, is unrivaled in the world. Disease is unknown, and the warmest suns of the Gila and Colorado River bottoms are less oppressive and enervating than those of the Middle States. The proportion of fine weather is greater than in any other part of the world I have visited or read of.

The valleys of the Gila and Santa Cruz, the San Pedro, and other streams, are large and equal in fertility to any agricultural district in the United States. The San Pedro Valley, over one hundred miles in length, is, perhaps, the best farming district south of the Gila River. The Sonoita Valley, which opens into the Santa Cruz near Calabazas, is some fifty miles long.

Prescott, the capital, is in the heart of a mining district, second, in my judgment, to none upon the Pacific coast. The surface ores of thirty mines of gold, silver, and copper which I had assayed in San Francisco, were pronounced equal to any surface ores ever tested by the metallurgists, who are among the most skillful and experienced in the city, and, so far as ore has been had from a depth, it fully sustains its reputation. The veins are large and boldly defined, and the ores are of varied classes, usually such as to be readily and inexpensively worked, while the facilities for working them are of a superior order. At the ledges is an abundant supply of wood and water; near at hand are grazing and farming lands, and roads may be opened in every direction without great cost. Some of the streams are dry at certain seasons, which fact renders placer mining an uncertain enterprise in this part as in other parts of the Territory; but for quartz mining there could not possibly be a more inviting locality. The altitude is so great that the temperature is never oppressively warm; and the nights, even in midsummer, are refreshingly cool and bracing. The ascent from the river by the roads from La Paz and Mojave is so easy that with the small amount of work already done upon the same, the heaviest machinery may be readily transported. The distance by either road is about one hundred and sixty miles, and the charge for freight from six to eight cents per pound. Contracts may now be made for the delivery of machinery at Prescott from San Francisco, via the Colorado, for ten cents per pound.

Prescott is built exclusively of wood, and inhabited almost entirely by Americans, mainly from California and Colorado. Picturesquely located in the pine clad mountains, it resembles a town in northern New England. The first house was erected in June 1863, and now the town has some hundreds of inhabitants, and the country for fifty miles about, including a dozen mining districts and farming valleys, is largely taken up by settlers. The valleys will, it is thought, produce good crops without irrigation, as the rains in this region are frequent and heavy.

Weaver and Wickenburg, upon the Hassayampa, the one fifty and the other seventy miles south of Prescott, and each about one hundred and

ten miles east of La Paz, upon the Colorado, are mining towns and center, of a considerable business. The former is at the foot of Antelope Hills upon the summit of which very rich placers were discovered early in 1863, the working of which paid largely for a year or more—and probably would at present with a proper arrangement for the elevation of water. Maricopa Wells and Pima villages in the Maricopa and Pima reservations upon the Gila, about one hundred and twenty-five miles southeast from Prescott, and some eighty miles northwest from Tucson, are places of Indian trade, and depots of grain and other supplies for the troops in the Territory. Eastward from Prescott, upon the Agua Frio, the Verde, the Salinas, and other streams, all the way to the New Mexican line, exploring parties have discovered evidences of great mineral wealth and excellent agricultural districts. Northward to the villages of the Moquis, and the San Juan River, the country is but little known, but believed to be prolific in the precious ores, and in timber.

Some of the most promising districts of the Territory have not yet been prospected at all, and others only in a most superficial manner. It is the opinion of many that the richest mines are yet unfound, and lie eastward from Tucson and Prescott; but if one in ten of those already known yields such a return, upon the introduction of proper machinery, as is promised by the indications and tests had to this time, Arizona will far excel all the other territories of the Union in its metallic revenue.

For a year after the organization of its government the Territory was without a mail or post-office. Now a weekly mail is established from Los Angeles and Prescott, and eastward to Santa Fe, *via* the 35th parallel, where it connects with that for the Missouri River. Other routes are proposed and will at once be authorized. A company is organized to furnish telegraphic communication between Los Angeles and Prescott, and it will doubtless be had at an early day, and so put the Territory in immediate communication both with the Pacific and Atlantic coast. Once built to Prescott, and the project is entirely feasible; the line could soon be extended eastward to Santa Fe and Denver.

Primarily a quartz mining country, the settler in Arizona must not expect the quick wealth often obtained from the placers. These, while numerous and rich, are not, as before stated, to be depended upon. To engage in quartz mining, on his own account, he will need some means. The introduction of machinery now going forward, both from the Atlantic and the Pacific, and the extensive development of the mines, will make a demand for labor at remunerative wages. There will also be an encouragement for the trades. Mechanics of all kinds will be needed. For farmers and herdsmen there is an immediate inducement. The expense of mining operations can in no way be so speedily reduced and the general prosperity of the Territory advanced, as by the extensive production of bread and meat. This is a first necessity, and may at once be made a source of profit to those who engage in it with willing and persevering hands.

In conclusion, I recommend Arizona to our discharged volunteers, and to all unemployed persons who seek a wholesome climate, and a new and broad field for energetic industry. To all who are ready to labor, and to wait even a little time for large success, it is full of promise. The day

cannot be distant when it will occupy a first rank among the wealthy and populous States. Its mountains and valleys teeming with cities and towns, musical with implements of mining and agriculture, its great rivers burdened with traffic, and its people thrifty and happy, the wonder will be it was ever neglected by the government, and by capitalists, as an insignificant and unpromising possession.

The white population of the territory is largely composed of industrious, intelligent, and enterprising persons. Many families have arrived since the organization of the government, and a large emigration from the Missouri, the Rio Grande, and the Pacific is expected within the present year.

The Territorial government is now fully organized in all its departments. Law and order everywhere prevail. The courts are in operation. Schools have been established in the leading settlements, and the printing press is doing its part to build up society and promote substantial prosperity. A code of laws unusually thorough and compiete was adopted by the Legislature. The chapter regulating the location, ownership, and development of mining lands, is pronounced the best ever devised upon the subject, and is urged for adoption in some of the older Territories. It is a guarantee to those who acquire mining interests that their rights will be carefully guarded, and it will be likely to save much of the annoying and expensive litigation hitherto common in mining countties.

The emigrant by land from the Missouri may with ordinary wagons and animals make the journey to Tucson or Prescott in 90 days, going via Santa Fe. Arrived in the Territory he may sell his wagons and animals for as much, if not more, than they cost him upon the Missouri. He will experience no danger from Indians on the route if with a party of a dozen or more determined men. The roads are good and fairly supplied with grass and water. That *via* the 35th parallel from Santa Fe on the Rio Grande, being by the pass of Zuni, one of the easiest in the Rocky Mountains; that *via* the 32nd parallel, from Mesilla on the Rio Grande, to Tucson, is also level and easy.

The emigrant going by water may now get passage to San Francisco at a low rate, and from there he may go by land or water to Los Angeles also at a roasonable cost. From the latter point the roads to the Colorado and to Central and Southern Arizona are good. Wagons and animals may be purchased on fair terms at Los Angeles. Those who wish to take goods, mining, or agricultural implements with them, can do so from the Missouri better, I think, at this time than from the Pacific, owing to the difference in the currency. All emigrants should start provided with a supply of provisions for one year, and with flannel rather than linen clothing, even for the warmest parts of the Territory.

COMMERCE OF NEW ORLEANS.

The Commercial year of New Orleans closed on the 31st August, and in accordance with custom the *Price Current* issued its annual statement, with comparisons with previous years.

We need hardly say that the late war has been sadly disastrous to the

interests of this port, the great deposit of the central valley of the Union. The extent of the injury to its trade is fully manifested in the figures which the statement presents, and to these only we shall appeal. We might indeed trace the course of events which have swayed the destinies of the city for the past four years, but these would only be repetitions of facts which are known to all readers. It has suffered alike in its domestic and foreign trade, and even yet, though the war has ceased, lacks every element which formerly distinguished it as the great outlet and inlet of the interior. Its trade during the war was chiefly affected by the blockade of the Mississippi during the existence of which the arrival of steamboats became a casualties, rather than usual occurrences. This may be seen in the following statement which gives the steamboat arrivals from the interior, for each month of the past five years.

	1860-61	1861-62	1862-63	1863-4	1864-65
September	204	96	22	83	100
October	248	121	29	112	109
November	3?7	162	72	121	115
December	321	220	77	140	101
January	414	246	87	98	94
February	476	201	49	168	96
March	392	175	71	130	103
April	352	117	69	133	98
May	160	30	26	119	89
June	106	40	33	101	121
July	82	36	31	108	225
August	69	52	89	101	230
Total	3171	1456	655	1414	1481

The fluctuations of the foreign trade as measured by the number of arrivals, canvass and steam, are exhibited in the following statement:

	1860-61	1861-62	1862-63	1863-64	1864-5
September	128	..	165	115	105
October	163	..	87	165	129
November	213	..	103	186	115
December	206	..	178	286	136
January	254	..	197	186	120
February	241	..	169	284	115
March	205	..	238	299	100
April	165	..	171	222	130
May	98	45	202	218	133
June	6	51	193	247	106
July	...	73	199	566	110
August	...	72	144	212	150
Total	1579	241	2045	2981	1449
Ships	657	36	118	105	42
Barges	259	69	281	243	148
Brigs	122	32	179	175	131
Schooners	289	57	1198	2071	915
Steamships	253	47	278	386	213

The following comparative table shows the principal receipts from the interior for six years:

Articles	1864-65	1863-64	1862-63	1861-62	1860-61	1859-60
Alcohol.....bbls	956	1,780	172	307	3,193	. ...
Apples....	35,902	39,693	30,081	24,127	74,276	68,516
Bacon, asst., casks, &c.....	13,582	14,930	12,423	4,073	38.188	45,015
Bacon, bbls & bxs.	4,942	4,432	1,858	681	6,344	5,987
Bacon Hams, hhds.	1,609	14 059	12 490	3,420	25,636	37,814
Bacon in bulk..lbs	....	13,361	....	784,399	.....	39,000
Bagging .....pcs	6,371	2,208	48	1,223	8.554	21.427
Bale rope....coils	17,676	14,495	3,139	2,455	49.083	125.429
Beans .....bbls	12,381	11,555	13,454	2,098	10,127	8,589
Butter.....kgs	21,880	30,983	26,173	5,036	22.447	38.345
Butter.....bbls	179	62	86	322	354	1,506
Bran.....sacks	113,814	44,093	33,943	65,746	230.916	274.277
Beef... bbls & tcs	26.541	53,082	41,355	13,622	23,389	44,984
Beef, dried....lbs	6,300	3,500	.....	.....	6,000	93.726
Cotton—						
La & Miss bales	241,085	124,182	18,815	34,594	1,324.849	1,588.947
Lake	4,333	1,001	1,950	....	3.511	3,431
N. Ala & Tenn.	.....	.....	.....	3,585	249,150	271,638
Arkansas.....	229	.....	.....	701	168.089	163,339
Montgomery ...	358	.....	.....	.....	11,551	28.473
Mobile	16,776	647	606	.....	48,270	34.179
Florida	6 0	.....	8	.....	13 279	16,335
Texas.....	7,604	5,214	690	.....	30,613	49,036
Corn in ears..bbls	4,170	40,686	19.698	22 216	122,644	36,092
Corn, shelled, sacks	553,273	410,138	165,220	315.652	3,383,911	1,722,059
Cotton seed.....	18,199	8,729	510	258,750	207,555	. ...
Cheese.....bxs	26,781	35,744	29,286	3.941	59,429	95,305
Candles	31,717	48.262	29,940	5,265	46,165	110,405
Coal, west'n..bbls	994,770	265,298	.....	.....	1,628,000	2,900.0 0
Dr'd Apples &c...	1,214	2,025	3,420	1,262	1,692	70 000
Flaxseed.....	425	55	20	16	459	1,121
Flour.....	790,824	399,897	264,601	281,645	1,009,201	974,340
Feathers.....bags	5	....	.....	51	373	936
Glassware ... bxs	2,851	612	42	383	22,148	68.879
Hemp .....bales	2,559	303	10	....	1,602	4,883
Hides.....	9,951	22,256	16,931	11,865	93,786	163,508
Hay.....bales	226,764	170,956	87,570	40,578	152,173	152.659
Iron, pig.... tons	.....	60	.....	59	215	643
Leather.. .bundls	3,575	3,358	2,356	10,340	9,768	6,115
Lard.. tcs & bbls	2,981	18.027	9,495	6,089	39,633	65.784
Lard.....kgs	7,303	9,655	12,032	4,290	61,287	90,699
Lime, west...bbls	14,029	14,641	15,540	27,612	40,272	33,143
Lead .....pigs	5	30	580	1,967	25,510	80 964
Lead, bar....kegs	.....	.....	25	36	1,298	1,658
Molasses.....bbls	18,725	143,460	202,616	401.404	313.260	313.840
Oats....bbls & sks	278,988	735,562	201,919	45.348	552,738	659.550
Onions.....bbls	17,552	13,322	11,623	2,419	26,857	26,401
Oil linseed.....	135	90	195	5	399	1,020
Oil, castor	95	86	422	50	389	571
Oil, lard.....	2,507	1,162	767	339	7,772	9,333
Pickles..kgs & bbls	3,468	2,178	2,714	121	151	333
Potatoes.... bbls	31,523	150,615	157,687	68,269	257,190	207,698
Pork....tcs & bbls	41,795	67 022	50,327	11,452	213,983	216.523
Pork.....bxs	.....	.....	200	51	.....	71
Pork..... hhds	.....	580	7	370	1.734	1,874
Pork in bulk...lbs	230,800	.....	.....	610,219	2,612.776	3,808,500
Porter & Ale. bbls	11,604	8,405	2,569	351	19,515	20 9.0
Packing yarn, reels	789	83	.....	10	731	3,748
Rice..... ..sacks	13,443	25,816	21,090	23,476	4,761	.....
Rosin.... ...bbls	1,648	90	223	277	74,588	.....

Articles	1864-65	1863-64	1862-63	1861-62	1860-61	1859-60
Skins, D-er. packs	117	69	.....	53	261	1,542
Sp'ts. Turp.. bbls	147	19	25	2,716	13,425	.....
Sugar.....hhds	9,345	75,153	85,531	225,856	174,687	195,185
Sugar.....bbls	2,045	8,238	8,499	7,907	5 976	4,898
Soap.....bxs	36,287	18,846	19,664	8,427	9,201	12,202
Shingles .....M	1,907	58	.....	1,475	5,207	7,000
Tallow.....bbls	332	57	.....	792	608	1,025
Tobacco, leaf. hhds	2,410	1,363	155	1,063	34,892	80,955
Tobacco, chew bxs	13,939	14,184	4,619	6,866	8,864	14,544
Tobacco ....bales	79	96	44	315	134	274
Twine... bundles	2,151	1,899	1,263	108	2,572	3,508
Wool ..... bgs	573	220	5	3,855	2,171	.....
Whiskey ....bbls	21,243	16,615	747	1,760	93,352	185 042
Wheat, bbls & sks	2,024	529	335	36,411	71,678	13,116

The value of the above articles of import was as follows:

Value for 1859-60	$185,211,254	Value for 1862-63.....	$29,766,454
" " 1860-61.....	155,863,564	" " 1863-64.....	79,238,985
" " 1861-62.....	51,510,990	" " 1864-65.. ...	111,013,293

Cotton, sugar, molasses and tobacco, the great staples of the port, demand a more detailed statement, and hence, regarding these, we have compiled full reports for ten years. They are as follows:

COTTON TRADE.

This article has always been the chief element in the commerce of New Orleans, which is the receiving point for all the up-river and Texas exports, with a point of those of the eastern gulf ports. The following table is constructed for the purpose of showing the relative importance of the several sources of supply:

TABLE SHOWING THE IMPORTS OF COTTON (BALES) INTO NEW ORLEANS FROM THE INTERIOR, YEARLY, FOR THE TEN YEARS ENDING AUGUST 31, 1865.

YEARS.	Louisiana and Mississippi.	Ponchartrain Lake.	N. Ala. and Tenn'see.	Arkansas.	Montgomery.	Port of Mobile.	Ports of Florida.	Ports of Texas
1855-56	1,170,693	4,652	379,434	102,154	37,031	36,542	5,186	23,601
1856-57.....	1,068,385	4.137	277,545	80,933	18,996	41,040	4,708	17,503
1857-58...	1,201,789	6,584	253,692	105,342	....	67,451	9, 60	29,596
1858-59....	1,231,942	5,072	317,456	104,804	13,540	59,703	6,634	35,097
1859-60..... ...	1,588,947	3,490	371,658	163,339	28,473	34,179	16,325	49,036
1860-61....	1,324,349	3,511	249,150	163,089	11,551	48,270	13,279	30,513
1861-62..... ...	34,594	....	3,585	700	....	....	....	....
1862-63....	18,815	1,950	....	....	....	606	8	690
1863-64..... ...	124,182	1,001	.. .	....	....	647	....	5,214
1864-65....	241,085	4,333	....	229	358	16,776	630	7,604
Total 10 years...	8,005,281	34,722	1,857,520	725,591	109,949	305,214	55,990	198,954

The following table shows the total crops, and the quantity and value of each, received at New Orleans for the same years:

YEARS.	Total Crop.	Receipts at New Orleans			New Crop	
		Bales.	Av. price.	Value.	First Receipt.	Received to Aug. 11
1855-56.....	3,527,845	1,759,293	$40 00	$70,371,720	July 15.	1,166
1856-57.....	2,939,519	1,573,247	57 00	86,255.079	Aug. 15.	33
1857-58	3,113,962	1,678,616	52 50	88,127,340	July 25.	4,834
1858-59.....	3,851,481	1,774,298	53 00	92,037,794	" 28.	9,698
1859-60.....	4,675,770	2.255.448	48 50	109,389,228	" 5.	36,670
1860-61.....	3,699,926	1,849,812	50 00	92,465,600	Aug. 11.	61
1861-62.....	.....	38,880	45 50	1.749,040	.. ...	....
1862-63.....	.....	22,078	231 32	5,107,082	Sept. 7.	....
1863-64.... ..	.....	131,044	356 20	46 677,872	Aug. 14.	12
1864-65.....	.....	271,015	270 54	73,326,398	" 11.	22
Total 10 years....		11,293,221	$58 93	$665,527,153	July 15.	52,496

The amount of cotton (bales) exported from New Orleans to foreign and domestic ports, in the same ten years, was as follows:

YEARS.	Great Britain.	French Empire.	North of Europe.	South of Europe, Mexico, &c.	Total to foreign ports.	Sent Coastwise.
1855-56.....	986,622	244,814	162,675	178,812	1,572,923	222,160
1856-57.....	749,485	258,163	156,450	129,619	1,293,717	123,204
1857-58.....	1,016,716	236,596	116,304	125,454	1,495,070	164,637
1858-59.....	954,696	256,447	182,475	146,963	1,580,581	196,590
1859-60.....	1,426,966	313,291	136,135	129,270	2,005,662	263,634
1860-61	1,159,348	388,925	122,042	113,358	1,783,673	132,179
1861-62.....	1,312	472	.....	21,571	23,355	4,223
1862-63.....	2,070	1,849	.....	372	4,291	19,459
1863-64.....	1,155	4,023	.....	307	5,485	122,645
1864-65.....	31,326	5,952	402	167	27,847	164,504
Total 10 years.	6,359,696	1,710,532	876,483	845,893	9,792,604	1,453,275

The distribution to the home ports, coastwise, has taken the following directions:

YEARS.	New York.	Boston.	Providence.	Philadelphia.	Baltimore.	Other ports.
1855-56	51,340	151,469	2,834	10,532	3,173	2,751
1856-57.... ...	50,653	153,133	4,090	13,979	1,255	94
1857-58.	34,076	125,679	2,238	1,974	670	....
1858-59....	5,856	25,464	157,117	5,582	1,129	1,442
1859-60....	62,936	131,648	5,717	5,257	1,247	1,829
1860-61....	29,539	94,307	4,897	855	100	2,481
1861-62....	4,116	109	....	98	....	....
1862-63....	17,859	1,418	40	142	....	....
1863-64....	109,149	12,793	....	703	....	....
1864-65.	144,190	15,993	2,735	1,355	...	231
Total 10 years..	509,714	712,013	179,668	40,477	7,574	8,829

The total imports and exports of stocks lying over Sept. 1, were as follows:

	Imports.	Exports.	Stocks.		Imports.	Exports.	Stocks
1855-56..	1,759,293	1,795 023	6,995	1860-61..	1,849,312	1,905,852	10,118
1856-57..	1,513,247	1,516,921	7,321	1861-62..	38,850	27,678	120
1857-58..	1,678,616	1,659,707	30,230	1862-63..	22,078	23,750	....
1858-59..	1,774,298	1,771,171	26,022	1863-64..	131,044	128,130	4,575
1859-60..	2,255,448	2,214,296	73,934	1864-65..	271,015	192,351	83,239

SUGAR TRADE.

Sugar, next to cotton, was the chief staple of New Orleans commerce. Before the war it was the chief product of the State of Louisiana. The crop of 1861 was nearly 460,000 hogsheads; in 1864 not one twentieth that amount was produced. The statistics of production for the last ten years are thus given by Champonier:

	Total crop. Hhds.	Total crop. Pounds.	Av. price. Per. hhds.	Total value.
1855.....	231,427	254,569,000	$70 00	$16,199,890
1856.....	73,936	81,373,000	110 00	8,137,360
1857.....	279,697	308,666,700	64 00	17,900,600
1858	362,296	414,796,000	69 00	24,998,424
1859.....	221,840	255,115,750	82 00	18,190,880
1860.....	228,753	262,065,000	63 25	14,468,627
1861.....	459,410	528,321,500	54 62	25,095,271
1862	87,231	95,954,100	88 84	7,749,602
1843.....	76,801	84,481,100	179 70	13,801,139
1844.....	9,800	10,780,000	203 50	1,994,300

For the last three years no estimate could be formed of the actual product, and only the receipts at New Orleans are given in the table.

The following shows the amounts recorded and exported at New Orleans for the same years:

	Received— Hhds.	Bbls.	Exported (hhds.)— Atl. ports.	Int'r ports.	First of New crop.
1855-56	155,319	8,526	39,183	131,427	Oct. 10.
1856-57	42,468	3,995	1,850	39,576	Nov. 3.
1857-58	202,783	6,020	73,885	153,012	Sept. 29.
1858-59	257,225	5,241	93,885	187,339	" 20.
1859-60	195,185	4,808	33,5 3	133,423	Oct. 8.
1860-61	174,637	5,976	32,323	127,590	Sept. 27.
1861-62	225,356	7,907	76,040	139,038	" 22.
1862-63	85,581	3,499	100,155	2,000	Oct. 31.
1863-64	75,173	3,238	39,898	21,773	" 16.
1864-65	9,345	2,045	882	7,934	Nov. 12.
Total 10 years	1,443,017	61,255	491,604	942,717	Sept. 20.

The following table shows the distribution of sugar to the several ports of consignment (up-river ports excepted) for five years:

	1860-61 hhds.	bbls.	1861-62 hhds.	bbls.	1862-63 hhds.	bbls.	1863-64 hhds.	bbls.	'64-65 hhds.	bbls.
N. York	21,426	607	66,993	4,471	81,645	8,087	34,185	1,278	831	10
Philadelphia	1,876	7	3,080	119	5,964	555	2,836	44	....	13
Charleston	2,491	2	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	..
Savannah	158	....	....	....	.	....	....	....	....	..
Providence	4	..	....	....	7	7	....	....	....	..
Boston	157	4	4,461	2	9,856	941	2,336	138	15	4
Baltimore	2,870	90	1,496	178	774	4	120	....	....	..
Norfolk, &c	2,966	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	..
Mobile	7,225	1,251	10,287	....	....	....	..	...	31	121
Florida	1,355	2,357	55	....	18	112	7	148	2	46
Other ports	1,631	405	....	3	2	313	....	393	3	23
Total	421,163	4,724	86,373	4,773	98,266	9,969	39,484	2,071	883	217

MOLASSES TRADE.

The exports of molasses (barrels) to the same ports and for the same years was as follows:

	1860-61.	1861-62.	1862-63.	1863-64.	1864-65.
New York	40,088	13,852	145,066	68,812	4,010
Philadelphia	4,281	1,169	18,427	8,340	540
Charleston	7,765	....	...	....	....
Savannah	328	....	....	....	....
Providence	5,628	....	393	17	....
Boston	10,744	1,422	22,120	6,735	529
Baltimore	5,752	609	986	85	....
Norfolk, &c	3,343	....	...	....	....
Mobile	30,726	62,149	....	...	136
Florida	7,963	175	4	28	46
Other ports	6,324	....	77	16	10
Total	122,912	78,876	187,143	83,533	5,272

The receipts of molasses at New Orleans for the last ten years has been as follows:

1855-56	bbls.	288,811	1860-61	bbls.	313,260
1856-57	"	84,169	1861-62	"	401,404
1857-58	"	339,343	1862-63	"	202,616
1858-59	"	353,715	1863-64	"	143,460
1859-60	"	313,840	1864-65	"	18,725
Total ten years					2,459,443

TOBACCO TRADE.

The principal sources of the tobacco trade at New Orleans are the States of Kentucky, Tennessee and Missouri, and in a less degree Ohio, Indiana and Illinois. The receipts of leaf tobacco in hogsheads and bales, and of chewing tobacco (boxes) for the last ten years have been as follows:

Years.	Hhds.	Boxes.	Bales.	Years.	Hhds.	Boxes.	Bales.
1855-56 ...	56,090	109	3,599	1860-61	34,892	134	8,864
1856 57	55,667	151	3,261	1861-62	1,063	315	6,366
1857-58	87,141	121	3,006	1862-63	155	44	4,619
1858-59	75,925	112	9,208	1863-64 ...	1,363	96	14,184
1859-60	80,955	274	14,544	1864-65	2,410	79	13,926
Total 10 years.....					395,051	1,435	81,590

The following shows the amount of leaf tobacco in hogsheads, exports to foreign ports and coastwise for the same years:

Years.	Great Britain.	French Empire.	N. of Europe.	S. of Europe, Mexico, &c.	Total to for'n ports.	Sent c'stwe.
1855-56.... ...	7,531	5,942	13,370	28,0.5	49,918	9,156
1856 57.....	11,446	1,288	15,150	13,665	41,549	8,632
1857-58.....	13,733	16,164	6,306	26,081	62,284	9,931
1858-59.... ...	20,144	9,376	23,599	19,910	73,529	6,445
1859-60.....	17,165	8,419	23,332	24,335	73,251	9,438
1860-61.....	7,464	4,544	6,577	18,915	37,500	2,306
1861-62.....	....	100	536	1,248	1,884	340
1862-63.	569	3,969	2,094	2,383	9,015	3 541
1863-64.....	....	7	123	3	1:3	664
1864-65.....	185	19	....	....	204	1,827
Total.....	78,237	50,328	91,087	129,615	349,267	52,080

The coastwise trade was distributed as follows:

Years	New York	Boston	Philadelphia	Baltim're	Other ports
1855 56	7,176	1,405	410	...	162
1856 57	6,945	1,416	843	66	32
1857-58	8,033	906	671	161	160
1858-59	4,601	944	426	180	294
1859-60	7,392	1,310	261	140	545
1860-61	1,969	213	93	...	26
1861-62	303	....	...	37	...
1862-63	3,155	226	43	117	...
1863-64	664	....	...	...	...
1864-65	....	1,585	...	...	42
Total ten years	39,528	8,038	2,752	701	1,061

The total imports and exports and stocks lying over September 1st yearly were as follows:

Years.	Imports.	Exports.	Stocks.	Years.	Imports.	Exports.	Stocks
1855-56.....	56,090	59,074	9,123	1860 61.....	34,892	39,806	13,121
1856-57.....	52,067	50,181	13,715	1861-62.....	1,063	2,924	12,711
1857 58.....	87,141	72,215	28,418	1862-63.....	155	12,556	311
1858-59.....	75,925	79,974	25,369	1863-64.....	1,363	797	594
1859-60.....	80,955	82,689	20,635	1864-65.....	2,410	1,831	873
Total in ten years.....					395,061	401,347	...,873

In a former part of this exhibit was given the arrivals from sea and river. The following table shows the departures in both directions for 1863–64 and 1864–65:

	1864-65.							1863-64.						
	Ships.	Barks.	Brigs.	Schs.	St. ships	Total.	St. boats	Ships.	Barks	Brigs.	Schrs.	St. ships	Total.	S. Boats.
September.	6	9	4	27	15	61	18	7	11	13	13	14	58	11
October ...	4	9	9	18	20	60	33	6	18	8	21	10	63	17
November..	4	7	5	10	16	42	26	4	7	10	19	18	58	46
December .	4	11	8	34	11	68	27	8	17	7	27	15	74	92
January....	.	3	11	33	8	55	18	8	27	14	18	15	82	82
February ..	2	8	12	35	5	62	26	17	26	18	38	16	115	25
March.....	3	8	7	26	7	51	28	10	33	20	60	17	140	14
April	2	13	10	30	11	66	36	13	28	25	47	19	132	20
May.....	2	19	14	34	12	71	29	11	23	14	42	14	104	18
June	4	11	8	58	18	24	44	6	10	15	43	14	88	18
July	4	5	12	72	34	127	65	9	10	6	32	11	68	14
August	5	11	7	48	34	105	58	6	13	3	29	11	61	24
Total....	40	114	107	415	186	862	408	105	228	153	339	174	1043	331

The exports for 1864–65 to ports of the gulf, continental ports, and coastwise, (not including cotton, sugar, and tobacco,) are shown in the following table:

Articles.	Gulf ports.	Continental ports.	Coastwise ports.	Total.
Apples .....bbls	735	....	70	805
Bagging .....pieces	519	130	2,982	3,631
Bale rope.....coils	391	....	7,132	7,523
Beans .....bbls	300	..	41	341
Brandy.....bbls	630	30	22	682
Butter .....kegs and firkins	425	....	135	560
Cotton seed..... sacks	....	....	7,347	7,347
Cheese .....boxes	824	....	38	862
Candles .....boxes	2,434	....	114	2,548
Coffee ..... bags	163	....	420	583
Claret ..... casks	751	....	142	893
Claret. ....boxes	6 005	160	398	6,563
Empty barrels.....	9,354	....	26,380	35,734
Empty casks	625	....	550	1,175
Gunny bags.....bales	....	....	283	283
Hides.....	....	2,332	91,668	94,000
Horns	....	....	44,477	44,477
Hay ....bales	916	....	1,361	2,277
Iron .....bars	86	....	2,136	2,222
Iron, old ..... tons	....	....	1,802	1,802
Lumber.....M feet	4,350	52	723	5,125
Nails..... .....kegs	130	....	46	176
Oats ....sacks	2,120	....	5,095	7,215
Onions .....bbls	623	....	69	692
Porter and ale.....bbls	842	....	88	930
Potatoes ..... bbls	7,517	...	921	8,438
Rosin..... bbls	....	....	674	724
Rags.....bales	....	....	3,182	3,182
Soap .....boxes	8,497	12	66	8,575
Spirits turpentine.....bbls	16	....	97	113
Spanish moss.....bales	135	287	2,488	2,850
Starch..... ...boxes	421	....	...	421
Shingles.....M	5,171	....	....	5,171
Salt .....sacks	41	....	9,205	9,246
Specie.....$	117,129	...	758,980	876,109
Tar.....bbls	78	....	1,410	1,488
Tallow ..... bbls	885	200	808	1,893
Vinegar.....bbls	130	....	....	130
Wool.....bags	....	....	535	535

MINNESOTA.—ITS RESOURCES AND PROGRESS.

(Continued from August number, p. 158.)

THE prevailing soil of Minnesota is a dark, calcareous, sandy loam, containing various intermixtures of clay. Chemical analysis of the soils of various districts have shown that they abound in all the mineral elements, in their various combinations, requisite for successful agriculture; and are rich in organic ingredients, the result of the decomposition of the vegetable growth of untold ages. The sand, of which silica is the base, constitutes a large part of this, as of all good soils; and by its capacity for retaining warmth, is of great advantage in a climate where the short season of vegetable growth requires the highest necessary heat. The earthly materials are finely pulverized, and the soil is everywhere light and mellow. With these general characteristics, the soils of Minnesota differ in fertility according to local situation or the character of the underlying formation from which their elements have been derived.

The limestone soil of the western slope of the Mississippi, watered by the Root, Minneiska, Zumbro, Cannon, and Vermillion rivers, also embracing the contiguous portion of the State on the eastern side of the Mississippi, occupying a width of from thirty to fifty miles, is described by OWEN as "usually of excellent quality, rich, as well in organic matter as in those mineral salts which give rapidity to the growth of plants, and that durability which enables it to attain a long succession of crops."

The agricultural district resting immediately on the drift stratum, covers an area of 38,000 square miles, and embraces all that portion of the Mississippi and Minnesota valleys not included in the preceding division. It embraces some of the richest agricultural sections of Minnesota.

Throughout the whole of this district, west of the Mississippi, a rich loam, from one to two feet in thickness, covers a various subsoil of clay, marl, or gravel, whilst in all the valley bottoms, a deep, rich alluvial soil prevails to the depth of from two to four feet, containing a large amount of organic matter. The Sauk, Crow and Blue Earth valleys, and the interior terraces of the Minnesota, and the region around Otter Tail Lake, are some of the sections of this district.

The soil of the Red River Valley is a black, argillaceous, alluvial mould, abounding in organic deposits of from two to four feet in depth, resting on a tenacious clay subsoil, and is of great fertility. The Minnesota portion of this valley contains about 17,000 square miles.

To these arable lands must be added the alluvial valleys of the great table-land, the wooded declivity of the northern shore of Lake Superior, and the fertile tracts of the pine district—making in Minnesota an aggregate of 65,000 square miles adapted to profitable agriculture, and leaving but 16,000 square miles unfitted for farms, and even the larger portion of this is highly valuable for its minerals and timber.

The deductions of science respecting the agricultural capacity of the soil and climate of Minnesota have been abundantly verified by years of successful agricultural industry. In 1860 the number of bushels of wheat produced in the State was over 5,000,000—nearly 30 bushels to each inhabitant.

Hon. IGNATIUS DONNELLY, representative in Congress from this State, in a speech delivered before the House of Representatives in February last, says:

"It cannot be lost sight of, that considerations of climate, soil, and geographical location override all the efforts of human energy and industry. New England, by the census returns of 1860, raises wheat enough to feed her own people three weeks, and New York sufficient for six months; while Pennsylvania after feeding her own population, possesses no surplus, and Ohio but three million bushels. In ten years the wheat crop of these States has decreased 6,500,000 bushels.

"Steadily the seat of empire of this wonderful cereal is being transferred northwestward. Gradually, imperceptibly, and by the force of powerful natural laws, new regions of country are rising into the first consequence as the bread-producing regions of the world. During the ten years in which the Eastern States diminished their wheat crop 6,500,000 bushels, the Northwest increased its wheat crop 55,000,000!

"In no other locality is this startling growth more strikingly displayed than in the State which I have the honor in part to represent—Minnesota.

"In 1858 that State was an importer to a large extent of flour, beef, pork, &c., to supply the wants of her own people. In 1860 her entire crop of grain and potatoes was 14,695,517 bushels; her entire crop of wheat 5,101,432 bushels; nearly five times greater than the wheat crop of all the New England States, possessing six times her population! There has never been in the history of the human family so stupendous a rate of growth as this. In one year, from 1859 to 1860, the breadth of wheat sown in the State increased 85 per cent, and the amount of crop 114 per cent."

Wheat is the principal cereal raised in Minnesota. The statistics of her wheat crop show an average yield, in 1859, of 19 bushels to the acre; in 1860, of 22 bushels to the acre. The largest known crop of Ohio, that of 1850, averaged only 17⅛ bushels to the acre, and the average yield of that State for the last ten years is but 12⅛ bushels to the acre. Iowa, in 1849, produced 14 bushels to the acre; in 1856, 14¼ bushels to the acre; in 1858, 7 bushels; and in 1859, but 4⅛ bushels to the acre.

In the agricultural census statistics of 1850, only four States, Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, Texas, and Florida reached an average of 15 bushels to the acre, and the rest averaged generally from 11 downward to 5 bushels.

The superior quality of the Minnesota and Red River wheat is shown in the weight of its grain, compared with the weight of wheat in other States. Minnesota wheat weighs from 62 to 65 lbs. per bushel; Red River wheat from 64 to 70 lbs. per bushel; whilst in Ohio and Pennsylvania it averages from 58 to 60 lbs., and in Illinois 54 to 58 lbs. per bushel.

The oft repeated question, "Can corn grow and ripen in Minnesota?" has been most emphatically answered in the affirmative. The average yield of corn for 1860 was 33⅓ bushels to the acre; in 1859, an unfavorable year, but 26 bushels. In the latter year Iowa produced 22½ bushels, and Ohio but 29 bushels.

Let it be remembered that the growing season of Minnesota is exempt from long, cold storms; that it is less liable than are the States of Ohio

and Illinois to the ravages of late spring and early autumnal frosts; and further, that its high northern latitude gives it a day of sixteen hours, when the latitude of New Orleans has but fourteen; whilst the nature of the soil scarce admits of the radiation of heat during the short nights that intervene between the long days of bright, cloudless sunshine. These characteristics of climate, combining remarkable richness and fertility of soil, render Minnesota superior to many, and equal to most of the States of the Union as a corn producing State.

Oats, rye, and barley exhibit the decided superiority of our climate and soil for the production of the cereals. The average yield of oats in 1859 was 33 bushels per acre; and in 1860, 42 bushels. The rye crop for 1859 gave an average of 19 bushels, and in 1860 of 21 bushels to the acre.

Barley is raised to considerable extent, giving an average of 29 and 33 bushels to the acre, for the two years for which returns have been made.

The superior quality of potatoes grown in northern latitudes has long been a recognized fact. Vermont, New Hampshire, Maine, and Nova Scotia, furnish the favorite potatoe for the New York and Boston markets. All the choice varieties of the Eastern States are here reproduced in their native excellence; and their superior quality have already made them in great demand in the Southern States. The average yield per acre for 1860 was 138 bushels.

Sorghum has been cultivated to a very limited extent, and chiefly for experiment, yielding, in some instances, 200 and even 300 gallons of syrup to the acre. The average yield falls far short of this, probably not more than 72 gallons per acre.

But little attention has yet been paid to fruit culture, not enough, perhaps, to furnish ground for a calculation of its probable success. It is established, however, that the hardy varieties of apple succeed well in favored localities. Some of the early settlers have raised apple trees which produced fruit at six years' growth from the seed.

The absence of the choice cultivated fruits of the Eastern and Middle States, is in a measure supplied by the variety and great abundance of wild fruits in all sections of the State. The crab apple is found in the southern districts. A species of wild plum abounds throughout the State, some varieties of which are scarcely inferior to the cultivated fruit. The wild grape-vine attains a luxuriant growth in the wooded ravines. Strawberries and black currants thrive in the woodlands; blackberries, and red and black raspberries spring up in the clearings. The whortleberry grows in the eastern and northern sections of the State; and cranberry marshes are found in nearly all localities. Varieties of the wild cherry are also common in many places. The abundance of these wild fruits leads to the presumption that the cultivation of the choice varieties will prove successful.

The annual vines, squashes, pumpkins, &c., thrive remarkably well; and nowhere are finer melons to be found than in the melon patches which constitute a portion of every garden and homestead in the State. These fruits, with the tomato and pie-plant, form an excellent substitute for the apple, peach, and other fine fruits of the older States.

The State abounds in meadow-lands bordering upon the lakes and rivers, and occupying depressions which are the basins of former lakes, which

yield a heavy burden of rich and highly nutritious grass, which is considered nearly equal to timothy and clover. The estimate hay crop for 1861 was 300,000 tons. This was all made from the native meadow grasses. The average of this product is more than two tons to the acre, whilst official statistics of Ohio give 1½ tons of hay per acre for the State.

The nutritious properties of the meadow and prairie grasses are manifested in the fine quality and general healthiness of the various kinds of stock which form a portion of the farming capital of the State. The success promised in this branch of agricultural industry, may be best shown by reference to official Reports of Dairy products, where we find the average weight of butter from one cow, in Minnesota, for 1860, was 72 pounds. In 1850 the average in Iowa was 47 pounds; in Illinois 42 pounds, and in Wisconsin 56 lbs.

The average weight of butter and cheese from one cow in Minnesota is 77 pounds, against 52 in Iowa, 46 in Illinois, and 60 in Wisconsin. This superiority of Minnesota dairy products is doubtless the result of the combined influences of a rich pasturage, pure water, and a healthy climate, promoting a good development of animal tissues and secretions.

The extent and richness of free pasturage, the abundant supply of pure water, and the general dryness and healthfulness of the climate, have turned the attention of farmers to the subject of sheep husbandry; and the experiment thus far has proved eminently successful, as will appear from the following extracts of letters addressed to the Commissioner of Statistics, and published in his report of 1861. One farmer writes: "My sheep have done better here by one quarter than they did in New York State. I have sheared 198 this spring, clipping from them 1,000 pounds of good clean-washed wool, or over five pounds per head. I think this one of the finest States in the Union for sheep raising." Another writes: "As far as my observation goes, all the grasses that grow on our high, rolling prairies, as also nearly all the flowers and weeds, are eaten with great avidity by sheep. The blue joint grass, however, seems to be the favorite, and the pea-vine, which always grows with it, is eaten with great relish in winter, when made into hay. I am of the opinion that our common upland prairie hay is fully equal to any domestic hay in the Eastern States. * * * * I have a comfortable log sheep-house covered with straw; but, in the coldest weather, my sheep seem to prefer sleeping in the open air. * * * From experience and observation, *I know this country to be far superior to either New York or Illinois*, and I believe it to be equal to any country for sheep growing."

Wool growing is at present considered the most profitable branch of husbandry. The large cities of the Eastern States are the great market for the surplus produce of the Western States. Minnesota is so far removed from these, that until the proposed system of railroads is completed, a large portion of the profits of the heavier articles will be consumed in transportation. It costs 89 or 90 cents per bushel to transport wheat from Minnesota to New York, whilst wool can be carried thither for two cents per pound. An analysis of statistics shows that the actual cost of producing a bushel of wheat would produce two pounds of wool. The comparative profitableness of the two products will be seen at a glance.

With a poor soil, and scarcity of the raw material for manufactures,

Massachusetts, by careful improvement of her commercial and manufacturing advantages has attained the first rank for wealth and influence among the States. Her many rivers turn the wheels of industry, whilst her merchant-ships bring to her doors the raw materials from every clime, and again, go out of port laden with the products of her skill and labor; and Massachusetts boots, shoes, agricultural implements, and woolen and cotton fabrics, find a market in every village of the land. With a vastly richer soil, immense and varied resources within her own borders, and ample facilities for manufactures and commerce, Minnesota is destined at no distant day, to be to the Western what Massachusetts is to the Eastern States—the great manufactory of all the staple articles which require powerful machinery for their production.

The Mississippi, at Saint Anthony, makes a leap, and rapid descent, over fragments of limestone, of 64 feet, giving water-power sufficient to turn the mills of England and Scotland combined. Indeed this river from its source to the Falls of St. Anthony, furnishes a series of rapids and falls which are available for manufacturing purposes. The principal of these are the Pokegama Falls, Little Falls, and Sauk Rapids. This river is navigable nearly to the Falls of Saint Anthony. Thus may be brought to the very threshold of the mill, by steamboat, the crude material from every part of the globe.

The Saint Croix Falls, second only to those of Saint Anthony, are at the head of navigation on the Saint Croix. Besides these, the Elk and Rum, on the eastern side of the Mississippi; the Cannon, Vermillion, Crow, Sauk, and other rivers on the western slope of the Mississippi, and nearly all the tributaries of the Minnesota, afford an abundance of water-power to nearly every county in the State, giving every neighborhood the means of manufacturing its own flour and lumber.

For the employment of this vast water-power, Minnesota has an almost inexhaustible supply of raw material in the immense pine forests occupying the northern section and the Big Woods reaching downward through its very centre. Into the deep recesses of these forests, penetrate the innumerable branches of the larger streams, which afford facilities for floating the logs to the various manufactories.

The iron and copper mines of the Superior District, and the coal fields of the Cottonwood Valley, will shortly be connected by railroad with the region of St. Anthony Falls.

The limestone and sandstone of the southeastern section; the salt-springs of the western section; the immense clay beds in all localities, afford an abundance of material to be manufactured into articles of universal use. The rich valleys and bottoms, yield grain and potatoes, to be made into flour, starch, and other forms of human food, whilst the prairies team with flocks whose massive fleeces must soon attract thither the spindle and the loom.

Minnesota is in the midst of the great wood growing region of the north, her great river reaches to the cotton fields of the south, and whatever material may be wanting can be procured by this great highway of internal commerce. This State imports at great cost railroad iron, stoves, and various other heavy articles, for the manufacture of which she has abundant natural resources. With the facilities to be introduced by the

completion of the railroad system, now in process of construction, Minnesota will be enabled to scatter her copper and iron wares, throughout the Mississippi Valley, and compete with Pennsylvania, in the products of her foundries. Whilst the growing settlements springing up in the Territories westward, and in British Columbia on the north, will furnish an exhaustive market for all the various manufactures, which the immense machinery to be moved by her water-power can produce.

Pine lumber is at present the most important of our manufactured articles. This branch of business has a peculiar value in places favorable for shipment upon the Mississippi from the great extent of prairie country, west and south, including Southern Minnesota, Iowa, Illinois and Missouri, which must always be dependant upon Northern Minnesota and Wisconsin for their supply of lumber. There are also in various places, establishments for the manufacture of furniture, for which our forests supply an abundance of white walnut, maple, and other valuable woods. Barrels, pails, tubs, brooms, and the simpler kinds of farming tools are manufactured to some extent. Next to lumber, flour is the chief article of manufacture. The surplus of the past few years has been shipped to New-York and Boston. With the superior quality of our wheat, the facilities we have for its manufacture, skill and capital alone are required to secure a reputation that will make Minnesota flourish.

Brick, lime, and pottery are manufactured in limited quantities. A woolen factory is established in the southern part of the State, and another is soon to be put in operation at the Falls of St. Anthony. A few foundries, tanneries, and breweries constitute the chief remaining manufactories of the State.

One of the grand results of the application of steam power to navigation, is the development and growth of great inland cities. To this cause principally St. Louis, Chicago, and Cincinnati, owe their wealth, splendor and commercial greatness which render them the rivals of the cities of the Eastern States.

Minnesota, with her immense extent of shore line, with steamboat communication with all the great inland cities of the Mississippi valley, with a similar communication extending eastward to the Atlantic, with still another reaching north and west to the Rocky Mountains, and north and east to Hudson's Bay, has a commercial position scarcely surpassed by any State of the Union. And when to this is added the further fact, that from her western boundary, stretches the only tract of arable land reaching to the Rocky Mountains, north of the Great American Desert, and the most feasible route for the Pacific Railroad, the grandeur of her position, as the great entrepot through which will pass the immense traffic from ocean to ocean, and continent to continent, equals that of any other commercial centre on the face of the globe, and the greatness of her future baffles all attempt at computation.

By the Mississippi River, Minnesota can gather furs from the north, and tropical fruits from the south; by the same channel, and its railroad connections, she can scatter her wares throughout the United States, and send her produce to Europe. By the Red River and its connections, she holds commercial intercourse with the vast extent of British Territory,

stretching north and west. Through the Great Lakes she can send her produce to a foreign market, and land her imports on her own shore.

The Mississippi River, interrupted only by the Falls of St. Anthony, Sauk Rapids and Little Falls, is navigable to the foot of Pokegama Falls, distant but 236 miles from its source. On the Minnesota River, in good stages of water, small boats run to the mouth of the Yellow Medicine, a distance of 288 miles from its mouth. Beyond this, at a slight expense it might be rendered navigable to Big Stone Lake, where a portage of about three miles in width separates it from the equally navigable waters of the Sioux Wood, which empties into Red River. The Red River gives 380 miles of navigable water on the western boundary of the State. The St. Croix furnishes 52 miles of navigable water on the eastern border. Lake Superior gives 167 miles of shore line to the northeastern section of the State, and the St. Louis River, the principal srream of that section adds 21 miles of navigable water to the extreme end of Lake Superior. This river is important, as the first link of the great chain of rivers and lakes of the St. Lawrence system.

Minnesota has 2,746 miles of shore line of navigable waters—one mile of coast line to every 30 miles of surface. Ohio, one of the best watered States, has but one mile of coast line to 67 miles of surface. By this great extent of inland navigation, she can gather up the surplus of products ready for shipments from the larger markets.

The commerce of this State is yet in its incipiency, confined chiefly to the exportation of farm products, and the importation of articles of home consumption. Some estimate of the growth of her commerce may be formed by the rapid increase of steamboat arrivals at St. Paul; numbering in 1847, 63, and in 1848, 1,068. In 1851 three boats went up the Minnesota; in 1861, 318 ascended that river.

In 1857 Congress made the magnificent grant of nearly four and a half millions of acres of land to aid in the construction of railroads. The State Legislature of 1861 made a grant of 500,000 acres of swamp land to aid in the construction of a railroad from the Mississippi River to Lake Superior.

Over 1,000 miles of railroad have been surveyed and located. The Minnesota and Pacific main line from Stillwater, via St. Paul and St. Anthony to the Red River, passes through the rich interior section of the State, and connects the head of navigation of the Mississippi with the head of navigation of the Red River. A branch line of this road from St. Anthony, via St. Cloud and Crow Wing to St. Vincent on the Red River, near the northern boundary of the State, will develop the fertile valleys of the Upper Mississippi and Crow Wing and the lower portion of the Red River Valley, and connect with the great international railroad to the Pacific, whose path has already been traced by British engineers. This road is completed from St. Paul to Elk River, a distance of 40 miles, and the work is progressing with the prospect of a speedy extension to St. Cloud.

The Southern Minnesota main line from West St. Paul in the direction of the Big Sioux River, passes through the magnificent valley of the Minnesota River; and, with its branch from St. Anthony to the junction near Shakopee, gives near 200 miles of railroad through a section of unsurpassed fertility.

The Winona and St. Peter Railroad, from the Mississippi to the western boundary of the State, a distance of 268 miles, in conjunction with the Root River Railroad from La Crescent to Rochester, a distance of 79 miles, will furnish an outlet for the bountiful harvests of Southern Minnesota. This road is completed and in operation from Winona to Rochester, a distance of 50 miles, and graded 30 miles further. All these roads run in a general easterly and westerly direction from the Mississippi to the western boundary of the State, and are intersected by the Minnesota Central (formerly the Minneapolis and Cedar Valley) Railroad, which extends from Minneapolis and St. Paul to the southern boundary of the State, a distance of 112 miles.

The construction of this road is being urged forward with great energy, and the portion between Minneapolis and Faribault it is confidently expected will be completed the present year.

The Superior and Mississippi Railroad adds 171 miles more of railroad, and completes the great network of inter-communication between the different parts of the State and the three great water systems of the Continent. For the construction of this road, in addition to the State grant of swamp lands, Congress has recently made a further grant of land, and the City of St. Paul has donated to the same purpose $250,000, on condition that the road shall be completed within five years. Such material aid will doubtless insure the speedy commencement of the work. This road when completed will give Minnesota an outlet of lake navigation, and place her virtually as near the great eastern markets as eastern Illinois.

This Lake Superior road will furnish an inducement for the completion of the Minnesota Valley Railroad (Southern Minnesota), which, with a branch connecting with the Union Pacific Railroad, will give the commerce destined to flow overland from ocean to ocean a path to lake navigation, shorter by 130 miles, than through any possible route to Lake Michigan.

A writer in the London *Times* in March, 1863, says: "Perhaps nowhere on the American Continent, will such important commercial results follow, as will be witnessed when 6,000 miles of steamboat navigation on the Mississippi and St. Lawrence Rivers, and 3,000 miles of similar navigation on the rivers of Central British America, are joined together mostly by the proposed routes of the St. Paul and Pacific Railroad."

COMMERCIAL LAW.—NO. 26.

THE LAW OF SHIPPING.

(Continued from page 228, vol. 53.)

THE SEAMEN.

The law makes no important distinction between the officers, or mates, as they are usually called, and the common sailors. Our statutes contain many provisions in behalf of the seamen, and in regulation of their rights and duties, although the contract between them and the ship owner is in general one of hiring and service. The principal statutes on the subject are given in the Appendix. They relate principally to the following points: 1st, the shipping articles; 2d, wages; 3d, provisions, and subsis-

tence; 4th, the seaworthiness of the ship; 5th, the care of seamen in sickness; 6th, the bringing them home from abroad; 7th, regulation of punishment.

1st. Every master of a vessel is bound to have shipping articles, which articles every seaman on board must sign, and they must describe accurately the voyage, and the terms on which each seaman ships. Courts will protect seamen against uncertain or catching language, and against unusual and oppressive stipulations. If a number of ports are mentioned, they are to be visited only in their geographical and commercial order, and not revisited unless the articles give the master a discretion. Admiralty courts enforce or disregard the stipulations as they are fair and legal or otherwise, and exercise a liberal equity on this subject; but courts of common law are more strictly bound by the letter of the contract. The articles are generally conclusive as to wages; but accidental errors or omissions may be supplied or corrected by either party, by parol.

2. Wages are regulated as above stated, and also by limiting the right to demand payment in a foreign port to one third the amount then due, unless it be otherwise stipulated. Seamen have a lein on the ship and on the freight for their wages, which is enforceable in Admiralty. By the ancient rule, that freight is the mother of wages, any accident or misfortune which makes it impossible for the ship to earn its freight destroys the claim of the sailors for wages. The reason is, to hold out to the seamen the strongest possible inducement to enable the ships to carry the goods and earn the freight.

3d. Provisions of due quality and quantity must be furnished by the owner, and double wages are given to the seamen when on short allowance, unless the necessity be caused by some peril of the sea, or other accident of the voyage. The master may at any time put them on a fair and proper allowance to prevent waste.

4th. As to the seaworthiness of the vessel, our statutes provide that it may be inquired into at home or abroad, by a regular survey, on complaint of the mate and a majority of the seamen. But this very seldom occurs in practice. If seamen, after being shipped, refuse to proceed upon their voyage, and are complained of and arrested, the court will inquire into the condition of the vessel, and if the complaint of the seamen is justified, in a greater or less degree, will discharge them, or mitigate or reduce their punishment.

5th. As to sickness, our statutes require that every ship shall have a proper medicine chest on board. Moreover, twenty cents a month are deducted from the wages of every seaman to make up a fund for the maintenance of marine hospitals, to which every sick seaman may repair without charge. In addition to this the general law merchant requires every ship owner or master to provide suitable medicine, medical treatment, and care, for every seaman who becomes sick, wounded, or maimed, in the service of the ship, at home or abroad, at sea or on shore; unless this is caused by the misconduct of the seaman himself. The right to these things extends to the officers of the ship, and probably to the master.

6th. The right of the seaman to be brought back to his own home is very jealously guarded by our laws. The master should always present his shipping articles to the consul or commercial agent of the United

States, at every foreign port which he visits, but does not seem to be required by law to do this unless the consul desires it. He must, however, present them to the first boarding officer on his arrival at a home port. And if, upon an arrival at a home port from a foreign voyage, it appears that any of the seamen are missing, the master must account for their absence. If he discharge a seaman abroad with his consent, he must pay to the American consul three months' wages, of which the consul gives two to the seaman, and remits one to the treasury of the United States to form a fund for bringing home seamen from abroad. This obligation does not apply where the seaman is discharged because the voyage is necessarily broken up by a wreck, or similar misfortune. But proper measures must be taken to repair the ship, if possible, or to obtain her restoration, if captured. And the seamen may hold on for a reasonable time for this purpose, and if discharged before, may claim the extra wages.

Our consuls and commercial agents may authorize the discharge of a seaman abroad for his gross misconduct, and he then has no claim for the extra wages. On the other hand, if he be treated cruelly, or if the ship be unseaworthy by her own fault, or if the master violate the shipping articles, the consul or commercial agent may direct the discharge of the seaman; and he then has a right to these extra wages, and this even if the seaman had deserted the ship by reason of such cruelty. They may also send our seamen home in American ships, which are bound to bring them for a compensation not to exceed ten dollars each, and the seamen so sent must work and obey as if originally shipped. It is of great importance, that the powers and duties of our consuls abroad should be distinctly defined and well known. And Congress has recently enacted an excellent statute on this subject.

If a master discharge a seaman in a foreign port, he is liable to a fine of five hundred dollars, or six months' imprisonment. And a seaman may recover full indemnity or compensation for his loss of time, or expenses incurred by reason of such discharge.

7th. As to the regulation of punishment, flogging has been abolished and prohibited by law. Flogging means the use of the cat, or a similar instrument, but not necessarily blows of the hand, or a stick, or a rope. Desertion, in maritime law, is distinguished from absence without leave, by the intention not to return. This intention is inferred from a refusal to return. If he returns and is received, this is a condonation (or forgiving) of the offence, and is a waiver of the forfeiture. If he desert before the voyage begins, he forfeits the advanced wages, and as much more; but he may be apprehended by a warrant of a justice, and forcibly compelled to go on board, and this is a waiver of the forfeiture. By desertion on the voyage, he forfeits all his wages and all his property on board the ship, and is liable to the owner for all damages sustained in hiring another seaman in his place.

Desertion, under the statute of the United States on this subject, seems to be a continued absence from the ship far more than forty-eight hours, without leave; and there must be an entry, in the log-book, of the time and circumstances. But any desertion or absence without leave, at a time when the owner has a right to to the seaman's service, is an offence by the law-merchant, giving the owner a right to full indemnity.

PILOTS.

An act of Congress authorizes the several States to make their own pilotage laws; and questions under these laws are cognizable in the State courts. No one can act as pilot, and claim the compensation allowed by law for the service, unless duly appointed. And he should always have with him his commission, which should always designate the largest vessel he may pilot, or that which draws the most water. If a pilot offers himself to a ship that has no pilot, and that is entering or leaving a harbor and has not already reached certain geographical limits, the ship must pay him pilotage fees, whether his services are accepted or not. As soon as the pilot stands on deck, he has control of the ship. But it remains the master's duty and power, in case of obvious and certain disability, or dangerous ignorance or error, to disobey the pilot, and dispossess him of his authority; but the master should interfere with the pilot only in extreme cases. If a ship neglect to take a pilot when it should and can do so, the owners will be answerable in damages to shippers or others for any loss which may be caused by such neglect or refusal. Pilots are themselves answerable for any damage resulting from their own negligence or default, and have been held strictly to this liability. The owner is also liable, on general principles, for the default of the pilot, who is his servant.

MATERIAL MEN.

Maritime law calls by this name all persons employed to repair a ship or furnish her supplies. Such persons, and indeed all who work upon or about her, as stevedores, who are persons employed to load or unload a vessel, have a lien on the ship for their charges. There is, however, this important distinction. Material men, by Admiralty law, have a lien only on foreign ships, and not on domestic ships. But many of our States have, by statute, given this lien to material men on all ships, without distinction; as in New York, Pennsylvania, Massachusetts, Maine, Illinois, Indiana, Missouri, Alabama, and Michigan; and in Louisiana the same lien exists under the general Spanish law.

It has been held, that such a lien extends beyond mere repairs,—certainly to alterations, and perhaps to reconstruction,—but not the original building, unless the statute includes ship building. A laborer, employed in general work by a shipwright or mechanic, and by him sometimes employed on the vessel and sometimes elsewhere, gets no lien on the vessel for that part of the labor performed about it. These statute liens take precedence of the claims of all other creditors. They may be enforced either in the courts of the State, or in the admiralty court of the district in which the vessel is situated.

It has been said, in previous pages, that our States are foreign to each other for most purposes under the law of Admiralty; and they are so as to the lien of material men. Therefore, in States in which there is no statute on the subject, material men would have a lien for supplies or repairs for a vessel belonging to any other of our States, but not for a vessel belonging to the State in which the supplies were furnished or the repairs were made.

MARINE INSURANCE.

HOW THE CONTRACT OF INSURANCE IS MADE.

At the present day insurance is seldom made by individuals. Formerly, this was the universal custom in our commercial cities. Afterwards, companies were incorporated for the purpose of making insurance on ships and their cargoes; and the manifold advantages of this method have caused it to supersede the other.

The contract of insurance binds the insurer to indemnify the insured against loss or injury to certain property or interests which it specifies, from certain perils which it also specifies. The consideration for this obligation on the part of the insurer is the premium paid to the insurer, or promised to be paid to him, by the insured.

The instrument in which this contract is expressed is called a Policy of Insurance. But no instrument is essential to the validity of the contract; for if the proposals of the insured are written in the usual way in the proposal book of the insured, and signed by their officer with the word "done" or "accepted," or in any usual way to indicate that the bargain is made, it is valid, although no policy be delivered; and it would be construed as an insurance upon the terms expressed in the policy commonly used by that company. We think a contract of insurance which was merely oral, if otherwise unobjectionable, would be valid. But on this subject there is a diversity of opinion. We suppose the law to have been correctly stated in a case which occurred recently before the Circuit Court of the United States, sitting in Boston. A bill in equity was brought by the complainants to compel the specific performance of a contract for reinsurance on the Great Republic. The agent of the plaintiffs went to the office of the defendants on the 24th of December. The president not being in, he filled up a blank proposal in the usual form. He called again that day and saw the president, who offered to make the insurance at a certain rate. The agent said he would consult with his principal, to which the president assented; and on Monday, the 26th, receiving an answer accepting, he saw the president and told him that the offer was accepted. The rate, as agreed on, was inserted in the proposal. That night the vessel was destroyed by fire. The proposal was in the usual form, with "Binding," and a blank left for the president's name. This blank had not been filled up. The court held that the contract was complete as soon as the proposal was accepted.

If proposals are made, on either side, by letter, and accepted by the other party, also by letter, this is a valid contract of insurance as soon as the party accepting has mailed his letter to that effect, if he have not previously received notice of a withdrawal of the proposals.

The form of the policy is generally that which has been used for many years both in England and in this country, with such changes and modifications only as will make it express more accurately the bargain between the parties. And for this purpose it may be and is varied at pleasure.

It is subscribed only by the insurers; but binds both parties. The insured are bound for the premium, although no note is given. The date may be controlled by evidence showing when it was made and delivered; but if delivered after its date, it takes effect at and from its date, if that were the intention of the parties.

It may be effected on application of an agent of the insured, if he have full authority for this purpose; which need not be in writing. But a mere general authority, even if it related to commercial matters, or to a ship itself, as that of a "ship's husband," is not sufficient.

A party may be insured who is not named, if "for whom it may concern," or words of equivalent import, are used. But a party who seeks to come in under such a clause must show that he was interested in the property insured at the time the insurance was made, and that he was in the contemplation of the party asking insurance. The phrase "on account of owners at the time of loss," or an equivalent phrase, will bring in those who were intended, if they owned the property when the loss occurred, although there were assignments and transfers between the time of insurance and the loss.

Each person whose several interest is actually insured by any such general phrase, may demand or sue in his own name.

If the nominal insured is described as "agent" generally, this is equivalent to "for all whom it may concern." And an insurance "for ———" will be read as for all whom it may concern, if that were intended. So, if the designation of the insured be common to many persons, the intention of the parties must decide for whom it is made. Whatever is written on any part of the sheet containing the policy, or even on a separate paper, if referred to or signed by the parties as a part of the policy, is thereby made a part of it. But things said by either party while making their bargain, or written on other paper and not referred to or signed, form no part of it. The policy may expressly provide that its terms shall be made definite, especially as to the property insured, by subsequent indorsements or additions. Thus, it is very common to insure property to a certain amount, "from A. to B., on board ship or ships, as shall hereafter be endorsed on this policy." And when this or any equivalent phrase is used, the insured causes the insurers to endorse on the policy the name of the vessel, and the amount shipped, as soon as he has notice of it.

Alterations may be made at any time by consent. But a material alteration by the insured, without the consent of the insurer, discharges the insurer; although it was made honestly, in the hope or belief of having his consent. A court of equity will correct a material mistake of fact.

A policy may be assigned, and the assignee may sue in the name of the assignor. If the assignment be assented to by the insurer, this does not always make a contract between him and the assignee, on which he may sue in his own name. If the loss is made by the policy payable "to order" or "to bearer," it will then be negotiable by indorsement or delivery, but it is not certain that the transferree can even then sue in his own name. In New York and some other States, not only these assignees, but all assignees of debts or contracts, may sue in their own names.

If the insured transfers the property, unaccompanied by a transfer of the policy with consent of the insured, this discharges the policy, unless it was expressly made for the benefit of whoever should be owner at the time of the loss, as before stated. There is usually a clause to the effect that the policy is void if assigned without the consent of the insurers. But this does not apply to an assignment by force of law, as in a case of insolv-

ency, or in a case of death. And after a loss has occurred, the claim against the insurers is always assignable like any other debt. And a seller who remains in possession of the property as trustee for the purchaser, or a mortgagor retaining possession, may retain the policy and preserve his rights.

THE INTEREST OF THE INSURED.

The contract of Insurance is a contract of indemnity for loss. The insured must therefore be interested in the property at the time of the loss. The value to be paid for may be agreed upon beforehand, and expressed in the policy, which is then called a *valued policy;* or left to be ascertained by proper evidence, and the policy is then called an *open policy.*

This valuation, if in good faith, is binding on both parties, even if it be very high indeed. But a *wager policy*, that is, one without interest, is void; and although there be some interest, the valuation may still be so excessive as to be open to the objection that the interest is a mere cover, and that the contract is void because only one of wager. So the valuation is void if fraudulent in any respect; as if it cover an illegal interest or peril.

The insured may apply his valuation to the whole property, or to that part of it which he wishes to insure; thus, he may cause himself to be insured for one half of a cargo, the whole of which is valued at $20,000, or for one half, which half is valued at $20,000; and if the policy says, "insured $15,000 on half the ship Scipio (or on her cargo), valued at $20,000," whether it is meant that the whole ship (or cargo) is valued at $20,000, or the half only that is insured, will be determined by a reasonable construction of the language used. If he owns the whole, the valuation, in general, will be held to apply to the whole; and only to a part if he owns only a part.

He may value one thing insured, and not another; or may value the same thing in one policy and not in another, and then the valuation does not affect the policy which does not contain it. If only a part of the goods included in the valuation are on board and at risk, it applies to them in due proportion to their value.

A valuation of an outward cargo will, generally, be taken as a valuation of a return cargo, substituted for the other by purchase and covered by the same policy. And a valuation will cover the insured's whole interest in the thing valued, including the premium, unless a different purpose is expressed or indicated.

A valuation of freight applies to the freight of the whole cargo; and if a part only be at risk, it applies in proportion. And it applies either to the whole voyage, or to freight earned by voyages which form parts of the whole, as may be intended and expressed.

If profits are insured as such they are generally valued, but may be insured by an open policy. If they are valued, the loss of the goods on which the profits were to have been made implies in this country a loss of the valued profits, without proof that there would have been any profit whatever; it seems to be necessary in England to show that there would have been some profit, and then the valuation attaches.

It is very common to insure profits, in fact, without saying anything

about them, by a valuation of the goods sufficiently high to include all the profits that can be made upon them.

In an open policy, where the value insured is to be determined by evidence, the value of the property—whether ship or goods—which is insured, is its value when the insurance took effect, including the premium of insurance; as the law of insurance intends indemnifying the assured, as accurately as may be, for all his loss. If a ship be insured, its value throughout the insurance is the same as at the beginning, without allowance for the effect of time upon it. And all its appurtenances, in a mercantile sense of this phrase, enter into this value.

While the *value* of the property does not vary with time, the *interest* of the insured at the time of the loss (which may be the whole or half, or any other part) is that on which he founds his claim. Thus, if an owner of a ship is insured $20,000 on ship A. B., valued at $30,000, and afterwards sells half of the ship, and it is subsequently lost, he recovers only $10,000. But if he owned half originally, and insured that and before the loss, acquired the other half, he recovers only the half insured.

If the insurance is on goods on successive passages, and at the close of one passage the goods are sold at a profit, and the whole proceeds invested in the cargo put on board, this increased value enters into the value. Generally, the value of goods is their invoice price, with all those charges, commissions, wages, &c., which enter into the cost to the owner, when the risk commences. The drawback is not deducted; and the expenses incurred after the risk begins, as for freight, &c., are not included. And the rate of exchange at the beginning of the risk is taken.

FINANCES OF PENNSYLVANIA.

The following statement shows the aggregates of the

DEBT OF THE COMMONWEALTH ON THE 31ST DECEMBER, 1864.

Funded Debt, viz.:			
6 per cent Loans	$400,630 00		
5 do do	35,605,263 72		
4½ do do	258,200 00	—$36,264,093 72	
Unfunded Debt, viz.:			
Relief Notes in circulation	$97,251 00		
Interest Certificates outstanding	13,086 50		
do do unclaimed	4,448 38		
Domestic Creditors' Certificates	724 32	—	115,510 21
			$36,379,603 94
Military Loan, per Act May, 15, 1861			3,000,000 (c)
Total, December 31, 1865			$39,379,603 94

The following shows the Loans in detail, their rates of interest, when re-imbursable, and the amounts as they severally stood on the 31st of December, 1864:

Loans, &c.				Rate.	Re-imbursable.		Amount.
Stock Loan, per Act of			April 2, 1821....	6	June 1, 1841,....		$880 00
do	do	do	April 9, 1827....	5	Dec. 1, 1850,....		166 67
do	do	do	Mar. 24, 1828....	5	Dec. 1, 1853,....		1,511,558 27
do	do	do	Dec. 18, 1828....	5	Jan'y 1. 1854,....		9,002 25
do	do	do	April 22, 1829....	5	Dec. 1. 1864,....		1,718,809 71
do	do	do	Dec. 7, 1829....	5	(*Bank Charter*)		50,000 00
do	do	do	Mar. 13, 1830....	5	March 4, 1858,....		3,612,491 40
do	do	do	Mar. 21, 1831....	5	July 1, 1856,....		2,172,437 47
do	do	do	Mar. 28, 1831....	5	Mar. 28, 1861,....		40,300 00
do	do	do	Mar. 30, 1831....	5	July 1, 1856,....		10,200 00
do	do	do	Mar. 30, 1832....	5	July 1, 1860,....		1,975,692 19
do	do	do	April 5, 1832....	5	July 1, 1860, ...		232,378 76
do	do	do	Feb. 16, 1833....	5	July 1, 1858,....		2,305,421 13
do	do	do	Mar. 1, 1833....	4½	April 10, 1863,....		121,200 00
do	do	do	Mar. 27, 1833....	5	July 1, 1858, ...		424,743 31
do	do	do	April 5, 1834....	5	July 1, 1862,....		1,877,198 16
do	do	do	April 13, 1835....	5	July 1, 1865,....		851,193 21
do	do	do	Jan. 26, 1839....	5	July 1, 1859,....		1,028,571 47
do	do	do	Feb. 9, 1839....	5	July 1, 1864,....		1,091,057 66
do	do	do	Mar. 16, 1839....	5	July 1, 1864,....		86,612 22
do	do	do	Mar. 27, 1829....	5	July 1, 1868,....		460,258 90
do	do	do	June 7, 1839....	5	Aug. 1, 1859,....		46,811 95
do	do	do	June 27, 1839....	5	June 27, 1864,....		1,048,828 96
do	do	do	July 19, 1839....	5	July 1, 1868,....		1,799 781 41
do	do	do	Jan. 23, 1840....	5	Jan'y 1, 1865,....		702,452 33
do	do	do	April 3, 1840....	5	Aug. 1, 1864,....		473,029 49
do	do	do	June 11, 1840....	5	July 1, 1870,....		1,759,299 14
Loan (Relief)		do	May 4, 1841....	0	May 4, 1846. ...		97,251 00
Stock Loan		do	May 5, 1841....	5	(*Bank Charter*)		239,937 39
Inter't Certificates		do	May 27, 1842....	6	Aug. 1, 1848,....		4,195 65
do	do	do	Mar, 7, 1843....	6	Aug. 1, 1846,....		4,822 91
do	do	do	Mar. 31, 1844....	5	Aug. 1, 1846,....		4,567 96
Stock Loan		do	April 29, 1844....	5	Mar. 1, 1849,....		129 02
do	do	do	April 16, 1845....	5	Aug 1, 1855,....		3,828,401 24
do	do	do	Jan. 22, 1847....	5	(*Bank Charter*)		21,000 00
Incl'd Plane Loan		do	April 10, 1849....	6	April 10, 1879,....		400,000 00
Coupon Loan		do	April 2, 1852....	5	July 1, 1882,....		650,000 00
do	do	do	April 2, 1852....	4½	July 1, 1882,....		137,000 00
do	do	do	May 4, 1852 ...	5	Aug. 1, 1877,....		4,860,000 00
do	do	do	April 19, 1853....	5	Aug. 1, 1878,....		428,000 00
Total old debt.....							$36,374,431 24
Military Loan, per Act of May 15, 1861....				6	August 1, 1871,...		3,000,000 00
Total funded and unfunded, except Int. Cert., and Domestic Cert..							$39,374,431 24

The loans over due as well as those becoming due may be thus stated:

Amount overdue.....					$23,868,257 86
do	re-imbursable in the year 1865....				1,553,64
do	do	do	do	1868.....	2,260,040 81
do	do	do	do	1870.....	1,759,299 14
do	do	do	do	1877.....	4,860,000 00
do	do	do	do	1878.....	428,000 00
do	do	do	do	1879.....	400,000 00
do	do	do	do	1882..... ..	787,000 00
do	Bank Charter Loans.....				360,937 0
do	Relief notes in circulation.....				97,251 0
	Total old debt.....				$36,374,431 24
do	Military Loan due in 1871.....				3,000,000 00
	Total funded and unfunded as above.....				$39,374,431 24

The above debt, not including the military loan, was contracted chiefly for the construction of the public works (since sold), and subscriptions to corporate stocks, &c. The following shows the amounts invested in these works, and held by the State on the 31st December, 1864:

Canal and navigation stocks	$333,807 47
Railroad stocks	181,647 15
Turnpike stocks	1,230,367 00
Bridge stocks	9,000 00
Total	$1,754,321 62

The construction of the Pennsylvania canals and railroads cost the State a total of $35,099,085.91, of which amount about $18,615,668 belongs to the cost of the main line of the public improvements from Philadelphia to Pittsburg, which line was sold to the Pennsylvania Railroad Company under the act of May 15, 1857, for the sum of $7,500,000, for which amount bonds of the said company have been deposited in the State Treasury, and seven annual installments of $100,000 each been redeemed, leaving on deposit 6,800,000 00

And the remainder of the cost as above, viz: $10,985,569.61 belongs to the construction of the Delaware Division of canal, Susquehanna Division, Old North Branch Division, North Branch Extension, West Branch Division and West Branch Extension of the Pennsylvania canals; which canals were disposed to the Sunbury and Erie Railroad Company for the sum of $3,500,000 under the act of April 21, 1858, bonds for said amount having been deposited in the sinking fund 3,500,000 00

Total stocks and bonds held by State $12,054,321 62

—being about one third the total cost of the original investment.

The Sunbury and Erie Railroad Company, after coming in possession of said canals disposed of several of the lines as enumerated above, at an excess over the amount estimated by said company of $281,250, which amount has been paid by the Wyoming Canal Company, its successor in part, into the State Treasury.

The mortgage securing the payment of the $3,500,000 purchase money of the canals by the Sunbury and Erie Railroad Company was surrendered to said company, agreeably to the act of March 7, 1861, and $4,000 000 of bonds of said company were deposited as collateral security for the payment of the original $3,500,000 of bonds still in the sinking fund, and a mortgage of $4,000,000 was also given to the State by said company to secure the payment of the said bonds for $4,000,000 as required by the third section of the said act.

VALUATION AND TAXATION.

The following table shows the valuation and taxation of the Commonwealth for 1860–64, five years:

Years.	Valuation.	Taxation.	War tax.	Taxable
1860	$565,770,231	$1,482,643	.....	6[illegible]3,514
1861	569,049,867	1,479,378	.....	642,463
1862	569,049,867	1,479,378	281,789	681,452
1863	586,096,619	1,523,851	293,048	662,927
1864	595,591,994	1,545,644	294,860	675,681

The above amount of taxation for general purposes indicates a rate of about [illegible] and for the special tax a rate of 50c. per $1,000 of the

valuation. The valuation for taxing purposes, however, is much lower than the real or marketable value, the true or estimated value according to the United States census of 1860 having been $1,416,501,818, or nearly two and-a-half times the value assessed in 1864. The rate of taxation for general purposes is therefore actually reduced to $1 on each $1,000 valued, and for the special tax only 20 cents on each $1,000. The taxation per capita of the population is less than 50 cents, the population in 1860 having been 2,906,115, and is now probably over 3,000,000.

INCOME.

The income of Pennsylvania, however, is not wholly derived from assessments on lands and property, but is largely made up of taxes on bank dividends, on corporation stocks, on loans, collateral inheritances, tonnage, etc., tavern and retailers' licenses, etc. In all forty-four heads of resources are enumerated in the accounts for the year ending November 30, 1864. Of these the following are the most important:

Lands	$90,088 38
Auction commissions and duties	70,217 58
Tax on bank dividends	405,399 98
Tax on corporation stocks	638,292 92
Tax on real and personal estate	1,621,718 80
Tax on loans	145,859 83
Tonnage tax and commutation of	558,747 03
Collateral inheritance tax	239,881 77
Tavern licenses	238,261 24
Retailers' licenses	245,400 65
All other receipts (including Pennsylvania Railroad Co's bond No. 7, $100,000 redeemed)	459,444 84
Total income 1864	$4,733,313 03

EXPENSES.

The principal expenditures were for government, military, charitable institutions, schools, redemption and interest on debt, repelling rebel raid, relief of Chambersburg sufferers, public buildings, prisons, &c. The items in 1864 numbered forty-five, of which the following are the largest:

Expenses of government	$600,021 46
Military expenses (items 2 to 19)	252,672 66
Charitable institutions	170,718 21
Common schools	348,897 37
Redemption of debt, &c.	122,090 20
Interest on loans	2,485,878 84
Expenses of rebel raid	718,419 61
Relief of Chambersburg sufferers	100,000 00
Public buildings and grounds	14,142 49
Houses of Refuge	47,050 00
Penitentiaries	40,580 00
All other disbursements	93,470 25
Total disbursements, 1864	$4,938,441 09

—being about $205,000 in excess of the income of the same year. It must be noted, however, that at least $1,000,000 were disbursed for extraordinary purposes, viz: military expenses, the rebel raid and Chambersburg relief, etc., showing clearly that in ordinary times the Commonwealth's resources are ample for all the requirements of current demands, and the

eventual redemption of its debt, without increasing the present uncommonly low rated taxation which obtains in the State. Including balances from former years the accounts for 1864 stand thus:

Balance in Treasury December 1, 1863	$2,188,361 70
Collections in year ending Nov. 30, 1864	4,733,313 02
Total resources of Treasury	$6,921,676 72
Disbursements from December 1, 1863, to November 30, 1864	4,938,441 09
Balance in Treasury Nov. 30, 1864	$1,983,235 63

From the above it does not appear that the recent war has injuriously affected the Commonwealth. The taxable valuation has increased largely within the five years last past, and without increasing the rates, taxes have been ample. The only aid, indeed, required beyond the ordinary resources of the State, has been the military loan of $3,000,000; but between 1860 and 1864 the old debt has decreased from $38,638,961, to $36,374,431—a decrease of $2,264,530.

ANALYSES OF RAILROAD REPORTS. NO. I.

CHICAGO AND ROCK ISLAND RAILROAD.

This railroad crosses the State of Illinois in a general east and west direction, the

	Miles.
Main line, extending from Chicago to Rock Island	181.8
And the Peoria & Bureau Valley R. R. (leased), or as no w called the Peoria Branch, from Bureau Junction to Peoria	46.6
Total length of railroad operated by company	228.4

Leaving Chicago in a southwest direction the road passes through Cook and Will counties to Joliet, and thence continues nearly west through Grundy, La Salle, Bureau, Henry, and Rock Island counties to the Mississippi, which it crosses by a railroad bridge and connects with the Mississippi and Missouri Railroad, the main line of which is now completed to Des Moines City, 170 miles, and the branch from Wilton via Muscatine to Washington, 52 miles. The Peoria Branch has its course through Bureau, Putnam, Marshall and Peoria counties; and at Peoria connects with the Illinois River Railroad. The Toledo, Peoria and Warsaw Railroad also connects with the line at Peoria, and is continued to Burlington by the Peoria division of the Chicago, Burlington and Quincy Railroad. The main line in its course between Chicago and Rock Island is intersected by the Chicago and Alton Railroad at Joliet, the Illinois Central Railroad at La Salle, and the Chicago, Burlington and Quincy Railroad at Tiskilwa, respectively 40, 99 and 122 miles from Chicago.

The country through which the line passes is one of the best populated, richest and most developed portions of the State, and is distinguished alike for its agricultural and mineral resources, coal of the finest quality being found along the whole line. The progress of this section of country, embracing twelve of the best counties in Illinois, in population, improvements, live stock, crops, &c., between 1850 and 1860, is shown in the following table:

	1850.	1860.	Increase.
Population	139,307	383,058	175.0 p. c.
Improved Lands	743,880	2,161,088	190.5 "
Value of Farms, &c	15,254,757	10,756 670	368.8 "
Horses, &c	29,872	82 463	176.1 "
Neat Cattle	118,225	238,773	101.9 "
Sheep	103,441	41,274	Decrease.
Swine	125.064	149,488	35.5 p. c.
Wheat	1,754,723	3,949,365	125.1 "
Indian Corn	5,200,671	14,558,234	179.9 "
Oats and Rye	1,575,425	4,244,344	160.9 "
Hay	170,391	491,311	189.3 "

The above, however, represents the counties only through which the road passes. To these ought to be added, in order to include all the territory in Illinois tributary to the road, at least twice the numbers, quantities, and values, as here shown; and even then the resources of the road would not be wholly told, as it drains a strip of territory in Iowa of equal extent, if not yet so densely populated or so fully developed. The territory in both States produces also large quantities of wool, butter, cheese, tobacco, &c., and several important manufactures, by the movement of which the railroad is largely benefitted. A new census of both States was taken during the past summer, but as yet the results are only partially published. As far as these go, they exhibit a continuance of increase in population, development and production, equalling if not surpassing the rate shown to have taken place between 1850 and 1860. This increase has thrown a large trade on the railroads and demanded constant additions to their means of transportation.

But in estimating the resources of the line, we must also take into account its eastern terminus at Chicago, the metropolis of that great inland sea navigation which commands the bulk of the commerce both by water and road which is constantly flowing west. Here the road delivers its eastern bound freights, and receives in return an ever increasing return from the eastern commercial and manufacturing States. In this light, it may be said that the prosperity of the road depends for its continuance as much or more on its foreign than its immediate resources.

The *mileage of engines* with trains for the past five years, ending March 31, 1865, is shown in the following summary:

	1860-1 Year.	1861-2 9 Mos.	1862-3 Year.	1863-4 Year.	1864-5 Year.
Miles run by engines with Passeng'r Trains	349 535	264.665	354 267	348,818	347,592
Freight Trains	437.269	434,659	579.115	724,008	783,056
Wood and Gravel Trains	92,853	66,635	97,502	90,004	82,014
Total	879,657	765,949	1,030,884	1,162,830	1,212,656

The number of *passengers* and tons of *freight* carried, and the aggregate mileage thereof for the same years was as follows:

	1861	1862 (9 months.)	1863	1864	1865
Passengers carried	109,718	148,829	253,244	324,244	463,866
" " one mile	11,297,283	8,829,401	14,206,292	20,401,500	29,898,967
Tons (2,000 lbs.) carried	301,669	285,144	379,879	441,510	472,557
" " car'd one mile			38,553,462	56,539,150	63,413,831

The *business* of the Chicago and Rock Island Railroad with Iowa is shown by the number of cars and their tonnage crossing the Mississippi Bridge in each year as follows:

Years Ending	Loaded cars—East.	Loaded cars—West.	Loaded cars—Total.	Tonnage (2,000 lbs)—East.	Tonnage (2,000 lbs)—West.	Tonnage (2,000 lbs)—Total.
1861, June 30	7,277	6,925	14,202	62,753	46,360	109,113
1862, March 31 (9 months)	8,460	4,794	13,254	67,019	32,427	99,446
1863, "	8,306	5,866	14,172	71,542	39,089	110,631
1864, "	10,116	7,998	18,114	89,914	56,741	146,655
1865, "	9,913	10,109	20,022	81,157	68,844	150,001

The following statement shows the *earnings* and *disbursements* for the same years:

	1860-1	1861-2 (9 months)	1862-3	1863-4	1864-5
Earnings—Passengers	$338,112	$254,071	$433,297	$643,735	$1,021,790
" Freight	784,023	787,144	1,094,850	1,447,995	2,222,389
" Mails, &c	41,883	43,489	60,994	57,135	115,302
Total earnings	$1,164,018	$1,084,704	$1,589,141	$2,142,875	$3,350,391
Operating expenses	708,054	531,387	800,987	1,040,461	1,467,662
Profits	$455,964	$522,317	$788,154	$1,102,413	$1,891,789
From which were paid on account of P. & B. V R. R. Lease	125,000	125,000	125,000	125,000	125,000
U. S. tax on passenger earnings	.....	.....	5,353	16,415	64,779
Illinois taxes on real estate	32,615	11,409	35,001	36,978	54,218
Legal expenses	.....	2,297	2,908	4,061	5,666
Extraordinary repairs	53,868	35,875	45,791	97,754	68,199
Interest on bonds C. & R. I. R. R.	97,790	97,790	100,135	102,690	102,332
Interest on bridge bonds	.....	.....	.....	22,264	60,000
Dividends on stock	.....	168,090	338,289	342,426	375,041
Loss on Illinois currency	26,557	.....	.....	.....	.....
	$335,834	$440,451	$653,426	$721,371	$885,689
Balance to credit of income	$120,140	$82,866	$74,726	$382,142	$1,005,200

The general *results of operations* for each fiscal year since the completion of the road, in July, 1864, are shown in thefollowing statement:

Fiscal Year	Gross Earnings	Operat'g and * Repairs	Profits of Busin's	Charges against profits—Lease, Taxes & other	Int'st on Bonds	Divid's on Stock	Balance to Credit
1854-55	$1,242,906	* $606,414	$636,492	$.....	$137,970	$313,671	$174,851
1855-56	1,416,804	* 653,497	763,307	125,000	137,970	280,165	169,672
1856-57	1,886,196	*1,036,157	850,039	125,000	137,970	{447,610 / 503,000}	139,459
1857-58	1,407,846	* 778,617	629,229	125,000	99,715	.....	404,514
1858-59	889,300	537,664	351,636	161,157	97,790	.....	92,685
1859-60	1,093,934	622 661	471,273	161,705	97,790	167,897	44,181
1860-61	1,164,018	708,054	455,964	227,084	97,790	.....	130,149
1861-62 (9 months)	1,054,704	531,387	523,317	174,571	97,790	168,090	82,866
1862-63	1,529,141	800,987	728,154	215,054	100,135	338,289	74,726
1863-64	2,143,875	1,040,461	1,103,413	275,143	102,690	342,426	382,142
1864-65	3,350,391	1,467,662	1,891,709	357,866	102,532	375,041	1,056,269
Dividend (5 per cent) paid in April, 1865						315,789	740,851

The *financial condition* of the Company, as shown in General Account at the close of the fiscal years 1860–61 to 1864–65 was as follows:

	1860-61	1861-62	1862-3	1863-64	1864-65
Capital stock	$5,603,000	$5,603,000	$5,603,000	$6,603,000	$6,603,000
Mortgage bonds	1,397,000	1,397,000	1,397,000	1,397,000	1,397,000
Income bonds	.....	.....	70,000	70,000	53,300
Sundries	151	4,796	12,078	.....	.....
Bal. of income	421,703	540,444	660,991	977,522	2,094,092
Total	$7,421,854	$7,545,240	$7,743,069	$8,444,522	$9,444,392
Road & Equipm't	$6,987,710	$7,022,936	$7,069,727	$7,422,426	$7,804,926
Fuel and Materi'ls	89,957	60,154	62,268	156,978	297,289
Company's stock	101,500	101,500	101,500	.....	.....
Miss. & Mo. R R. Company	.....	.....	.....	116,250	500,000
Miss. Bridge Co.	.....	20,000	20,000	.....	.....
Assets and dues	2,720	.....	279,714	116,373	245,739
Cash	239,967	187,090	209,860	635,709	726,660
Total	$7,421,854	$7,545,240	$7,743,069	$8,444,522	$9,494,573

* Including taxes on real estate, etc.

The following exhibits the changes in the General Account for the eleven years ending March 31, 1865:

Close of Year.	Stock. Shares.	Company's Bonds.	Other Liabilities.	Bal of Income.	Balance. Total.	Cost of r'd & equip'ts
Jan. 1, 1855	$3,141,500	$1,971,000	$156.136	.. ....	$5,268.656	$5,003,521
Jun. 30,1856	4,029,000	1,971,000	114 085	$497,280	6,611,365	6,048,235
" 1857	5,248,000	1,452,000	149,185	133,139	6,982,318	6,628,273
" 1858	5,603,000	1,397,000	5,650	537,458	7,543,104	6,776,119
" 1859	5,603,000	1,397,000	5, 350	630,138	7,635,788	6,776,119
" 1860	5,603,000	1,397,000	4,731	432,318	7,437,049	6,913,554
" 1861	5,603,000	1,397,000	151	421,703	7,421,854	6,987,710
Mar.31,1862	5,603,000	1,397,000	4,796	540,444	7,545,220	7,023,936
" 1863	5,603,000	1,467,000	12,078	660,961	7,743,039	7,023,936
" 1864	6,000,000	1,467,000	.....	977,882	8,444,882	7,429,632
" 1865	6,000,000	1,450,500	.....	2,034,062	9,484,562	7,804,928

From the series of tables given above, the following statement, showing the cost per mile of road, the earnings and expenses per mile, the ratio of expenses to earnings, the rate of dividends, and the per centage of the annual surplus to the company's stock, is constructed:

Total Years.	Cost of R'ds, &c. per mile	—Earnings per mile.— Earn's.	Expen's.	Prof's	Expen's to Earn's. p. c.	Div's on st'k. p. c.	Surplus to st'k p. c.
1854-55	$27,522	$5,449	$2,645	$2,797	48.60	2 cash	5.57
1855-56	33,268	6,201	2,861	3,340	46.14	10 "	2.72
1856-57	36,459	8,258	4,537	3,721	54.94	10 " 12½ sto'k	2.66
1857-58	37,372	6,164	3,410	2,754	55.32	*Nil*	7.21
1858-59	37,372	3,893	2,354	1,539	60.47	"	1.65
1859-60	38,028	4,789	2,726	2,063	56.97	3 cash	0.79
1860-61	38,436	5,096	3,100	1,996	60.82	*Nil*	2.14
1861-62 (9 months)	38,636	4,617	2,326	2.291	50 38	3 cash	1.48
1862-63	38,636	6,695	3,705	2,990	52.38	6 "	1.33
1863-64	40,867	9,386	4,556	4,830	48,53	6 "	6.37
1864-65	42,332	14,669	6,426	8,243	43.81	6 "	12.34
Dividend						5 "	

The following exhibits the rates at which the stock of this company has been sold in each month of the five years ending with June, 1865:

	1860-61.	1861-62.	1862-63.	1863-64.	1864-65.
July	70⅛@71⅛	34 @45	60¼@ 68⅜	90½@101	107¼@114
August	79 @84½	37½@41½	62⅝@ 69½	100 @114	109½@114½
September	77½@82½	41½@46	66½@ 78½	103½@112½	95 @109⅝
October	60 @77½	45½@53	77½@ 85½	108½@114½	85½@ 97
November	50 @66	51 @58½	77⅝@ 83½	104 @113½	99 @110
December	42⅜@54	44½@54½	77½@ 82½	104½@109½	101½@108½
January	52 @62	50 @55⅝	86½@ 96½	122½@149⅜	89½@104½
February	52½@61½	52½@57	88⅝@ 95	117½@114½	90 @ 97½
March	56 @61	55 @59½	90 @ 95	119½@127½	85½@ 93½
April	34 @58	58½@56½	91½@ 96½	110 @134	83⅝@104
May	30½@39	54 @66	97½@112½	105 @119	91½@103⅝
June	32½@36½	62½@69½	92 @107	110 @117½	97⅝@103
Year	30 @84½	34 @69½	60½@112½	90½@149⅜	85½@114½

The Chicago and Rock Island Railroad Company was chartered under the title of the Rock Island and La Salle Railroad Company, February 27, 1847, with authority to construct a railroad from Rock Island City, on the Mississippi, to La Salle, at the southern end of the Illinois and Michigan Canal. In 1851 (Feb. 7,) the Legislature authorized the extension of the road from La Salle to Chicago, and changed the legal title of the company to its present designation, under which a new organization was formed Feb. 8, 1852.

All the surveys of the route had been completed in 1850 and 1851, and in September (6th) of the latter year a contract was concluded for

the construction and equipment of the whole line for $3,987,688, payable $2,000,000 in 7 per cent first mortgage bonds, $500,000 in cash, and the remainder in 10 per cent certificates, convertible into stock on the completion of the road. The contractors also bound themselves to operate the road as completed, and to receive as full compensation for their services the earnings, out of which, however, they stipulated to pay the interest on the bonds issued in their favor.

Construction was commenced at once the first spade having been driven on the 1st Oct. 1851, and the road opened by sections as follows: from Chicago to a junction with the Northern Indiana Railroad, 6 miles, in December, 1851; to Joliet, 40 miles, in October, 1852; to Ottowa, 84 miles, in February; to La Salle, 99 miles, in March, and to Geneseo, 158 miles, in November, 1853, and to Rock Island, 181.8 miles, on the 22d February, 1854. The whole line was completed and accepted by the company July 10, 1854, about 18 months earlier than their contract required.

In 1854 a contract of perpetual lease was made with the Peoria and Bureau Valley Railroad Company, under which the Chicago and Rock Island Company obligated themselves to pay $125,000 a year for the use of their road. Possession was taken in July, 1855, and the line has since been run in connection with the main line.

The Rock Island Bridge was completed and opened for traffic, April 1, 1856. This bridge which connects the Illinois and Iowa shores was constructed by a separate company representing conjointly the Chicago and Rock Island and the Mississippi and Missouri Railroad Companies, which furnished the guaranteed capital and the bonds issued therefor.

The Chicago and Rock Island Company has also agreements with the Mississippi and Missouri and the Illinois River Railroad Companies, under which these two roads are operated under its immediate direction, but at the expense of the respective companies.

The Chicago and Rock Island Company commenced its career under very favorable auspices, and at first paid large dividends. The financial storm of 1857, however, materially injured its revenue, and this having been followed by years of short crops, its earnings which in the fiscal year 1856–57had been $1,886,196 had declined in 1858–59 to $889,300. In 1859–60 it commenced recuperation, and during the war received an impulse which resulted in replacing it in an unquestionable financial position.

CLEVELAND AND PITTSBURG RAILROAD.

The Cleveland and Pittsburgh Railroad consists of a main line and several extensions, which may be described as follows:

			Miles.
Main line		Cleveland to Wellsville	101
Tuscarawas Extension		Bayard to New Philadelphia	32
Hanover Branch		H. Junction to Hanover	1¼
Beaver Extension	River Line	Wellsville to Rochester	22
Wheeling Extension	River Line	Yellow Creek to Belair	47
Total length of railroad owned by company			203¼
Pittsburgh, Fort Wayne, and Chicago Railroad, Rochester to Pittsburgh, used under lease, ($85,000 per annum)			26

The main line of this road extends in a southeasterly direction from Cleveland on Lake Erie, to Wellsville on tne Ohio River. The Beaver and Wheeling extensions, forming what is now called the River line, follow closely the bank of the Ohio, connecting on the east with the Pittsburg, Fort Wayne and Chicago Railroad, and on the southwest with the Baltimore and Ohio, the Central Ohio and the not yet completed river section of the Marietta and Cincinnati railroads. The Tuscarawas extension taps the rich coal fields of the Tuscarawas Valley, and is a valuable tributary to the main line. The only other tributary of the main line is the Cleveland, Zanesville and Cincinnati Railroad, which extends from Hudson to Millersburg. At Alliance the main line is crossed by the Pittsburg, Fort Wayne and Chicago Railroad, and at Ravenna by the Atlantic and Great Western Railroad; but neither of these roads contributes any thing to the traffic of the line at these points, and the same may be said of the Pittsburg, Columbus and Cincinnati line which intersects the Wheeling extension at Steubenville. It thus appears that this road is singularly destitute of feeders on its main line, having but two comparatively insignificant ones, and none on the river line except at the two termini. The Tuscarawas extension, however, has a small feeder in the Carrollton Branch Railroad which uses the six miles next to Bayard. Cleveland, at its northern terminus, is, after Buffalo, the largest port on Lake Erie, and uses this road in its trade with Pittsburg and Baltimore. It is also the chief depot of the coal trade of the road. Wellsville, at the southeastern end of the line, has a considerable river trade, but Pittsburg and Wheeling are the actual termini of the road, and the only points through which seaboard traffic is brought to the line. The intermediate towns are none of them large, but several are extensively engaged in manufacturing, and form so many agricultural centres, which furnish the line with proportional amount of traffic.

The country through which the several lines pass is one of the best cultivated and most productive in Ohio and rich in coal and iron. Leaving Cleveland in Cuyahoga county, the road passes through or near to the counties of Summit, Portage, Starr, Mahoning, Columbiana, Carroll, Jefferson and Belmont, to Wheeling. In Pennsylvania, it traverses the centre of Beaver county, and by the leased line the county of Alleghany to Pittsburg, where it connects with the Pennsylvania Central Railroad and the other railroads converging on that city.

It may here be observed, however, that the traffic of the Cleveland and Pittsburg Railroad is greatly modified by the stage of water in the Ohio River. During the winter season the water is frozen up, while in summer, navigation is suspended for want of sufficient flood. During these periods the River Line must make its chief harvest, for when the spring and fall freshets come, a great portion of the traffic which otherwise would take the road is carried by steamers which ply between Pittsburg and the lower river ports at cheap rates. Thus September, October, and November, (sometimes extending into December), are comparatively slack times on the railroad, but periods of great activity on the river; and so after the breaking up of the ice to the drying up of the stream.

The number of *locomotives* and *cars* on the road at the end of each of the four years 1861, 1862, 1863, and 1864, was as follows:

	1861.	1862.	1863.	1864.
Locomotives	45	46	52	56
Passenger cars	30	31	31	28
Freight cars	769	769	962	1,158
Mail and baggage cars	18	20	20	20
Other cars	109—1,196	95—915	95—1,108	98—1,304

The following shows the *mileage of engines* hauling trains, the mileage of cars, and the passenger and tonnage mileage for the same years:

	1861.	1862.	1863.	1864.
Mileage of engines	800,525	877,869	1,118,167	1,2 6,812
" cars	8,756,982	9,814,531	10,568,425	10,617,653
" passengers	14,7:3 912	16,786,092	22.695,974	not stated.
" useful tonnage	41,545,830	49,454,799	56,125,984	59,8?3,?83

Included in the tonnage was coal and iron ore, as follows:

	1861.	1862.	1863.	1864.
Tons of coal	not stated.	109,098	158,445	183,848
" iron	19,831	22,001	40,2?0	69,255

The gross earnings and payments for the same years were as follows:

	1861.	1862.	1863.	1864.
Gross earnings	$1,114,941	$1,486,317	$1,910,084	$2,5?2,?15
Operating expenses	616,?35	662,065	874,?30	1,505,636
Profits	$498,606	$774,252	$1,035,304	$1,006,679

Against which was charged the following:

Pitts., Ft. Wayne, & Chic., lease	$85,000	$85,000	$85,000	$85,003
do. div. of earn'gs	.....	.....	.....	102,689
Interest on bonds	318,290	249,517	319,687	282,160
General interest and exchange	6 781	32,651	24,189	6,947
River line certificates and interest	.....	.....	98,709	.....
Dividends	.....	.....	155,044	320,606
Total	$410,071	$367,168	$682,629	$797,407
Leaving	$88,535	$407,084	$352,675	$209,272

—which has been nearly used up in renewals and construction.

Statement of gross earnings, operating expenses, and profits on account of working the road for the fiscal years 1855–64, both inclusive:

Year ending—	Gross Earnings. Passengers.	Freight.	Other.	Total.	Expenses. Amount.	Rate.	Profits from earnings.
Nov.30. 1855	$304,041	$350,799	$27,038	$681,978	$272,359	46.81	$3 9.519
" 1856	206,739	394,055	29,178	629,972	296.630	45.94	331,343
" 1857	290,554	413,209	36,161	739,924	443,957	60.00	295,967
" 1858	302,216	421,749	48,128	772,093	439,999	56 99	333,094
" 1859	334,988	533,003	49,719	906,710	514,228	56.64	392,48?
" 1860	366,851	601,992	52,305	1,020,688	564,497	55.31	456,141
" 1861	376,936	682,254	55,751	1,114,941	616,235	55.28	498,606
" 1862	435,527	930,410	70,380	1,486,317	662,065	45.09	774,252
" 1863	611,990	1,204,459	93,605	1,910,084	874,?30	45.?9	1,035,304
" 1864	882,891	1,571,155	108,389	2,512,?15	1,505,636	59.98	1,006,679

The following abstract exhibits the financial condition of the company at the close of the years 1861, '62, '63 and '64, respectively:

	1861.	1863	1863	1864
Construction	$8,172,140	$7,771,062	$7,816,140	$8,454,040
Personal property	29,818	48,118	29,118	29,083
Telegraph	16,914	16,914	16,914	16,914
Real estate	171,765	389,192	13,080	17,685
Machinery and tools			36,780	58,242
Shop materials			54,028	84,348
Cash and cash assets			186,508	83,678
Balance of personal accounts	22,777	26,360	128,271	32,362
Total	$8,412,914	$8,251,647	$8,281,739	$8,776,352

Stock and scrip	$3,846,324	$3,832,712	$3,836,392	$4,266,988
First mortgage bonds	800,000	800,000	.....	.....
Second do do	1,189,000	1,189,000	1,189,000	1,157,000
Third do do	1,166,000	1,166,000	1,965,500	1,728,500
Fourth do do	793,120	1,059,028	1,105,084	1,108,740
River Line bonds	145,000	20,000		4,000
Dividend do	123,017	75,078	45,201	24,811
Income do	15,500	15,500		3,500
Bills payable	334,953	94,329	4,527	134,847
Balance net earnings	.....	.....	136,035	348,466
Total	$8,412,914	$8,251,647	$8,281,739	$8,776,352

Statement showing the amount of stock, bonds, and debt outstanding, and the cost of the property of the Company at the close of the fiscal years 1855, '64, both inclusive:

Fiscal year Ending—	Capital account— Shares.	Bonds	Debt.	Total.	Cost of Road & Equipm'ts
Nov. 30, 1855	$2 8 0.785	$2.750 312	$293 679	$5.924,776	$5,587,467
" 1856	3,976,>14	3.887.800	3:5.449	8.170.063	7,[illegible]35 140
" 1>57	4,08>.878	4.925.462	677.7:0	9.686 050	9 442 609
" 1858	3,992,196	4,918,325	653,921	9,564,842	9.320.289
" 1859	No statement published.				No statement.
" 1860					
" 1861	3.846 324	4.231,687	334,953	8,412.914	8.218 373
" 1862	3.832.712	4.824,606	94,329	8,251,647	7.986.095
" 1863	3,836.892	4,304.785	4,527	8,145,704	7.911.984
" 1864	4,266,988	4 026,551	134,847	8,427,836	8,67>,963

Reducing the above tables to proportions, we find the cost of road and earnings and expenses per mile to have been as follows:

Years.	Miles of road.	Cost of R'd per mile.	Earn'gs per mile.	Expenses per mile.	Profits per mile.
1854-55	158 5	$41,4 9	$4,358	$2,040	$2,318
1855-56	173.0	45.290	3,641	1,726	1,915
1856-57	203.5	46,997	3,636	2,181	1,455
1857-58	203 5	45,897	3,794	2,162	1,632
1858-59	203.5	no state-	4,453	2,526	1,927
1859-60	203.5	ments.	5,015	2,774	2,241
1860-61	203.5	40,484	6,478	3,028	2,450
1861-62	203.5	38,526	7,058	3,253	3,805
1862-63	203.5	38,923	9,386	4,298	5,088
1863-64	203.5	43,714	12,341	7,398	4,943

The following table shows the prices at which the stock of the company has sold at the Brokers' Board at New York for each month of the years 1860-64 inclusive:

	1860.	1861.	1862.	1863.	1864.
January....	6¾@ 7	9 @10¾	15¾@16½	56½@ 73	105 @120
February ..	7½@ 7½	8 @ 9½	16 @18½	65 @ 73½	110½@119¾
March	5 @ 6	9 @ 9½	17½@20½	64 @ 73	114¾@126¾
April	5½@ 7½	8 @ 9	17 @18½	67½@ 84	104 @132
May.....	7 @12½	7 @ 7	18½@23½	82 @108	110½@117½
June	8 @10½	7 @ 7	21½@24	80 @ 97½	110½@116
July	8½@11	7 @ 9	21 @23¾	82¾@ 97½	106 @114¾
August	10½@12	6½@ 7	21¾@25½	93½@105	110 @114
September .	10½@15½	7 @10	24 @ 6½	91 @102¾	105½@117¾
October....	11¾@15¾	10¾@12½	34½@43	100½@115	90 @107
November .	9 @13	11½@14	26½@42	92½@112½	102 @109
December..	8½@ 9	12 @17	40 @59	100½@109½	91½@113
Year . . .	5 @15½	6½@17	15¾@59	56½@115	90 @132

The Cleveland & Pittsburg Railroad Company was originally chartered by the Legislature of Ohio, March 14, 1836. This charter having lapsed for want of use, a second charter was granted, March 11, 1845. The surveys for the road were made during the two following years, and the final location determined on in July, 1848. The work on the main line was soon thereafter commenced, and the first section from Cleveland to Ravenna, 38 miles, completed and opened for traffic on the 18th March, 1851. The second section thence to Hanover Junction, 75 miles from Cleveland, was opened on the 5th November following, and the whole line to Wellsville, 101 miles, on the 4th March, 1852. The Hanover Branch was completed in the same year.

The first years of operations were very profitable to the company. An 8 per cent dividend was paid in January, 1852, from the earnings made prior to that date, and a dividend of 5 per cent from the earnings from January to July, both paid in scrip. Dividends were also paid in January and July, 1853, of 6 and 5 per cent respectively.

The extensions were completed as follows:

The Tuscarawas extension from Bayard to Oneida 6 miles, on the 25th May, 1853; to Waynesburg 12 miles on the 1st January, to Canal Dover 29 miles on the 7th September, and to New Philadelphia 32 miles, on the 1st December, 1854.

The Beaver and Wheeling extensions were authorized by subsequent acts of the Legislature, and were both brought into use in October, 1856. In order to get to Pittsburg, a portion of the Pittsburg, Fort Wayne and Chicago Railroad was leased by the Company. This lease under various modifications is still held by the Company for which they pay $85,000 a year. By the latest modification they are allowed to take up passengers and freight at way stations which had not been conceded previously.

The prosperity which marked the first years of the Company had now collapsed, and an era of financial difficulties supervened. In the construction of the extensions, a large floating debt had been contracted. The demand for rolling stock and construction also continued excessive. Indeed, such had become the condition of the company as to lead the stockholders to believe that their interests had become worthless. The market prices of shares fell to 5 per cent of their par value. Under these circumstances, the property was placed in the hands of a receiver under whom the road was operated with such ability as to restore its credit, and when in June, 1863, after three years service, he returned the

property to the company the assets were far in advance of its outstanding indebtedness, and in October of the same year a dividend of 4 per cent in cash, the first in ten years, was declared and paid. Dividends were also paid in April and October, 1864. Since then the demands for additional rolling stock to meet the growing traffic of the Company has been so large as to require the whole of the net earnings for its purchase.

Under an arrangement entered into with the Pittsburg, Fort Wayne and Chicago Railroad Company, and which went into operation, April 1, 1863, the two companies are operated under a single superintendency, and the gross earnings of the two companies divided on the basis of 26½ per cent to the Cleveland and Pittsburg Company, and 73½ per cent to the Fort Wayne Company, each Company keeping up its own property and paying operating expenses. By this arrangement, not the least valuable consideration is the breaking up of all competition between the two lines.

CLEVELAND AND TOLEDO RAILROAD.

THE Cleveland and Toledo Railroad consists of two divisions as follows:

Northern Division—Cleveland to Sandusky	60.0 miles.
Southern Division—Toledo to Grafton (C. C. & C. R. R)	87.5 "
Total length of road owned by Company	147.5 miles.
Cleveland, Columbus and Cincinnati Railroad, from Grafton to Cleveland, leased ($66,000 per annum)	25 0 miles.
Total length operated by Company	172.5 miles.

This road forms, in its Southern Division, a link in the great Lake Shore Line, extending from Buffalo, N. Y., to Chicago, Ill., a length of 528 miles; passing through Dunkirk, Erie, Cleveland Grafton, Monroeville, Clyde, Toledo, Elkhart, La Porte, etc., at all of which places it connects with other important lines, and is carried through to the Mississippi by numerous independent prolongations. The Northern Division formerly (from the Fall of 1863 to the end of 1858,) extended beyond Sandusky to a connection with the Southern Division at Clay Junction, eight miles east of Toledo; but this portion of the road (39 miles long) having become financially a burden to the Company was taken up. The country traversed by the Cleveland and Toledo Railroad is well settled, and has many flourishing towns. Cleveland, Sandusky and Toledo are the chief lake ports in Ohio, and three of its most prosperous cities. The growth of these in population and business has been wonderful. But in these elements they have scarcely surpassed the country in material development. The local traffic of this road from year to year measures this development, while the through traffic gives some idea of the rapid strides made by the Great West beyond its immediate tributary area.

The *Rolling Stock* of the road is seen by the following statement of the engines and cars on the road at the end of the last five years:

	1860–61	1861–62	1862–63	1863–64	'64–5
Engines	32	32	32	37	37
Passenger and mail cars	61	61	56	54	54
Freight cars	362	393	479	636	638
Total cars	423	454	535	690	692

—not including the gravel and working cars.

The *business* of the road is shown in the two tables given below. The first is a statement of the number of *passengers* carried, and the direction of travel from the commencement of operations Dec. 30, 1852, as follows:

Business Years.	Eastward Thro'	Eastward Way.	Westward Thro'	Westward Way.	Total Passeng's.	Pas. Carried One mile
1852-53 (8 mos.)	24,115½	50,367½	23 878	51,243½	149,609½	7,498,472
1853-54 (9 mos.)	52 153½	84 890	70,262½	93 797½	301,103½	15,490,588
1854-55	71,522½	120,118	112,833	133,766½	428,240	22,815,494½
1855-56	70,867½	121,302½	135,761	125,021	453 012	26,693,779
1856-57 (11 mos.)	67.278	110,603½	110,682½	110,495½	399,059½	26,899,953½
1857-58	56 496½	96,730	93,584	98,914½	345,725	23,299,134
1858-59	46,275½	88,114	58,672½	86,163½	279,225½	17,444 604½
1859-60	43,929	76,129	52,201½	74 219	246,478½	14,894,632
1860-61	45,313½	82,531½	55.345½	84.573½	267,664	16,758,533
1861-62	46,554	82,621½	49,059	97,195½	257,430	15,909,705
1862-63	64,643	98,096	60,793	100,327	323,859	20,650,278
1863-64	82,063	142,609	93,130	146,546	464,348	28,498,322
1863-65	122,008	164,007	134,772	165,335	586,172	36,133,349

During the same period the *freight* tonnage and the direction of the traffic has been as follows:

Business Years.	Eastward Thro'	Eastward Way.	Westward Thro'	Westward Way.	Total Ton'ge.	T'ns c'r'd One mile
1852-53 (8 mos.)	639	2,824	1,995	4,095	9,453	478,308
1853-54 (9 mos.)	2.294	10,503	9,620	9,198	31,605	1,675,736
1854-55	20,037	25,203	1[illegible],978	16,254	80,472	4,856,859
1855-56	20,870	29,043	32,910	26,429	109,252	6,988,736
1856 57 (11 mos.)	22.358	44 754	45,764	32 790	145,666	11,455 229
1857-58	45,048	41,063	28,136	28,114	142,361	11,694,290
1858-59	58 423	33,009	30,416	23,040	144,888	12,226,513
1859-60	94,678	54,929	41,807	29,599	221,013	19,234,697
1860-61	115.3 2	54,706	49,808	30,657	250,493	22,694,101
1861-62	152,228	71,090	56 399	31,535	31[illegible],252	28,697,412
1862-63	201,385	73,068	71,397	37,963	383,803	35,510,471
1863-64	187,019	97.772	92 725	54,901	432,417	37,644,347
1864-65	159,918	104,036	90,983	55,469	410,401	34,791,298

As a general *result of the operations* we give the following statement of the income account, which we have prepared from the opening of the road to the close of the last business year:

Fiscal year ending	Gross Earnings.	Running Expen's.	Earnings less Expen's.	Interest, rents, etc.	Divid'ds on stock.	Suplus after divid'ds.
Aug. 31, 1853	$229,270	$93.004	$136,266	.....	.....	.....
May 31, 1854 (9 mos.)	497,570	219,089	278,481	67,478	132,679	78,324
" 1855.	780,890	375,047	405,773	124,198	276,019	5,551
" 1856	961,471	465,009	496,462	152,297	241,175	102,990
April 30, 1857 (11 mos)	1,055,907	516,020	539,887	322,288	307,097	deficit 89,498
" 1858	930,252	496,462	433,790	280,464	.....	53,326
" 1859	798,156	383,700	414,456	375,864	.....	38,592
" 1860	883,271	367,786	465,535	389,436	.....	76,109
" 1861	919,971	426,015	493,956	365,321	.....	128,635
" 1862	1,003,637	460,149	543,488	360,491	109,314	83,683
" 1863	1,361,537	544,482	817,055	372,203	133,753	311,100
" 1864	1,691,266	797,870	893,396	308,750	337,532	247,594
	(Surplus to May 1, 1860, divided August, 1864)				491,236	
" 1865	2,104,099	1,202,456	901,643	246,731	492,642	162,270

The *financial condition* of the road, past and present, may be seen by the following statement of capital, bonds, etc., and cost of road and rolling stock, yearly, since June 1, 1854:

	Capital stock.	Bonded debt.	Floating debt, etc.	Balance income.	Total amount.	Cost of road and roll'g st'k.
June 1, 1854	$2,675,425	$2,196,750	$338,552	$103,998	$5,364,726	$5,109,129
" 1855	2,760,162	2,870,250	580,404	83,885	6,294,701	5,860,425
" 1856	3,228,712	3,359,277	338,353	186,875	7,013,218	6,677,733
" 1857	3,343,712	3,354,208	474,583	137,377	7,309,880	6,876,927
" 1858	3,343,712	3,841,635	300,694	190,704	7,676,745	7,193,010
" 1859	3,343,812	3,842,720	443,090	229,296	7,858,918	7,187,251
" 1860	3,343,812	3,848,420	318,545	205,405	7,816,182	7,236,040
" 1861	3,343,800	3,850,570	289,402	128,634	7,612,406	7,180,338
" 1862	3,343,800	3,850,595	223,107	211,318	7,628,820	7,203,793
" 1863	3,526,600	3,607,595	94,026	522,417	7,810,838	7,231,223
" 1864	4,654,800	2,439,990	242,277	769,940	8,107,007	7,311,204
" 1865	4,690,600	2,614,810	324,586	440,884	8,070,880	7,424,023

From the tables given above, we have prepared the following interesting and useful analyses, showing the *cost per mile* of the road and rolling stock; the earnings, expenses, etc., per mile; the rate of expenses to earnings per cent; the rate of dividends per annum; and the relation of surplus to stock per cent, for each year from 1853:

Years.	Length of road. miles.	Cost of road & equipment, per mile.	Gross earnings, p. m.	Operating expenses per mile.	Nett earnings, p. m.	Expenses to earnings, p. c.	Dividends to stock, p. c.	Surplus to stock p. c.
1853-54.9mos	147.0	$34,708	$3,385	$1,490	$1,895	44.03	5	1.53
1854-55	147.5	39,732	5,294	2,542	2,752	48.01	10	0.21
1855-56	186.5	35,805	5,155	2,493	2,662	48.36	8	3.19
1856-5711 mos	186.5	36,820	5, 62	2,767	2,895	48.88	8	deficit
1857-58	186.5	38,002	4,988	2,662	2,326	53.36	.	1.59
1858-59	147.5	48,727	5,411	2,6 1	2,810	48.07	.	1.15
1859-60	147.5	49.057	5.649	2,493	3,156	44.13	.	2.28
1860-61	147.5	48.680	6 237	2,888	3,349	46.30	.	3.85
1861-62	147.5	48,838	6,804	3,120	3,684	45.85	3	2.48
1862-63	147.5	49,025	9,231	3,691	5,540	39.98	4	8.82
1863-64	147.5	49,567	11,466	5,416	6,050	47.15	8	7.05
1864-65	147.5	50,332	14,199	8,152	6,047	57.41	10	3.47

A dividend of 10 per cent was also paid in August, 1864, this being from accumulations for the years previous to May 1, 1860.

The *market value* of the stock of this company at New York for five years has been as follows:

	1860-61	1861-62.	1862-63.	1863-64.	1864-65.
July	30 @38¼	23½@33	45 @ 49¾	107 @117	131 @144
Aug	33¾@49	28½@30½	46¾@ 54¼	113 @123	125¾@134
Sept	43¾@49¾	29 @30¾	52¾@ 69¾	112 @121	108 @126
Oct	31 @48	29¼@33¼	67¾@ 73	114 @120	95 @116
Nov	24¼@35½	33 @33¾	65¾@ 70½	113 @119½	108 @114½
Dec	20 @31	28 @36¼	66 @ 72½	109 @121	107 @112½
Jan	32½@37½	33¾@42½	77¼@ 97	120 @141	108 @122
Feb	27¼@33	40½@46	86¾@ 96¼	136¾@149¼	114 @115
March	33 @37	44½@47¾	93¼@ 98¾	142 @151½	90 @109
April	22¾@36¼	40½@46	93¼@106½	135 @157	93 @103
May	20½@25½	41¾@47¼	108 @117	145 @154¾	95 @108
June	20¾@24½	44¾@49¾	105 @116¼	135 @151½	98 @105
Year	20 @49¾	23½@49¾	45 @117	107 @156	90 @144

The Cleveland and Toledo Railroad Company is a consolidation of two distinct and independent companies; the Junction, incorporated by an act of the Legislature of Ohio, passed March 2, 1844, and the Toledo, Norwalk, and Cleveland, by an act passed March 7, 1850.

The Junction Railroad Company by its original charter and two several amendments passed January 22 and March 21, 1851, was authorized to construct a railroad from the city of Cleveland to the west line of the State by such route as the Directors might determine, with power to construct branches to any points within the counties through which the main line might pass.

The charter of the Toledo, Norwalk, and Cleveland Railroad Company authorized the construction of a railroad from Toledo, by way of Norwalk to a connection with the Cleveland, Columbus, and Cincinnati Railroad at some point in the County of Huron or Lorain.

The authorized capital of the Junction Company was $3,000,000, and that of the Toledo, Norwalk, and Cleveland Company $2,000,000, making the united capital of the two companies $5,000,000, which is consequently the capital of the consolidated company.

The consolidation was consumated and the present company organized on the first of September, 1853. The Toledo, Norwalk, and Cleveland Railroad, now called the Southern Division, in length 87½ miles, was already completed, having been operated by the Cleveland, Columbus, and Cincinnati Company since December 30, 1852. The Junction Railroad, now styled the Northern Division, was opened from Sandusky to Berea, 48 miles, on the 12th September, and from Berea to Cleveland, 12 miles, on the 24th October, 1853. The section between Sandusky City and the Junction, 8 miles east of Toledo, and 99 miles from Cleveland, was not completed until the 24th April 1855. It was built under a separate charter.

Both lines were operated between Cleveland and Toledo for through business, but it was found that the want of a bridge across the Cayuhoga River, (which the city council of Cleveland would not allow,) rendered the northern division almost impracticable for freight and very inconvenient for passengers, and that the maintenance of a ferry was too onerous. To remedy this defect a lease was entered into July 30, 1856, with the Cleveland, Columbus, and Cincinnati Company for the joint use of their tracks from Grafton to Cleveland, being 12 miles for the Northern Division from Berea, and 25 miles from Grafton for the Southern Division, at an annual rental of $66,000, and a proportionate maintenance of the road between these points, the lease to extend over twenty years, and to be renewable at the option of the Cleveland and Toledo Company.

The construction of the Northern Division had drawn heavily on the company's resources, and the expenses of operating the line were greater than its earnings. And then came the financial revulsion of 1857 and short crops throughout the West, which largely impaired the resources of the company. In the meanwhile, the piling on which the road rested in crossing Sandusky Bay had gone to decay, and the road became insecure. It was at this point in the career of the company that the annual meeting for 1858 (June 16,) was convened, and by a vote of 15,720 ayes to 493 nays, the stockholders resolved to cease running trains on this division west of Sandusky. Under this resolution trains were discontinued on the 31st December, 1858. The track has since been taken up and that part of the road entirely abandoned.

In consequence of the abandonment of the western portion of the Northern Division several suits are pending against the Company which are yet unsettled.

The Company has agreements with all the connecting roads for exchange of traffic, &c., and by recent arrangements with the Sandusky, Mansfield and Newark Company, has formed a connected line to Pittsburg and Wheeling, looking to the through business between those points and Chicago, and in connection with the Sandusky, Dayton and Cincinnati

Railroad, the Northern Division runs through trains between Cleveland and Cincinnati, the line being only eighteen miles longer than the shortest route between the two cities.

Between 1857 and 1859 the gross earnings fell from $1,055,000 to $798,000 which measures the damage from the revulsion of the former year. In 1860 and 1861 the recuperation was gradual, but when the business created by the late war commenced, the geographical position of the road claimed for it and obtained a large share of the newly developed traffic, which from year to year increased, and secured to the company a high financial position, and an ability to pay liberal dividends. In the meantime, its construction account being closed, it has added largely to its rolling stock and general accomodations.

Two significant improvements are contemplated, viz.: to connect Oberlin and Elyria, and Sandusky and Fremont, the first by a line of road about eight miles long, and the latter by one twenty-two miles long. A bridge over the Cayuhoga is also to be built. These improvements will enable the Company to operate two through lines on the same time, running separately on the middle parts of the two Divisions, and connectedly between Fremont and Toledo, and between Elyria and Cleveland, thus accomodating both Divisions, but saving the expense of two trains over a large part of the distance between Cleveland and Toledo. It would also cut off the Cleveland, Columbus and Cincinnati Railroad, now used under lease.

THE GREAT CONTINENTAL RAILROAD.

The visit to this country of a numerous party of English capitalists who have already expended very large sums in opening one of our most important railways, is an event of much interest. By many it has been thought that their presence among us is in part, at least, for the purpose of looking after the interests of the road they have been so largely instrumental in building. This line now forms one great national highway, being a uniform guage from New York to the city of St. Louis, a distance of nearly 1,200 miles; so that the car that receives its freight in one city discharges it in the other.

The Erie, the Atlantic & Great Western, and the Ohio & Mississippi, are the three lines of which this great line is composed. The middle link, extending from the Erie to Cincinnati, is the one constructed by Mr. McHenry and his associates. They had the sagacity to see that a line forming the connections it now does, could not fail to participate in the advantages enjoyed by the connecting links, while to unite them would be a vast addition to their value and importance as local works. The result has fully justified the action, for both extremes are now earning nearly three times as much per month as they did previous to the completion of the Atlantic and Great Western Railroad.

The Erie Railway is too well known to require description. The Atlantic and Great Western leaves it at Salamanca Station, and proceeds by a direct route to Cincinnati, a distance of about 350 miles. In its course

it crosses and renders tributary to it nearly all the important railroads of Ohio, by which means it maintains intimate relations with all the leading points in the West. At Cincinnati commences the Ohio and Mississippi Railroad, extending thence to St. Louis, a distance of 340 miles. This is a work of first rate importance, whether considered in reference to its local business, or its connections with other thoroughfares, or its identity with great routes of commerce and travel. At Cincinnati concentrate the great trunk roads starting from the cities of New York, Philadelphia and Baltimore. From Cincinnati the business of all these roads is carried forward over one line to St. Louis. There is, consequently, no railroad in the country to which so many important lines are directly tributary. It is at the same time, by virtue of its directness, the almost sole avenue between two great cities of the West, each containing 200,000 inhabitants, each being the local point of great lines of railroad, and each increasing with unexampled rapidity in population and commercial importance. It has also a local traffic equal to that of a first-class western railroad.

Another fact adding greatly to the importance of the Ohio & Mississippi Railroad and its eastern connecting lines, is the rapid progress of the State of Missouri, consequent upon the abolition of slavery, which has removed the last obstacle to the proper development of the wonderful resources of that great State. Northern emigration with its capital and enterprise is now for the first time free to flow into it, and there is nothing that can prevent it from speedily taking rank with Ohio and Illinois, nor in fact from becoming the leading State in the Mississippi Valley.

From St. Louis west a new system of railroads commences. Among the more important of its lines are the Pacific and the North Missouri. The Pacific Railroad extends to the Kansas boundary, where it is carried forword some sixty miles by the Union Pacific Railway, E. D., now making rapid progress with ample means furnished by the United States. Upon the route of this road exists a commerce already exceeding the capacity of a first class road. This commerce is increasing wonderfully in value each year. It is now ascertained that the whole line of the Rocky Mountain range, embracing an area of 500,000 square miles, is as rich in the precious metals as was California. The States and Territories into which this immense area is now divided, are filling up as rapidly as did that State upon the first discoveries of gold in it. The railroads of Missouri and Kansas, as well as those connecting with the East, are largely profiting by this tide of emigration and commerce, and none more so than the Ohio & Mississippi and its connecting railroads.

One great advantage now enjoyed by many of our western roads is their low cost, compared with prices at which they could now be built. This secures them from all danger of competing lines. In the meanwhile their traffics are increasing so rapidly that their earnings are doubled every five years. It is this increase that has worked such a revolution in the market value of railroad shares. Take, for example, the Chicago & Alton Railroad, the stock of which, as well as its bonds were, a few years ago, regarded as almost worthless. The road was earning less than $1,000,000, a sum hardly sufficient to pay running expenses. It was re organized and is now earning at the rate of nearly $4,000,000, or about 40per cent gross upon its cost. Its common stock is in active demand above par. This

road may be taken as an example of what many western railroads will accomplish whose stocks are now selling at one third their nominal value. All well situated western railroads are certain to become highly productive on their cost; and their stocks when largely depreciated offer excellent opportunities for investment, the lower they are the greater will be the profit to the purchaser. Our whole system of railroads is yearly becoming intimately identified with the great interests of the country, and laying more broadly the foundations of a permanent and substantial value.

These facts are conclusive. The income of the great line from New York to St. Louis is three fold greater now than it was four years ago. There is not a section in the West, as before stated, that does not double its railroad business every five years. This rate of increase must continue for an indefinite period to come. The necessity of the country tapped by the Great Continental Railroad is not *business*, but the means for its accommodation. A double track is now wanted from the city of New York to the Mississippi. That of the Erie Railway is pretty nearly completed. The owners of the Great Western are making preparations for a similar improvement on their line, which Sir Morton Peto in some remarks he recently made at St. Louis, declared to be an absolute necessity. With a double track and uniform guage for the whole distance it would be hardly possible to set any limits to the traffic and revenues of this magnificent line.

As the different links of this great road have identical interests, we learn that it is the design of the companies controlling them to unite in the most intimate relations, if not to consolidate the whole under one common head. As such union must add greatly to the value of all the lines, its accomplishment may be regarded as an almost foregone conclusion. Such union has been long felt to be indispensible by the managers of the Great Western, and even if they should not obtain control of the Erie, there is little doubt of their obtaining that of the Ohio & Mississippi—a result which must greatly enhance the value of that important line.

The earnings of the several companies of the Great Continental Line for the first eight months of 1864 and 1865, are shown in the following comparative statement:

Railways.	1864.	1865.	Increase.
Erie	$8,346,934	$9,588,862	$1,241,928
Atlantic & Great Western	2,127,813	3,838,802	1,710,989
Ohio & Mississippi	2,078,477	2,373,168	294,691
Total	$12,553,224	$15,800,832	$3,247,608

RAILROAD STOCK FLUCTUATIONS, 1860–1865.

STATEMENT SHOWING THE LOWEST AND HIGHEST SALES OF RAILROAD STOCKS AT THE NEW YORK STOCK EXCHANGE FOR EACH MONTH, AND FOR THE YEARS 1860–1865, BOTH INCLUSIVE.

New York Central Railroad.

	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	Septemb'r.	October.	November.	December.	Year.
1860.....	71⅛- 75¼	70⅛- 72⅛	70¼- 79⅜	76⅞- 80⅛	78¼- 83	81⅜- 82⅜	81⅛- 84⅛	83⅛- 88⅝	83 - 92⅛	80 - 91	70 - 84	69 - 76⅛	69 - 92⅛
1861.....	75½ - 82⅛	75⅛- 80⅛	75⅜- 80	68 - 78⅞	71¾- 73¼	71⅜- 74⅜	73⅛- 79⅜	72⅝- 77	72¼- 74⅜	73⅛- 79⅛	77 - 81¼	75¼- 80⅜	68 - 82⅛
1862.....	79⅜- 83⅞	79¾- 84⅜	82¼- 84⅜	82¼- 85¼	84⅞- 89⅜	88¼- 95⅜	87⅛- 93⅜	89½- 94½	93 -104	102¾-107⅞	101 -105⅞	101⅛-104⅛	79⅝-107⅜
1863.....	107 -124⅞	116⅜-120	107 -118¼	113 -117	116¼-133	115⅝-125	116 -129	122½-139½	128 -140	133¼-138⅜	130 -139⅞	131 -138	107 -140
1864.....	130 -137¼	132 -138	135¼-145	130 -144⅛	128 -135½	130⅛-135	131⅞-135⅛	128¼-132	114 -129	109 -122	119 -128¾	112⅜-122½	109 -145
1865.....	102½-119	103¾-117⅛	83¼-113	85 -103¼	87¼-101¾	89⅜- 94⅜	90⅝- 96⅜	90 - 98¾	.....	.....	.....	.....	85 -119

Erie (late New York and Erie) Railway.

1860.....	8¼- 9	8¼- 9¼	8¾- 10⅝	10¾- 18	16 - 23¾	17 - 21¾	18¾- 24¾	23 - 31	26¾- 43	27¾- 43	26 - 34⅞	24 - 39	8¼- 43
1861.....	31½- 40⅜	30 - 36	30 - 35	17 - 32½	19¾- 23¼	21 - 23⅞	22¾- 29	24½- 26¾	24¾- 26¼	25⅜- 34⅜	29⅝- 35¼	24¾- 33	17 - 40¼
1862.....	31⅜- 36¼	33 - 35½	34⅜- 38	36¼- 37⅞	35⅝- 40¼	35⅜- 39⅝	33 - 37	33¼- 39½	38¾- 49⅜	49 - 65¼	59 - 64⅜	60 - 63⅜	31⅜- 65¼
1863.....	66 - 85⅜	70 - 80¼	74½- 80¾	76 - 84¼	84¼-105	90½- 98	92½-103⅞	103 -122	101 -117⅜	106¼-110⅜	90¾-110½	104¼-109	66 -122
1864.....	106⅞-113	107 -124⅜	113 -126⅜	107 -126	107 -117⅜	110¾-118	108¼-116	108¾-113½	93 -109	86 - 96	93½-104¼	82 - 96¾	82 -126⅛
1865.....	66¾- 85⅜	69⅜- 77⅜	45 - 72	51⅛- 84¾	70¾- 80⅛	71¾- 78⅛	78½- 95	79¾- 92⅛	.....	.....	.....	.....	45 - 95

PREFERRED SEVEN PER CENT STOCK.

1862.....	52⅛- 58¼	54⅜- 59¼	58¼- 62¾	60¼- 62⅛	62¼- 67⅛	63¾- 67¼	60 - 64	62¼- 69⅜	67⅛- 83	80 - 93	87 - 92	90¾- 97	52¼- 97
1863.....	97 -108	99 -106¼	93¾-101¾	96 -102¾	101¾-111	100¾-106⅜	100¾-105¼	102¾-111¾	102 -108¼	104 -105¾	99¾-105	100½-103⅝	96 -111¾
1864.....	100¾-104¼	101 -109	105¾-115¾	105¼-116	106 -109	108¾-113	107 -115⅝	108¾-112¾	101 -109	100 -104	100 -106½	99¾-105	99¾-116
1865.....	90 -100⅛	90 - 93¾	70 - 90	75¾- 92	82 - 90	84 - 90	86 - 88	80 - 87	.....	.....	.....	.....	70 -100⅛

Hudson River Railroad.

1860.....	41 - 42⅜	35 - 41⅛	38¾- 40¾	38¾- 42¼	41 - 49¾	46⅜- 49	47¼- 56	56¼- 60	56 - 66	54¼- 64⅜	40 - 60	36 - 45	36 - 66
1861.....	44 - 49¼	40¼- 48¼	42 - 47	33 - 45⅜	34 - 37⅜	31½- 34⅛	33 - 38	32¾- 34⅞	32¾- 34	33¼- 38⅛	36 - 41⅜	33⅛- 39	31½- 49¼
1862.....	37⅛- 40	35¼- 39⅛	35¼- 37⅜	35⅛- 39¾	36 - 45	44 - 49¾	43 - 47⅛	44¼- 54⅜	50 - 62⅜	61 - 79	72 - 79	72¼- 77¼	35¼- 79
1863.....	82 - 98	91¾- 99	95 -101⅜	102¼-117	116 -142⅜	118 -143⅜	145 -180	141⅜-153	128¼-150	131 -141¼	121 -134⅛	110¾-129¾	82 -180
1864.....	139¼-143	139 -162	148¾-161¼	139 -164	132 -156	138 -147	139 -137⅛	126 -135	107 -127¾	109 -125	118 -127½	114 -118¼	107 -164
1865.....	95¼-115⅛	102¼-117⅛	89¼-118⅜	90 -115¾	95¼-113	100¼-109	107 -115	104¼-118¾	.....	.....	.....	.....	89¼-118⅜

New York and Harlem Railroad.

1860.....	8¼- 9¾	8⅝- 9¼	8 - 10¾	10¼- 14⅜	12 - 18⅜	11⅜- 13¾	12¼- 17¾	16 - 20	16¼- 24	15 - 23½	18 - 18	12 - 14¾	8 - 24
1861.....	15 - 16¾	14 - 17	15½- 16¾	11⅜- 16¼	10¾- 12⅜	8¾- 10¾	9¼- 12¾	10¼- 11	10¼- 10⅞	10½- 14	12 - 14	10 - 13	8¾- 17
1862.....	12¾- 13⅜	11⅞- 12⅜	12¼- 13¾	12 - 13	13 - 15	14 - 18¼	13 - 17¾	14¼- 17	15 - 22	20¼- 25¼	18 - 23	21 - 23¾	11⅞- 25¼
1863.....	37¼- 40	39 - 37¼	35 - 47	42¼- 70¼	79 -110¼	97¼-100¾	93 -125	125 -179	115 -164¼	80 -145	88 -110	87¼- 99	37¼-179
1864.....	80¼-105	102 -127½	101 -152	130 -236	234 -251	200 -285	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	80¼-285
1865.....	96 - 96	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	96 - 96

PREFERRED SEVEN PER CENT STOCK.

1860.....	32¼- 34	33¼- 34¼	32½- 36¾	35¾- 40	37 - 41¼	37 - 40	38¼- 44½	45 - 51	43¾- 55	38¾- 53⅛	31 - 41	27 - 35¾	27 - 33
1861.....	36 - 42	34 - 43	39 - 41¾	28 - 41¾	25¾- 31¾	20½- 25¾	22½- 29½	24¾- 26¼	25 - 25¾	25¾- 35	29½- 35	25 - 31¾	20½- 43
1862.....	29¾- 33	28¾- 30½	30 - 32¾	30 - 32½	32½- 37	35¼- 45	33¾- 41	35 - 42	39 - 48¾	46¼- 53½	44¾- 53½	50 - 54¾	28¾- 54¾
1863.....	57 - 87	63¾- 78	76½- 86	81 - 94	95 -120½	89 -108¾	94 -120	119 -158	115 -151	107 -130	110 -111	100 -100	57 -153
1864.....	109 -112	109 -125	125½-138	.....	.....	112½-112½	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	102 -138
1865.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	75 - 75	80 - 80	.....	.....	.....	.....	75 - 80

Philadelphia and Reading Railroad.

1860.....	3¾- 42¾	38¾- 41	40¾- 43	41¾- 44	41¾- 44	42 - 42¾	40¾- 49	44¾- 49¼	45 - 49	41 - 48	31½- 42¾	29½- 36¼	29½- 49¼
1861.....	37¾- 46	39¾- 47¾	39 - 46	29½- 44¾	30¾- 39¾	30¾- 33¾	33 - 39½	35 - 37¾	34¾- 36½	34½- 37	34 - 36¾	30¾- 34¾	30¼- 47¾
1862.....	35 - 42¾	40 - 44¾	41 - 41¾	42 - 45¾	45¾- 49½	50 - 60	54¾- 59¾	56 - 62¼	56½- 70	69 - 79	73¾- 78¾	74⅞- 77¾	35 - 79
1863.....	77½- 96	89¼- 92	88½- 91	88 - 95	94 -120	89 -114¼	95 -111½	113¾-124	119 -123	119 -128	119 -127¼	111¼-122	77½-128
1864.....	111 -118¼	115¾-133½	130½-154	125 -165	125 -147	138¾-145	125¾-139½	132¼-133⅞	117¾-134	115 -134	132½-140	112¾-137½	111 -165
1865.....	103 -117¾	103¼-116¾	88¾-118¼	90 -110	90¼-104½	93 -104½	98⅞-107½	101 -107⅜	.....	.....	.....	.....	88¼-117¾

Michigan Central Railroad.

1860.....	33 - 38	26¾- 38½	26½- 45¼	44 - 49½	47¾- 54	46¾- 53¾	47¾- 60¼	59¾- 73½	67½- 72¾	59¼- 70½	45 - 64	41 - 50¼	33 - 73¾
1861.....	51¾- 61½	49¾- 60½	54 - 60	40 - 58	40 - 46	39¾- 44¾	41 - 47¼	40½- 43	41¾- 44¾	41 - 52	41 - 54⅝	41 - 50¼	39¾- 61¾
1862.....	47 - 55¾	48¾- 54½	55½- 58¼	53¾- 56¾	56¼- 68½	62¼- 68¼	57 - 63¾	59¾- 69¾	66¾- 81½	81¾- 92¼	85¼- 91½	88¼- 93	47 - 93
1863.....	91 - 99	94¼- 98¾	97 -104½	99¾-105	105 -121¼	106 -119½	107 -116½	113 -128	116 -123½	120¾-128¾	120¼-128¼	119½-128¾	91 -128¾
1864.....	118¾-139	131¾-143	136¾-152	133 -157	131 -146¾	142¾-156½	132 -140	133¾-140¾	123¾-134¾	114⅜-130	124½-132¼	115 -133	114¾-157
1865.....	103½-117¾	107¼-114½	89¾-112	93 -114½	106 -115	105¼-110	106 -109¾	103¼-108⅜	.....	.....	.....	.....	89¾-117¾

Michigan Southern and Northern Indiana Railroad.

1860.....	6 - 6½	5 - 7¼	7¼- 12	9¾- 14	11¾- 13	10¾- 14	13¾- 19	17½- 25	19¾- 24½	15¼- 23½	12½- 18	10½- 15	5 - 25
1861.....	14¾- 16½	12½- 15½	14½- 18¼	12¼- 17¾	10¾- 13⅞	10¼- 12½	12 - 15¾	12¼- 14	13 - 14¼	13¾- 19¾	17¼- 20½	16 - 19¾	10¼- 20¾
1862.....	19 - 22	20¾- 24⅞	22¾- 25	22 - 23½	23 - 26⅜	25⅞- 28¾	23¼- 27½	24¼- 32½	31 - 39¼	37¼- 47	37¾- 43⅞	36⅞- 41¾	19 - 47
1863.....	45½- 65¾	55 - 63¾	53¾- 61¾	55¾- 67¼	67¾- 88	68¼- 81	73¾- 89⅜	88 -118	77 -108¼	79 - 89¾	79 - 87¼	77 - 89	45½-118
1864.....	84¾- 90	88¾- 99	98 -118⅜	84½-118¾	85¾-100¾	93¼-100	80¾- 94¼	82¼- 92⅝	71 - 85	57 - 71¾	68¼- 77⅜	68¾- 74⅞	57 -118¾
1865.....	61 - 74¼	63¾- 70⅜	50¼- 66¼	50⅜- 73⅜	55⅜- 71	60⅜- 68	62⅜- 67	60⅞- 67	.....	.....	.....	.....	50½- 74¼

GUARANTEED TEN PER CENT STOCK.

1860.....	15 - 16¾	12¼- 16	17 - 24¾	19¾- 26	22 - 26¼	23 - 30½	30 - 44	43 - 50	42¾- 50¼	35 - 50¼	26¼- 38¼	23 - 33	12¼- 50¼
1861.....	33 - 38	27½- 34	33 - 39½	26 - 39¼	24¼- 29¼	22⅞- 27½	26¼- 33½	27½- 30	28¼- 31¾	31 - 40½	35½- 41½	36½- 41¾	22⅞- 41½
1862.....	39¼- 43¾	40¼- 49½	46 - 49¾	44¼- 47¾	47 - 58¾	57 - 64	52¾- 60½	55¼- 64¾	61¼- 74	72¾- 85	80¾- 85½	82 - 85	39¼- 85¼
1863.....	86¼-107	102 -106¾	94¾-109	98 -110	108¾-122½	110¾-119	111 -117	113¾-140	124 -137	134½-156	135 -151	130 -135	86¼-156
1864.....	132½-140	133 -142½	143 -150	127 -165	130 -143	140 -143¾	132 -140	140 -149½	125¾-147	132 -132	140 -146½	141 -146	125½-165
1865.....	135 -147	135 -140	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	135 -147

Panama Railroad.

1860.....	125 -131½	130¼-134¼	132½-136	133 -145	131 -146½	125 -134¾	123¾-127½	122¼-126¼	123¾-127	120¾-125½	106 -123	107 -121	106 -146½
1861.....	112 -117½	112 -116	115 -117½	97½-116⅞	99 -107	102 -109	105 -111½	104¾-108	106 -115	115 -119	112 -121	105 -115	97½-121
1862.....	110 -113¾	111¾-121¼	117 -122	119¾-126¼	126¾-133	132 -139½	128 -137	133¾-140¾	139¾-150	144 -154	153¾-158	150 -170	110 -170
1863.....	171 -187	181 -192	183 -193	183¾-187½	186 -189	188 -190	188 -190	189 -195	188 -189	188 -190	187 -187	190 -200	171 -200
1864.....	200 -222	223 -227	227 -240	245 -250	250 -250	265 -265	255 -300	297 -300	292 -292	260 -264	265 -270	265 -270	200 -300
1865.....	260 -265	250 -250	250 -254	235 -237	250 -250	250 -255	250 -254	252 -255	.....	.....	.....	.....	235 -265

RAILROAD STOCK FLUCTUATIONS, 1860–1865—*Continued.*

Illinois Central Railroad.

		January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	Septemb'r.	October	November.	December.	Year.
1860	Scrip.	55¾- 58¾	56 - 57	58 - 63	59¾- 62½	59 - 64¾	61 - 64	62¾- 77	74¾- 89	83¾- 89½	70¾- 86½	57⅞- 74½	51¼- 75	55¾- 89½
1861	Scrip.	74½- 88¾	69⅛- 84½	75½- 83	55¾- 81¾	57 - 70¾	62 - 69	63 - 69¾	63¾- 65	64¼- 68¾	65 - 69½	60⅜- 65¼	56 - 63	55½- 88¾
1862	Scrip.	61 - 64	55¾- 65½	61¾- 66½	57 - 63	60 - 64	60½- 66½	55¾- 61½	57 - 63¾	61¾- 77	76¾- 84⅞	74 - 81⅞	76⅞- 80	55¾- 84⅛
1863	Scrip.	81½- 97¼	80¾- 94	85 - 92¾	87¾- 95	92½-115	98 -111¼	102 -116	114 -138	120¾-133½	123¾-128½	113¾-125	115 -120	81½-138
1863	Full.	83⅛- 91	88 - 93	91 - 91	89 - 90	94 -107	92 - 95	96 -106	106 -126	111 -123	113 -116	115⅝-119¼	112⅜-112½	83⅛-126
1864	Full.	119 -123	115 -125	123 -135½	121 -138	115 -129	129 -132½	124 -131	128 -132	116½-128½	110¾-130	123 -131¾	121 -131	110½-135½
1865	Full.	110 -127	113 -121	92¾-118½	93 -117	114 -119½	116 -126	119 -130	119½-127½	.....	.....	.....	.....	92¾-130

Cleveland and Pittsburg Railroad.

1860.....	6¾- 7	7⅛- 7½	5 - 6	5½- 7½	7 - 12½	8 - 10½	8¼- 11	10¼- 12	10½- 15½	11¾- 15½	9 - 13	8½- 9	5 - 15½
1861.....	9 - 10¾	8 - 9¾	9 - 9½	8 - 9	7 - 7	7 - 7	7 - 9	6½- 7	7 - 10	10¼- 12½	11¼- 14	12 - 17	6¾- 17
1862.....	15⅜- 16¼	16 - 18½	17½- 20½	17 - 18¼	18¼- 23½	21¾- 24	21 - 23½	21¾- 25½	24 - 36½	34½- 43	36½- 42	40 - 59	15¾- 59
1863.....	56½- 73	65 - 73½	64 - 73	67¾- 84	82 -108	80 - 97¼	82⅝- 97¼	93¼-105	91 -102¾	100¾-115	99½-112¾	100¾-109½	56½-115
1864.....	105 -120	110¾-119¾	114¾-128¾	104 -132	110¾-117¾	110¾-116	106 -114¾	110 -114	105¾-117¾	90 -107	102 -109	91¾-113	90 -132
1865.....	77½- 99½	77¾- 85	51 - 78¾	51 - 81¾	55 - 77¾	55 - 64¾	65 - 71⅞	65 - 71¾	.....	.....	.....	.....	51 - 99¾

Cleveland, Columbus and Cincinnati Railroad.

1860.....	83¾- 95	86 - 88	87 - 89¼	88¾- 93	91¾- 92¼	91¾- 94	91 - 94½	91¼- 95	93 - 99¾	95¾- 98	88 - 95	87 - 96	86 - 99½
1861.....	98 -100	94 - 94¾	93¼-100¼	90 - 95	91 - 93¾	93¾- 97	94 - 98	94 - 95	95 - 96¾	96¾- 99	97 - 99	100 -102	91 -102
1862.....	110 -110	103 -110	109¼-113	112 -115	112¾-116¾	119 -120	113 -125	118 -125	121 -125	132 -135	135½-138	141 -145	103 -145
1863.....	147 -175	155 -161	158 -167	158¾-160	160 -165	159 -161	115 -160	155 -155	150 -155	160 -160	155 -157¾	163 -181	147 -181
0864.....	180 -180	146 -157	157½-175	165 -174	168 -168	167½-169	169 -170	170 -171	170 -170	164 -164	170 -170½	180 -182	146 -182
1865.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	181 -183	185 -180	....	.....	.....	.....	185 -183

Galena and Chicago Union Railroad.

1860.....	58¾- 64¾	56¾- 59⅝	59 - 62¾	61¼- 64¾	62 - 67	60¾- 64½	62¾- 73¾	73 - 82¾	76¾- 80	67¾- 78¾	55 - 73	58¾- 67½	55 - 82¾
1861.....	69 - 74½	66¼- 74⅜	68¾- 74	55 - 73¾	55¾- 61	56 - 61¾	60¾- 66⅝	63 - 66¼	66¾- 69¾	69¼- 71¾	69½- 74	69 - 71½	55 - 74¾
1862.....	67¼- 69¼	65¾- 70	67¼- 70	68¾- 68¾	66¾- 73	69¼- 72¾	66¾- 71¾	67¾- 74¾	70¾- 81¼	79¾- 88	80 - 86	80 - 83¾	65¼- 88
1863.....	80¾- 96¾	88½- 96	90 - 95	91¾- 96½	97¾-113¼	92 -107	90¾-100	100 -114	103¾-112½	108¾-114¼	104 -118½	104½-109¼	86¾-114¼

Cleveland and Toledo Railroad.

1860.....	19 - 20¼	18⅝- 20	19 - 25¾	23¾- 30½	27½- 31¾	29 - 32½	30½- 38¼	38¼- 49	43¾- 49¾	31 - 48	24¼- 35½	20 - 31	18¾- 49¾
1861.....	32¼- 37½	27½- 33	33 - 37	29¾- 30¼	20½- 25½	20¾- 24¼	23¾- 33	28¼- 30¾	20 - 30¾	29¼- 38¼	33 - 34⅛	28 - 36¼	20½- 38¾
1862.....	35¾- 42¾	40½- 46	41¾- 47¾	40¾- 46	41¾- 47¾	44¾- 49¾	45 - 49¾	46¾- 54¾	52¾- 69½	67¾- 73	65½- 70⅝	66 - 72⅛	33¾- 73
1863.....	77¼- 97	96¾- 99¼	98¾- 99¾	99¼-106¼	108 -117	105 -116¼	107 -117	113 -123	112 -121	114 -120	113 -119⅜	109 -121	77¼-123
1864.....	120 -141	136¾-140¾	143 -151¾	135 -157	145 -154¾	135 -151¾	131 -144	125⅝ 134	108 -126	96 -116	108 -114¾	107 -119¾	96 -157
1865.....	108 -122	114 -115	90 -109	98 -108	96 -108	98 -108	101 -104	98 -108	.....	.....	.....	.....	90 -122

Chicago and Rock Island Railroad.

1860	61 - 63¼	62¾ - 63¾	63¾ - 66¼	63¼ - 67¼	64¾ - 71¾	67¾ - 70¾	70½ - 77¾	79 - 84¼	77¾ - 82¾	60 - 77¾	50 - 66	42¾ - 54	42¼ - 84¼
1861	52¾ - 62	52¼ - 61¾	56 - 61	34 - 53	30¾ - 39	33¾ - 36¾	34 - 45	37¾ - 49¾	41¼ - 46	45½ - 53	51 - 58¾	44¾ - 51¾	3¾ - 62
1862	50 - 55¾	52¼ - 57	55 - 59¾	53¾ - 56¾	56 - 66	62¾ - 69¾	60½ - 68¾	62¾ - 69¼	66¼ - 78¾	77¾ - 85¾	77¾ - 89½	77½ - 82¾	50 - 85¾
1863	82¾ - 90¾	87¾ - 95	89 - 95	88¾ - 95	94 -108	93¾ -104	93 -106	103¾ -117	103 -113	106½ -111¾	102 -111¾	100 -128¾	82¼ -123½
1864	122¾ -149¾	117¼ -144¼	119¼ -127¾	110 -134	105 -119	110 -117¾	107¾ -114	109¼ -114¾	95 -109¾	85¾ - 97	99 -110	101¾ -108¼	85¼ -149¾
1865	89¾ -104¼	90 - 97¾	85¾ - 99¾	88¾ -104	91¾ -108¾	97¾ -103	102 -109¾	104¾ -109	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....

Chicago, Burlington and Quincy Railroad.

1860	40 - 40	43 - 43	45 - 60	59¾ - 65	63¼ - 70¼	68¾ - 77	73 - 84	84¼ - 91	87 - 92¾	79 - 90	61¾ - 85	60 - 70	40 - 92¾
1861	65¾ - 73¾	65 - 76	69¾ - 75	51 - 74¾	54 - 62	53 - 55¾	54 - 63¼	57¾ - 60¾	59¼ - 63¾	61¾ - 66¾	58¾ - 66	51 - 60	51 - 73¾
1862	57 - 62¾	61 - 65	61¾ - 65	61 - 62	64¾ - 73	75 - 80	74¼ - 73¾	78 - 87	85¾ - 96¾	100 -119	88 -116	86¼ - 88	57 -119
1863	99 -111¼	105 -110	106 -110	107¾ -112¾	108 -120	113 -116	114 -116¼	115 -126¾	120 -123	122¾ -131	116¾ -134¼	115 -117¾	99 -131
1864	118 -129	122 -138	131¾ -146	132 -149	126 -142	126¾ -132	126 -132	127 -131	117 -127	111 -135	115 -120	116¼ -118	111 -149
1865	114 -120	114 -120	100 -118	103 -117	103 -110	106 -111	110¾ -112	111 -112¾	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....

Milwaukee and (Mississippi) Prairie du Chien Railroad.

1860	2¼ - 3	2 - 2¾	1½ - 1¾	1¼ - 5¾	4 - 9	5¾ - 7	6 - 9¼	10 - 15¼	12 - 16¼	11 - 15	7½ - 12	7¾ - 9¼	2 - 16¼
1861	10 - 14¾	10 - 12½	11 - 12	9 - 11¾	9 - 9½	14 - 14	14 - 15	14½ - 15	14¾ - 19¼	16½ - 19	19 - 23	16¾ - 20	9 - 23
1862	18½ - 21½	19½ - 21	20 - 27½	25½ - 28¼	26½ - 30	27¾ - 37	30½ - 34	31½ - 34½	33¼ - 38¾	33 - 38	31 - 34	31 - 34	18¾ - 38
1863	35 - 48	35 - 41	35¾ - 40	34¾ - 44	43 - 60¾	42 - 56¾	50½ - 69¾	67 - 90¼	65 - 79¾	66 - 74	53 - 70½	50 - 59	34¾ - 90¼
1864	53 - 63	57 - 69	58 - 69½	63 - 89	58 - 73	66 - 71	63 - 70	61 - 70	50 - 63	35 - 49	47 - 56½	41 - 55	35 - 89
1865	34 - 49¾	41¾ - 48¾	30 - 41	30 - 42	34 - 48	33 - 41	35¾ - 40¾	38 - 41¾	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....

FIRST PREFERRED STOCK.

1863	74 - 84	78½ - 77	77¾ - 80	77 - 79¾	79½ - 85	90 - 97½	88¾ - 90	90 - 90	94 - 96	90 -100	.....	103 -103	73¾ -103
1863	.....	109 -109	108 -110	107 -107	110¼ -110¾	.....	106 -112	109 -113	109 -110	.....	.....	.....	102 -112
1864	106 -110	113 -113	.....	115 -115	.....	115 -117	116 -120	119 -122	111 -121	.....	110 -111	.....	106 -122
1865	.....	.....	.....	.....	93 - 95	91 - 93	90 - 90	92 - 92½	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....

SECOND PREFERRED STOCK.

1863	59 - 65	53 - 57	54½ - 58½	56 - 58	50 - 64½	64 - 75	66 - 70¼	70 - 73	79 - 79	77¼ - 78	77 - 80	79 - 84¼	52 - 84½
1863	85¼ - 90	76 - 78	77 - 78	73 - 80	81¼ - 90	75 - 88	78 - 86	85 - 89½	85 - 88	84 - 88¾	67½ - 88	87 - 88½	67¾ - 90
1864	87 - 90	84 - 88	.....	91 - 91½	90 - 90	90 - 92	90 - 94	92 - 94	.....	.....	80 - 80	.....	80 - 94
1865	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	69 - 70	70 - 75	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....

Delaware, Lackawanna and Western Railroad.

1860	54 - 54	57 - 60	76 - 89	84 - 94	85 - 89	90 - 99	95 - 96	94 - 95½	93¾ - 93¾	90 - 90¾	75 - 90	70 - 80	54 - 99
1861	80 - 82	80 - 82	80 - 84	80 - 81	75 - 75	.....	70 - 72½	.....	68 - 68	70 - 73	65 - 65	.....	65 - 84
1862	.....	.....	83 - 84	80 - 84	85½ - 93	100 -102	93 - 95½	94 -100	99 -102½	103¾ -114	115½ -117	126 -130	80 -130
1863	130 -136	140 -140	146 -140	142 -150	154 -161	.....	165 -166	170 -180	180 -181	185 -185	.....	198 -198	130 -198
1864	195 -195	225 -230	225 -230	235 -250	230 -241	240 -242	.....	265 -265	203 -265	.....	200 -205	125 -231	195 -265
1865	223 -225	190½ -199½	190 -199	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....

Chicago and Alton Railroad.

1863	59 - 65	62 - 64	57½ - 66	60 - 69½	70 - 85	63 - 79	65 - 84	79 - 86	68 - 89	78¾ - 87	80 - 91	81 - 86	57¾ - 87
1864	84½ - 89¾	81 - 90	87 - 96½	65 -100	88 - 97	90 - 99	93 - 98	88 - 97	85 - 87	80 - 82	85 - 90	89 - 93	65 -100
1865	89 - 92	90 - 96½	80 - 90	80 - 92	89½ - 93	.....	90 -103	96 -103	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....

RAILROAD STOCK FLUCTUATIONS, 1860–1865—*Continued.*

PREFERRED STOCK.

	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	Septemb'r.	October.	November.	December.	Year.
1863.....	95 - 97	93¾- 95	90 - 96	91 - 91	92 - 99	88 - 95	90 - 98	92¾- 97	92 - 91¾	90 - 94	89¾- 98	92 - 95¾	90 - 99
1864.....	94 - 96	92¾- 98	94 -100¾	95 -106	94 - 96	95 - 97	93 - 97	92 - 97¾	90 - 93	85 - 90	90 - 95	92 - 93	90 -100¾
1865.....	90 - 95	92¾- 99	94 - 93¾	95 - 95	91 -107	.. ..	101 -102¾	96 -104	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....

Chicago and Northwestern Railroad.

1863	16 - 23	16 - 21	16 - 18¾	16 - 26	25 - 43	28¾- 35¾	27¾- 38	32 - 38¾	32 - 37¾	36 - 47¾	43¾- 50¾	43¾- 49	16 - 50¾
1864.....	45¾- 56	47⅝- 56	65¾- 88	47 - 77	48¾- 65¾	50 - 60	48¾- 58	53⅝- 57¾	44¾- 54	34 - 46	40¾- 47¾	38 - 44¾	34 - 88
1865.....	32¾- 39¾	32 - 35⅞	20¾- 34	21¾- 25	21⅞- 32	.....	26 - 30	26 - 29¾	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....

PREFERRED STOCK.

1864.....	61 - 67	65 - 65	71 - 87	70 - 97	72 - 94¾	86 - 94¾	84 - 93	85¾- 91¾	77 - 86¾	67¾- 81	75¾- 85¾	69¾- 78¾	61 - 97
1865. ...	61¾- 71¾	60¾- 66⅛	48¾- 63⅝	48 - 65¾	52¾- 62	.....	58½- 64	59¾- 63¾	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....

Pittsburg, Fort Wayne, and Chicago Railroad.

1863.....	60¾- 76	61¾- 68¾	56 - 67	57 - 69	67¾- 85¾	61 - 76¾	64 - 78¾	71 - 96	71 - 92¾	82¾- 91	78 - 90	79¾- 87	56 - 96
1864.....	82¾- 89	87 -101	98 -140¾	101 -152¾	106¾-121½	113 -119	109 -117	110 -117	94 -110¾	97 -102½	100¾-110	99¾-106¾	82¾-152¾
1865.....	90¾-102½	90 - 97¾	78 - 94½	80¾-102¾	91 -100¾	.....	95 -100¾	92¾- 98	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....

Toledo, Wabash, and Western Railroad.

1863.....	30⅞- 60	50 - 51	50 - 51	51 - 61	73 - 86	72 - 83¾	75 - 84	77 - 86	71 - 75	63 - 72	44 - 60	44½- 55	39¾- 86
1864.....	53 - 61	57¾- 67	63 - 73½	60 - 75½	69¾- 78	68 - 71	60 - 68	63 - 69	61 - 66¾	53 - 53	52 - 53½	57½- 57¾	53 - 75½
1865.....	51 - 51	50 - 60	50 - 50	43 - 47	45 - 45	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....

PREFERRED STOCK.

1863.....	85 - 88	91 - 92	68 - 68	68 - 75	78 - 95	70 - 82	85 - 88	84 - 87	79 - 80¾	80 - 88½	.....	70 - 75	68 - 95
1864.....	70 - 74	74 - 88	80 - 90	73 - 94¾	71 - 80	77 - 77	.....	75 - 79	.. ..	68 - 69	.....	67½- 69	67½- 94½
1865.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	60 - 60	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....

St. Louis, Alton, and Terre Haute Railroad.

1863.....	30 - 42	31¾- 37	29 - 35	31 - 43¾	42¾- 59	41¾- 53¾	41 - 68¾	55 - 67¾	55 - 64¾	59 - 66	55 - 65	48 - 65	29 - 68½
1864.....	57 - 64	63 - 73½	70¾- 90	65 - 88½	58 - 67	61 - 69	58 - 65	59 - 65	51 - 57¾	47 - 57	51 - 57	46 - 53	46 - 90
1865.....	40 - 43	40¾- 40½	35 - 35	25 - 47	35¾- 36	.....	34½- 34½	33 - 33	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....

PREFERRED STOCK.

1863.....	50 - 71¾	63¾- 78	65 - 69¾	57¾- 71¾	72 - 90	66¾- 84	69¾- 85	82¾- 88	75 - 86	83 - 90	75 - 82½	70 - 78	50 - 90
1864.....	68¾- 77	77 - 92	87¾-101¾	82¾-103	73¾- 82	76 - 82	71 - 79¾	77 - 78	65 - 92	60 - 74	71 - 76½	70 - 75	60 -103
1865.....	65 - 73	65 - 70	55 - 70	60 - 73	.....	.....	60 - 60	60 - 60¼	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....

Ohio and Mississippi Railroad.

1863.....		(Certificates.)			34 - 34	32¼- 43	30 - 36	29 - 36	31 - 34¼	32 - 36	36¼- 39¼	35 - 37	30 - 43
1864.....	35¼- 37¾	35¼- 43	42¾- 66	45 - 69	40¾- 55¼	51 - 56¼	47¼- 53¼	47¼- 52	38 - 41¾	32 - 36	36¼- 39¼	34¾- 37	32 - 69
1865.....	30¾- 33¾	30¾- 30¼	21 - 29¼	20 - 31¼	21¾- 31¾	.....	29¾- 30¾	25⅛- 25¾	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....

NEW NEGOTIATIONS WITH THE INDIANS.

A series of conventions are now in progress between the authorities of United States, and the Indian bands and nations beyond the Mississippi. On the part of the Federal Government are Judge Cooley, the Commissioner of Indian Affairs, Colonel Sells, the chief of the Southern Indian Superintendency, Colonel Ely S. Parker, aid to General Grant and himself a chief of the Seneca Nation, Mr. Wistar, a Quaker gentleman who has taken a deep interest in the welfare of our aboriginal population, Mr. Mix, Mr. Irwin, and others. The purpose of the negotiations is to restore peace in all the West, and to provide eventually for the establishment of a territorial government, west of Arkansas, to which all the Indians beyond the Mississippi shall belong. This accomplished, it is believed that the further wasting of these people will be arrested, and that they will become civilised, and useful members of the body politic. Partial experiments seem to favor this judgement, and it is the part of humanity as well as of sound political economy to do all that can be done for this unfortunate people.

The example of the Iroquois of New York illustrates forcibly what even Indians, still barbarous, can accomplish by political union. Long prior to the colonisation of this continent by Europeans, the progenitors of the Six Nations dwelt in Lower Canada a single people, in vassalage to the Adirondacks. Following the example of the Turks when subject to the Avars, they attempted to win their independence, but were defeated, and like the ancient Israelites were thrust out to seek new homes. "Emerging from the mountain" near Oswego Falls, they founded their parent settlement near Onondaga Lake. Increasing in numbers, two nations separated from the parent stock, the Mohawks and Senecas. Afterwards the Oneidas and Cayugas formed distinct states. The Tuscaroras, Eries, Cats and Hurons appear also to have been of kindred stock. Warfare now began to check their growth, and a wise man among the Mohawks originated the idea of a confederacy of the nations. Five of them accordingly met at Onondaga, and framed the Constitution of the Iroquois commonwealth. Each nation remained as before, a sovereign republic divided into clans or tribes; and the sachems exercised supreme legislative and judicial authority. They were counsellors rather than magistrates, however, and their judgment, whenever it was not approved by the nation, was never enforced. The chiefs were an order of nobility, with powers of a military character.

The sachems constituted the Senate of the Romans of the New World. There were fifty of them in all—Mohawks, 9; Oneidas, 9; Onondagas, 14,; Cayugas, 10; Senecas, 8. The nations were divided into tribes or clans, and the office of sachem always remained inalienable in the tribe where it first belonged. But it never descended from father to son, because the son was by immemorial usage of a tribe different from that of his father.

These tribes were divided into two classes; the first being the Wolf, Bear, Beaver, and Turtle, and the second, the Deer, Snipe, Her-

on, and Hawk. These were common to all latitudes from Canada to Louisiana, and constituted a closer relation than that of nationality. The members of the same tribes, and indeed of the same class of tribes, were brethren, whether they were Senecas, Mohawks, or Onondagas. They were prohibited from intermarriage by reason of this consanguinity. A man must always marry out of his tribe, and his children belonged to the tribe of their mother. Hence, the League of the Iroquois was bound together by the closest ties of consanguinity which were common to all the nations. The rules of inheritance were modified by this principle. No property was transmitted from one tribe to another; and the office of Sachem, being hereditary in the tribe, was never conferred on sons, but on brothers, sister's sons, or other kindred similarly related. The whole idea of a tribe was therefore that of a lineal descent from one mother.

It was the boast of the Iroquois that the great object of their Confederacy was peace, the termination of the system of warfare that for ages had wasted the red men. They were, therefore, concentrated in a political fraternity in a manner calculated to prevent offshoots and secessions. The system was capable of an expansion sufficiently ample to include the whole Indian race. It bade fair in time to absorb all the aboriginal nations, and obtain the supremacy of the continent.

The country of the Hodenosaunee (Long House) now extended from the Hudson to the Genesee river. The cognate nations, the Hurons of Upper Canada, the Cat and Erie tribes, the Tuscaroras and others refused the alliance. It was not long before the confederated five nations were able to punish this temerity. They now numbered 70,000. Love of conquest characterised their history. The State of New York is the best situated for purposes of war of any part of the continent. Its rivers, the St. Lawrence, Hudson, Delaware, Susquehanna and Allegany give it communication by water with half North America. The war-canoes soon effected a conquest of the valley of the Hudson, Long and Manhattan Islands, the territory bordering on the Delaware, the Susquehana and its branches. The debt of vengeance was repaid to the Adirondacks with fearful interest, and all of them who were not slaughtered were compelled to flee down the St. Lawrence to the country about Quebec. Here the French settlers found the fugitives, and in an unwise moment took up their quarrel.

In two expeditions, one against the Mohawks, and one to Onondaga, the Iroquois were put to rout, and hurried to ally themselves with the Dutch, and learn the use of fire-arms. The latter were contemplating settlements in the valley of the Hudson, and wanted the friendship of the powerful nations that held the aborigines of New England in awe, and made the other Indians their tributaries.

In the year 1617, the representatives of Holland and commissioners of the five confederated nations met at the trading post out on the Tawasentha (Norman's kill) where it joins the Hudson, and formed a treaty of peace and alliance between the aboriginal inhabitants of New York and the colonists of the New Netherlands. This event, almost forgotten and generally regarded as unimportant, was destined to assure New York and the continent to the Northman race, and prevent France from obtain a firm foothold in America.

For more than a century the Iroquois "went forth conquering and to conquer." The Cat and Erie nations were destroyed, and the Hurons of Upper Canada. The Miamis, Susquehannas, Illinois, and other tribes of the Valley of the Ohio and Upper Mississippi, were subjugated; the Delawares were compelled to resign national powers; the Cherokees and Catawbas were attacked; and the confederated victors contemplated the subjugation of Powhatan and his subject nations. Their dominion extended from the St. Lawrence to the Tennessee. They compelled the French to abandon all idea of extending west of Montreal.

The Revolutionary War assured the destruction of the Confederation. Five of the six nations took up arms for the English, and were finally abandoned by them to the mercy of the Americans. The Mohawks removed to theirpossessions in Upper Canada; the Oneidas, though faithfulto their promises, were also induced to cede away their territory, tract by tract, till only a small reservation was left; the Onondagas retained land enough for homes; the Cayugas were utterly dispersed; the Senecas and Tuscaroras still have small settlements in Western New York. Although their lands had been forfeited by their folly in taking up arms, the State did not exact the penalty, but paid the Indians the full value.

The enumeration of 1865 shows their number to be as follows: Senecas, 2,681; Onondagas, 361; Oneidas, 101; St. Regis, 419. The residue of the Oneidas are in Wisconsin, and the Senecas in Kansas. The St. Regis Indians are descendants of Oneidas and Onondagas, who embraced the Roman Catholic religion, about a century ago, and removed to the north. The Oneidas are now Protestants; also many of the Onondagas, Senecas and Tuscaroras. But the original faith of the Iroquois is still maintained. Like the Magians they believe in a good and an evil deity, each having subordinate demons; also in sorcery and mesmerism, the immortality of the soul, purgatory, and the punishment of the wicked after death. They have six periodical festivals in each year, each of which is preceded by a confession of sins and at the last of which, the festival of the new year, the white dog is sacrified. Dancing is their principal form of worship.

About seventy years since a Seneca named Ganeodiyo, brother to Cornplanter, and a sachem, announced himself an apostle with a message from heaven, and succeeded in convincing all the unchristianized Iroquois. Abstinence from "fire-water," the social virtues, reverence for the old, and prohibition to sell land, which is the common property of the nation, were the principal doctrines of his evangel.

The code of the Iroquois was simple and rarely violated. Witchcraft was a capital offence; murder was punished by death if not condoned. The adulteress was publicly whipped. There were no thieves. Marriage was negotiated between the mothers; love and romance did not exist. Land was private property only while under cultivation. Stone constituted the material of their knives, hatchets and arrow-heads; bark-canoes their navy. They were fond of agriculture, and subsisted on maize, millions of bushels of which were stowed in the earth for use. They increased their numbers by adopting their captives and conquered nations. But a rejected prisoner was murdered with atrocious tortures.

Such was the race that once ruled supreme in New York. A century and a half ago the Iroquois bade fair to becomemasters of half the conti-

nent. Now they have dwindled to a few thousands. But since they have adopted a partial civilization they have increased somewhat in numbers—a proof that civilized life is the most favorable condition of human beings.

It is the judgment of those who have considered the matter, that the State of New York, abandoning the present policy of guardianship, should adopt the residue of this people as citizens. They will be more likely to become a useful population, and would hasten to adopt the customs and religion of their white neighbors. Humanity, as well as sound political economy demand this measure, and in the event that they do not migrate to new homes in the western country, it must eventually be adopted. The establishment of the Indians in a separate territory, with full rights of citizenship, will obviate the evils incident to their present dependent condition, make them useful members of society, and secure their highest improvement without amalgamating them with the white population of the country. The problem is important and our humanity demands its solution.

We therefore regard with interest the pending negotiations of the West. If successful they will terminate the state of war which now threatens all our frontiers. The Sioux, expelled from Minnesota, are now combining with their Dakotah brethren, further off, to continue hostilities indefinitely. We doubt very much whether they ever will prove tractable or willing to adopt the avocations of peace. The same must be said of the Apaches and one or two other nations. But of the others there is good reason to expect better things. They have already experienced the ill results of siding with the rebels, the abrogation of the treaties existing between them and the United States, the forfeiture of their lands, and the peril of famine and destruction. But the Federal Government has adopted the policy of clemency, and entered again into negotiations with them. Accordingly, on the 14th of September, the following treaty was made at Fort Smith, in Arkansas, between the Commissioners of the United States and the assembled tribes of Cherokees, Creeks, Choctaws, Chickasaws, Osages, Seminoles, Senecas, Shawnees and Quapaws:

"Whereas, the aforesaid nations and tribes, or bands of Indians, or portions thereof, were induced by the machinations of the emissaries of the so-called Confederate States, to throw off their allegiance to the government of the United States, and to enter into treaty stipulations with said so-called Confederate States, whereby they have made themselves liable to a forfeiture of all rights of every kind, character and description, which had been promised and guarantied to them by the United States; and whereas, the government of the United States has maintained its supremacy and authority within its limits; and whereas, it is the desire of the government to act with magnanimity with all parties deserving its clemency, and to re-establish order and legitimate authority among the Indian tribes; and, whereas the undersigned representatives or parties connected with said nations and tribes of Indians have become satisfied that it is for the general good of the people to reunite with and be restored to the relations which formerly existed between them and the United States, and as indicative of our personal feelings in the premises, and of our several nations and tribes, so far as we are authorized and empowered to speak for them; and, whereas, questions have arisen as to the status of the nations, tribes and bands that have made treaties with the enemies of the United States, which are now being discussed, and our relations settled by treaty with the United States Commissioners, now at Fort Smith for that purpose:

"The undersigned do hereby acknowledge themselves to be under the protection of the United States of America, and covenant and agree that hereafter they will in

all things recognize the government of the United States as exercising executive jurisdiction over them, and will not enter into any allegiance or conventional agreement with any state, nation, power, or sovereign whatsoever; that any treaty or alliance for session of lands, or any act heretofor done by them, or any of their people, by which they renounced their allegiance to the United States, is hereby revoked cancelled and repudiated. In consideration of the foregoing stipulations made by the members of the respective nations and tribes of Indians present, the United States, through its commissioners, promises that it will re-establish peace and friendship withall the nations and tribes of Indians, within the limits of the so-called Indian country; that it will afford ample protection for the security of persons and property of the respective nations or tribes, and declares its willingness to enter into treaties, to arrange and settle all questionsrelating to, and growing out of former treaties with such nations, as affected by any treaties made by said nations with the so called Confederate States at this council now convened for that purpose, or at such time in the future as may now be appointed."

After the treaty had been signed further delegations of rebel Indians, Comanches, Seminoles, Creeks, Washitas, Potawatamies, Cherokees, and others arrived at the fort, and joined in the negotiations, urging that their lands, annuities, and other possessions ought not to be forfeited.

On the 21st a treaty was signed by the commissioners and the Choctaws and Chickasaws, providing for peace and friendship between the United States and said tribes; that they will exert all their influence in compelling the Indians of the Plains to maintain peaceful relations with each other, with the Indians of the Territory, and with the United States; that slavery shall be abolished forever; that the freedmen shall be suitably provided for, that lands shall be issued to the Indians of Kansas and elsewhere; that the right of way shall be granted to railroads, and that the consolidation of Indian tribes, with a Territorial form of government, shall be recommended by them to their respective councils.

The same treaty has since been made between Colonel Sells and the Osages at Humboldt in Kansas. Colonel Parker and Secretary Irwin have set out for Bluff Creek, in the State of Colorado, at which place, on the 4th of October, they, together with General Sanborn, Superintendent Murphy, Kit Carson and Wm. W. Bent are to hold a grand council, and treat with Arrapohoes, Sheyennes, and other nations. Another council will be held with the purpose of bringing in the residue. The Dakotas, comprising the whole Sioux confederacy, will hold out without doubt.

The stipulations propose a grand consolidation of all Indian tribes into one nation, the territory of which shall be the present Indian Territory, and such other as the government may decide upon. The bands now living in Kansas are to be removed south, and the southwestern tribes are expected to compel the Indians of the Plains to observe the treaties. There are in Kansas, the Indian Reservations owned by the Kickapoos, Delawares, Ottawas, Shawnees, Potawatomies, Wyandots, Miamis, Weas, and Pawnees, who have removed hither from the other side of the Mississippi, and the Kaws and Osages, who are aborigines. Their lands are valuable, and the country cannot afford to trifle in the matter. This question of Western development—the bringing to the surface the latent and undeveloped wealth of the productive Far West—is becoming a question of finance. The country—with a debt on its hands of $3,000,000,000, with an annual interest of $180,000,000—cannot afford to let the minerals of the Rocky Mountain region lie concealed in the gulches and

gorges of that country, and the fertile valleys and productive prairies of Kansas and the West go untilled.

The Ottawas, formerly residing in Northwestern Ohio, will, in about two years, be admitted to the full rights of citizens of the United States. They, together with the Delawares and Shawnees, are civilized, cultivate the soil, and have a college of their own. Most of them are Baptists. The Ottawas own land individually, and will remain upon it; the Shawnees will remove, and perhaps the Senecas and Delawares, whose fertile domains tempt fearfully the cupidity of the settlers of Kansas.

The credit of these negotiations must be principally ascribed to the wisdom and humanity of the present Secretary of the Interior, Hon. Jas. Harlan. The inhabitants of the states beyond the Mississippi, excited by the barbarous outrages of the fiendish Dakotahs, were very anxious for a war of extermination against the Indians, asserting that outrages and atrocities will never cease until this is adopted and ended. But this itself would be an atrocity of the most inexcusable character. Besides the country can hardly afford to carry on an Indian war. It is the most expensive of all wars. We now have about 30,000 troops west of the Missouri River to repress the hostilities of Indian tribes. We have 10,000 cavalry near Fort Harah. To haul corn from three to six hundred miles to support our cavalry, makes it cost about five dollars per bushel. Remembering this, does it not seem worth while to think of the expense of a prolonged Indian war. As a question of dollars and cents, it would cost less to feed, as paupers, the 300,000 Indians of this country for ten years, than to fight them for twelve months, to say nothing of the humanity side of the question.

Had not the Indian agents in former times connived with dishonest traders, sharing the profits of swindling these Indians, it is more than probable that many of their atrocities would never have been committed. If Mr. Harlan succeeds in correcting this abuse, there will be no more wars, and a beneficial condition of affairs will ensue.

From these negotiations we anticipate the most favorable results. The nations with whom our Government has made treaties will check effectually the incursions of the warlike tribes of the Sioux, averting the horrors of Indian war from our borders. They have came into allegiance to the Federal Government, thus doing away with the anomaly of independant jurisdictions on the same soil, and enabling the United States to exercise over them an efficient guardianship. If the experiment about to be carried out with the Ottawas, of conferring American citizenship shall operate successfully, it will probably be extended to the other nations, especially to those like the Delawares, Senecas and Choctaws, that haveadopted a civilised life. By being included in a single territory, the inconveniences incident upon a plurality of nationalities will be obviated; they will be governed better, and acquire civilisation more rapidly. There will be no antagonism of race to hinder.

COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW.

The Rise in prices and the problem it presents—Any attempt at its solution Impracticable—The Premium on Gold considered - Effect of taxation—Increased demand for commodities—These causes Combined—The prices of 1860 and 1865 compared—Not owing to Speculation purely—If not in decreased supply, impossible to account for it—The discount market—Money on call—Prices of leading articles—Import of Dry Goods and General Summary—Statistics of Specie Movement for the month and year—Course of Exchange—Price of United States paper and gold—European investments in U. S. bonds and railroad stocks—Rise in the latter—Influence of Sir Morton Peto's visit - Renewed fluctuation in Prices recommencing—Tendency towards equalization liable to new disturbance—Increased caution in mercantile transactions recommended.

ANOTHER month devoid of stirring public events has passed away, yet commercial affairs have been anything but settled. Violent fluctuations in the prices of all kinds of commodities have successively occurred and elicited more and more attention on the part of business men. The war has now been closed for six months, the Treasury has not been increasing the currency, gold has fluctuated less than anything else, and yet the prices of other commodities are as violently agitated as when we were in the midst of war, social changes, the shifting currency, and those uncertainties of an unfathomable future which characterized the corresponding month of last year.

The principles of Political Economy, based as they are upon a state of affairs at rest, afford no sort of guide to the practical business man involved in a state of affairs in rapid motion. The statical phase, which distinguishes the present condition of that science is useless in this whirlpool of changing prices. To a state of comparative rest we know these must come at last, and then the working of those laws which govern the relations of things will be perceived; but, though these laws prevail at all times, the conditions which affect their action are at present too complex and too quickly changing to disclose deductions of any practical value to the observer. It is as though a mathematician were to attempt to pronounce upon the exact disturbance to the atmosphere which was being effected by a million of bullets projected through the air during the continuance of a modern battle. After the battle is over it will not be impossible to arrive at this result; but what will be the use of it then? Now is the time for solutions, and now is just the time when they cannot be arrived at. All sorts of opposing forces are in action. There is the currency, not changing its own volume it is true, but for that very reason constantly tending to alter prices. There is the internal revenue, every day more closely collected by the officers of government, and every day avoided and loop holed in a new direction. There is the tariff, bringing into existence new industries and destroying old ones. There is the newly opened South producing in its demands for goods and its supplies of produce, new perturbations. Finally there is all that hoarded capital which, suffered to lie fallen during the war, is now entering the markets for employment. Some from abroad and some from the chests of patriots too unconfiding to risk its employment before. These forces are all in various ways seeking their point of equalization. This point may be reached, comparatively

speaking, by all of them in the course of a single year: it may not be reached in ten years.

Meanwhile new sources of disturbance will probably arise. Congress will make new laws. Other nations will alter their internal affairs so as to invite capital still more within their borders—in fine, an increasing succession of important events may continue for a long while to come, and most likely will continue. The time has gone by when the affairs of nations remain for any length of time in *statu quo*. Change, incessant change, is the order of the day.

This being the case what likelihood is there of successfully solving the problems which beset business men on all sides, unless higher and simpler generalizations can be discovered which will embrace the complex phenomena that now surround us? None whatever; and the best business man must continue to be that one who is the quickest and the boldest. Reasoning upon extended observations, basing business operations upon a wide survey of passing events—all this must be abandoned to speculative philosophers and theorists. *They* may do something with them. They may deduce from them just the generalizations which business men require; but the latter must personally avoid this task altogether. They must confine themselves to the facts and figures which stand directly before their eyes. These are the only guides they can dare to use, and to these they must trust themselves and their interests.

Take for instance the present condition of prices as compared with those which prevailed before the war.

If we place them side by side, and calculate the advance they exhibit, we shall find that on 65 leading articles this amounts to nearly 200 per cent over and above the prices of 1860; that is to say, that if the combined value of 65 miscellaneous articles of consumption amounted to $100, they amount to-day to nearly $300. Some things have only advanced 50 or 75 per cent, while others, like cotton and cotton goods and indeed all kinds of textiles, and also like whiskey and all kinds of liquors, have advanced twelve hundred per cent. Thus, extra state flour in 1860 was $5.20; it is now $8 per bbl. an advance of only 55 per cent; but whiskey which was 18 cents per gallon is now $2 30 an advance of *over* 1200 *per cent*; the tax alone being $2, or eleven times as much as its former value. The average advance of all commodities is as we have said, nearly two hundred per cent over the prices of 1860.

Is this caused by the premium on gold? Manifestly not; for the premium on gold is only 43 per cent. Is it caused by the taxes? Manifestly not (altogether,) for the year's amount of taxes and tariff now collected by the Government is about $350,000,000. This, compared to the yearly product of the country, which has been estimated by an officer of the Treasury to be of the value of $3,750 000,000 in the currency of to-day,* is but 10 per cent, and an addition of 10 per cent to the prices of goods in 1860 will not bring them up to the prices of to day. Is it the taxes and premium of gold combined? Not so, the two together amounting to only 53 per cent advance. Is it speculation? This

* Debt and Resources of the United States, by Dr. Wm. Elder, 1863. In that year the gold premium was about the same as now.

cannot be; for the political economical law of Persistence teaches us that speculation cannot increase the sum of aggregate values; in other words, it cannot raise the prices of all things at the same time. If speculative operations are aided by increased capital or credit, that is another thing. The prices of all things may, in that case, advance simultaneously; but it is the increased currency or credit which does it, not the speculation purely. For instance, a merchant resolves to speculate for a rise in pork. He either effects his operation with currency or credit. If with currency or credit which had previously been employed in holding some other article, it is clear that that other article must fall when the currency or credit which had hitherto upheld its price is removed from it, and transferred to the upholding of pork. Consequently, the two articles cannot go up simultaneously. And if the currency or credit had previously not been employed, and had been laying dormant, then the moment that they were employed they worked an increase to the currency, and any rise in prices which resulted from their being put into action, was due to the increase in the currency which they effected, and not to the speculation simply.

Where, then, are we to look for the causes of the extraordinary inflation of prices which is now going on? That an increased demand exists for all kinds of goods everybody admits; but that a decreased supply is offered everybody denies; and yet an increased demand without a decreased supply would hardly account for the phenomenon. Suppose we add all these causes together, and see what they amount to:

Premium on gold.....per cent	43
Excise and tariff.....	10
Increased demand for commodities, say.....	20
Total.....	73

That the causes herein enumerated all tend to work an increase in prices, there is no manner of doubt; but as combined together, they only exhibit an advance of 73 per cent, whereas the increase in prices is nearly 200 per cent, there still remains over one hundred per cent of difference to be accounted for; and if this does not lie in a decreased supply, then all speculation on the subject is useless. (As to the effect of monopolies created by law, and the effect of exempting government bonds from taxation, we prefer to say nothing.) As we are assured that this is not the case, that the population of the country is increasing, that production is increasing, and that prosperity has marked us for her own; distrust all laws, all declarations, all inferences, and operate on the basis of the facts which lie nearest to you and the occurrences which happen to pass before your own eyes.

The discount market has tended lately to greater ease, and loans are being made with more freedom. The following table exhibits the rates at which prime paper is now being discounted:

DISCOUNT MARKET FOR SEPTEMBER, 1865.

Dry goods paper.....	7 @ 7½	Bankers.....	6 @ 6½
Grocers.....	7 @ 7½	Produce commission.....	8 @ 10

Money on call commands 5 to 6 per cent, and short loans of gold are effected

at the rate of one thirty-second and sometimes one-sixteenth of one per cent per diem, the demand being quite animated.

The following comparative table of the prices of several leading articles of general merchandise will exhibit the present state of the markets as compared with the two previous months:

	July 28.	Aug. 26.	Sept. 30.
Ashes, pots, 1st sort	.. @ 7 50	7 50 @ 7 62½	$7 75 @ ..
Coffee, Rio, prime	22 @ ..	21 @ 21½	18 @ 22
Cotton, N. O, mid	.. @ 48	.. @ 45	. @ 45
Flour, State, superfine	6 20 @ 6 70	6 70 @ 7 40	7 60 @ 7 95
Hay, N. R. shipping	1 00 @ 1 05	80 @ 85	70 @ 80
Nails, cut	5 00 @ ..	5 50 @ ..	.. @ ..
Petroleum, crude 40@47 grav.	34 @ 35	31½@ 32	38½@ 39½
Pork, mess, new	26 00 @27 00	31 50 @32 00	34 50 @34 75
Tobacco, Kentucky lugs	6 @ 9	7 @ ..	7 @ ..
Leather, oak (Sl.) light	33 @ 36	34 @ 38	34 @ 38
Lumber, spruce, Eastern	18 @ 20	18 @ 22	19 @ 22
Corn, white Southern	nominal.	1 10 @ 1 12	.. @ ..
Wheat, white Genesee	1 85 @ 2 15	2 15 @ 2 20	2 22 @ 2 25
Sheetings, brown, standard	32 @ 33	30 @ 3 39	35 @ 37½

The following table shows the import of dry goods at this port for the past month:

VALUE OF DRY GOODS ENTERED FOR CONSUMPTION IN SEPTEMBER 1865.

	1864.	1865.
Sept. 7	$516,778	$2,012,357
" 14	313,604	3,795,671
" 21	494,987	1,376,419
" 28	264,614	2,903,108
Total	$1,586,785	$10,087,555

WITHDRAWN FROM WAREHOUSE.

	1864.	1865.
Sept. 7	$457,022	$339,462
" 14	1,143,655	582,514
" 21	629,402	303,925
" 28	921,665	213,699
Total	$2,151,744	$1,439,600

ENTERED FOR WAREHOUSING.

	1864.	1865.
Sept. 7	$1,070,818	$141,647
" 14	316,838	224,741
" 21	516,620	517,635
" 28	653,290	226,679
Total	$2,557,566	$1,110,702

	1864.	1865.
Total entered for consumption	$1,589,983	$10,087,555
Add withdrawn from warehouse	2,151,744	1,439,600
Total thrown on the market	$3,741,727	$11,526,155
Total entered for warehousing	$2,557,566	$1,110,702
Add entered for consumption	1,589,983	10,087,555
Total entered at the port	$4,147,569	$11,198,257

The statistics of specie movements for the city of New York are as follows:

SPECIE RECEIPTS, SHIPMENTS, &C.

	1864.		1865.		
	Received.	Exported.	Received	Exported.	Gold in Bank.
July 1,.....	.....	560,677	5,012	156,578	15,854,990
" 8,.....	301,207	486,339	793,175	15,408	19,100,544
" 15,.....	.....	301,244	.....	261,846	20,500,441
" 22,.....	249,095	556,464	299.629	132,115	22,332,903
" 29,.....	.....	.....	248,629	180,715	20,773,155
Aug. 5,.....	....	90,111	.....	21,108	19,409,340
" 12,.....	.....	341,883	710,319	324,018	20,163,292
" 19,.....	571,281	48,009	147,930	245,365	19,304,636
" 26,.....	.....	206,398	1,000,900	713,164	16,028,615
Sept 2,.....	387,281	444,503	955,142	340,377	14,448,837
" 9,.....	.....	486,451	.....	422,202	13,755,824
" 16,.....	369,592	669,733	.....	358,656	14,604,159
" 23,.....	.....	1,288,659	.....	646,012	14,222,062
" 30,.....	.....	.....	2,027,144	967,971	13,643,182

The following is a statement showing the supply of specie from California, foreign countries and hoards, for the first eight months of 1865, and the corresponding period in 1864 and 1863; also the amount exported, and the amount remaining in the banks and Sub-Treasury at the end of each month:

Months, &c	Sources of Supply				Exports to for'n countries	Treasure in b'ks & Sub-Treas
	Rec'd f'm California	Foreign imports	Dom'tic hoards	Tot'l new to market		
January, 1865.....	$2,043,457	$52,268	$1,376,928	$3,472,653	$3 184 853	$30,293,250
February, "	914,735	106.704	4,181,853	5,203,292	1,023,201	34.523,340
March, "	1,668,975	242,233	799,350	2 710 567	381,913	36,851,995
April, "	2,307,025	236,492	1,372,824	3,916,341	871,249	39,897,087
May, "	1,257,651	177,085	8,882,448	10.317,184	7,245,071	42,969,200
June, "	750.469	249,732	5,529,172	6,329,373	5,199,472	44,099,101
July, "	1.092,805	253,640	4,710,940	6,357,385	723,986	49,732,500
August. "	1,676,177	182,072	2.668,542	4,526,393	1,554.398	52,404,898
September " ....—.	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Jan—Aug, 1865.....	11,711,294	1,501,295	29,332,077	42,544,676	20,194,143	52,402,898
" " 1864.....	7.776,370	1,800,924	19,337,742	22,100,464	29,915,237	33,207,799
" " 1863.....	8,853,458	1,149,890	16,403,735	26,407.128	29.366,109	38,012,019

From this statement it will be perceived that specie is being received from California at a rate exceeding that of either of the two previous years by fifty per cent; and this proportion also holds good with the supply of specie from domestic hoards. The exports, on the contrary, are one third less than in either 1863 or 1864, and the result is an accumulation in the banks and Sub Treasury of 52 millions as compared with 33 millions in 1864, and 38 millions in 1863.

The rates of exchange have ruled as follows:

RATES OF EXCHANGE IN GOLD.

	London, 60 days.	Paris, 60 days.	Amsterdam.	Frankfort.	Hamburg.	Berlin.
July 7	108 a 108⅛	5.22½ a 5.16¼	40½ a 41	40½ a 40⅞	35⅝ a 36⅛	71 a 71½
" 14	109 a 109½	5.16¼ a	40⅜ a 40⅝	40½ a 40⅝	35½ a 36	71 a 71½
" 21	108⅝ a 109	5.18¾ a	40½ a 40⅝	40½ a 40⅝	35⅝ a 35⅞	70⅝ a 71⅛
" 28	108⅝ a 109	5.18¾ a 5.17½	40½ a 40⅝	40½ a 40⅝	35⅝ a 37	70⅝ a 71⅛
Aug. 5	108½ a 108⅛	5.22½ a 5.21¼	40 a 40⅝	40 a 40⅝	35½ a 35⅝	70½ a 71
" 12	108⅞ a 109¼	5.17½ a 5.16¼	40½ a 40½	40½ a 40½	35½ a 35⅞	70½ a 71
" 19	109⅜ a 109⅞	5.15 a 5.18¾	40⅝ a 40⅞	40½ a 40⅝	35⅝ a 36¼	71 a 71⅛
" 26	109½ a 109⅝	5.16¼ a 5.15	40½ a 41	40½ a 40⅞	35⅝ a 36¼	71 a 71⅛
Sept. 2	109½ a 109⅝	5.17½ a 5.16¼	40½ a 40⅝	40⅝ a 40⅝	35⅝ a 36¼	71 a 71½
" 9	109⅝ a 109⅝	5.17½ a 5.16¼	40⅝ a 40⅞	40⅝ a 40⅝	35⅝ a 36½	70⅝ a 71⅛
" 16	109¼ a 109½	5.17½ a 5.16¼	40⅝ a 40⅞	40⅝ a 40⅝	35⅝ a 36½	70⅝ a 71⅛
" 23	109⅛ a 110	5.15 a 5.13¾	40⅝ a 41	40⅝ a 40⅞	35⅝ a 36½	71¼ a 71⅝
" 30	109½ a 110	5.18¾ a 5.15	40½ a 41¼	40½ a 41	35⅞ a 36½	71⅛ a 71⅝

An advance is observable as the month closes. This is due to the scarcity of Merchants' bills. Bankers are now drawing against gold bars and specie, and an impression is current that a heavy drain of the precious metal is a not altogether improbable circumstance. The exports of merchandise of late have largely decreased as compared with the imports, a difference of some twelve millions of dollars being observable in the business of the last quarter. To make up this deficiency, either European credit to this country must be increased or shipments of specie must occur. The latter is considered the more probable event by some, while others hold to the former opinion.

Government bonds and gold have ruled as follows :

PRICES OF UNITED STATES PAPER AND GOLD.

	6's, 1881. Reg.	6's, 1881. Coup.	5-20's, new iss. Reg.	5-20's, new iss. Coup.	10-40's.	1 year certif.	Gold price.
July 5,....	110¼	110¼	104	105	97⅛	99⅛	139⅛ a 140⅛
" 12,....	107⅛	107⅜	105	105⅜	97⅜	99⅛	140⅜ a 142
" 19,....	107⅛	107⅜	104⅜	105	97	99⅞	142¼ a 142½
" 26,....	107	107⅛	105	105⅛	97	98	143¼ a 143½
Aug. 5,....	107	107⅛	104⅞	105⅛	97⅛	97⅜	143⅜ a 143½
" 12,....	106⅛	106⅜	104⅛	104⅜	97⅛	97⅛	141⅝ a 142
" 19,....	106⅛	106⅛	104⅜	104⅞	97⅛	98⅛	143⅜ a 144⅛
" 26,....	106⅝	106⅞	104⅜	104⅞	98⅛	98⅛	144 a 144⅜
Sept. 2,....	107⅛	107⅛	104⅜	104⅞	94⅜	98⅛	144⅛ a 144⅜
" 9,....	107⅜	107⅜	105⅛	105⅜	94⅛	98⅛	144⅜ a 144⅛
" 16,....	107⅜	107⅜	105⅜	105⅛	94	98⅜	142⅜ a 143⅛
" 23,....	107⅛	108	106⅛	106⅛	94⅜	98⅜	143⅛ a 143⅜
" 30,....	107⅜	107⅜	106	107⅜	94⅛	98⅜	144 a 144⅛

The gold-bearing bonds have become very firm as gold has fallen in price, and though European advices do not show any marked appreciation of price on the other side, yet large orders appear to be continually received for them. This disposition to invest in United States securities would appear to confirm the impression of those who expect that no more specie will be shipped to make good the late excess of imports over exports, because the transmission of these bonds answers every purpose. The Secretary of the Treasury has announced that the November interest will be anticipated on the five-twenties. This occurrence, which has now become so common, will strengthen, every time it is heard, the faith of European capitalists in our Government paper.

The following table exhibits the price of railway shares :

PRICES OF RAILWAY SHARES.

	May 29.	June 29.	July 24.	Aug. 25.	Sept. 21.
New York Central	89	93½	95¼	92⅞	94
Hudson River	97	108	...	109½	109½
Erie	72⅝	77	95	87½	88
Reading	91⅝	95½	106	105⅛	109½
Mich. So. and N. I.	58	60½	66⅝	64	68
Illinois Central	117	128	...	122	129
Cleveland and Pittsburg	61	67½	71	71½	71½
Chicago and N. W.	21⅝	25	27½	27⅛	28
Chicago and R. I.	93½	98½	108½	109½	113⅜
Fort Wayne	92⅝	96	96½	96½	98⅛

A very perceptable advance is to be observed in the price of railway shares over those of last month, and yet very little business has been done by outsiders; the main portion of the operations on the stock market having been made by

brokers on their own account. The impression prevails that the visit of Sir MORTON PETO, his train of capitalists and newspaper correspondents, will have the effect of strengthening and augmenting English investments in our railway stocks and bonds, and this we consider highly probable. Under this impression the brokers believe they are merely anticipating the wants of their customers when they shall have returned from their country resorts, by going "long" in stocks during the interim.

But we are now in the midst of a new and active movement of prices, tending in various directions towards equalization, and these directions, though mainly upward for the present, may change any day to the opposite one, and the shrewdest calculations thereby be defeated. The utmost caution in all transactions is therefore to be recommended, and, in the long run, these tactics will be sure to prevail.

JOURNAL OF BANKING, CURRENCY, AND FINANCE.

The Redemption of National Bank Notes—The Latest Scheme to accomplish it—The Futility of such Measures—Time and Space cannot be Annihilated by Law—A New Loan Anticipated—$27,000,000 of Ten-forty Bonds to be put upon the Market—The Interest on the Registered Five-Twenties—Why it is not Anticipated—The Legal Tender Act Declared Unconstitutional by Supreme Court of Kentucky—What will come of it—Dates for Call Loans During the Month—Returns of New York City Banks—Increase in Discount Line—Anticipated Expansion of Commercial Credit—Returns of Philadelphia Banks—National Bank Returns—Clearing House Statement—Transactions at Sub-Treasury—Returns of Bank of England—Bank of France Returns—Commercial Inactivity in France.

THE redemption of National Bank notes at some point or points with a view to carry out the leading idea of the National Banking Law, which was to furnish a currency that would circulate at par in all parts of the country, continues to be the leading topic now on the tapis in banking circles. Both the Secretary of the Treasury and the Comptroller of the Currency have expressed the opinion that local redemption is unavoidable, and must be submitted to, and a great many people begin to think that as these officials say so, it must be so. But why have these gentlemen never admitted the impeachment before. They were told, over and over again, by the few persons who, in this country, knew anything at all about the true science of the matter, that the scheme was impossible, that money which was not a legal tender could not be at par in two places at once, and that no laws could make it worth par. Yet they strenuously denied the fact, a fact which they must have known was a fact, because it was the identical truth which filtered through every bank investigation which has ever been held in any country, and waited until when? Until the National Bank limit was exhausted, until all the National Banks which could be organized were organized, in short, until their offices were rendered as powerful and as rich of patronage as it was possible for them to be. And then they suddenly avow, with a semblance of frankness, the truth about a matter concerning which they were fully informed before.

A scheme now hails from Baltimore which undertakes to remedy the trouble by more legislation. It begins by stating that as New York is the "real center

of our monetary affairs,"—an extraordinary discovery, which they refused to look at when it was *pushed* at them in these columns two years ago—therefore, a bank of redemption should be created by Congress, to be located in New York, whose business it shall be to redeem National Bank notes. The National Redemption Bank, as it is to be called, is to be provided with an adequate capital, and with banking privileges, except the right to issue circulating notes. The capital is to be owned by all the National Banks of the United States in proportion to the amount of their respective capitals; and the managers of the institution are to be appointed by them. "To secure unanimity of action the law must be imperative to oblige all the National Banks to become stockholders."

The framer of this scheme has a refreshingly confident opinion of the importance of the law, and evidently belongs to that class of people who believe the law can make or unmake anything. But to the scheme. We reply to it thus: The scheme is impracticable; and even were it not so it would not accomplish the end in view; for the end in view is impossible, it being nothing more or less than to annihilate time and distance, which no law can do. Suppose this plan was carried out just as it is projected, what would be the result? Simply that National Bank notes would be at par in New York and at their various points of issue, *but nowhere else*. A Connecticut bank note would be quoted at one per cent discount in Texas, and a Mississippi bank note at one per cent discount in Maine. But, as we have said, the scheme itself is impracticable. The Redemption Bank is to have "banking privileges." This means the right to carry on a discount business. But wherefore? In order that it may pay its expenses; it being well known that an institution whose province was simply that of redemption, would be a charge on the institutions which supported it. And this truth is virtually conceded in the following paragraph of the scheme:

"The position which the Redemption Bank would occupy would naturally attract to it an extensive business, enabling it to realize, at least, sufficient to defray expenses, if not to yield reasonable dividends on the stock. But whether it shall yield a profit *or become a charge*, the National Banks should share either, as the object is to perfect a system on which they depend for existence."

If it is necessary to combine some other business into that of redeeming bank notes, in order that the expenses of conducting the latter may be defrayed out of the profits arising from the former, we would respectfully recommend that the Redemption Bank should incorporate into its sphere of action the manufacture of wood screws. This is a good deal more profitable than discounting mercantile paper as anybody may learn by consulting the published profits of both. For while the banks usually average a profit of six or eight per cent per annum, the wood screw manufacturers manage to declare dividends of six or eight *hundred* per cent per annum.

Seriously, it is but too plain that such an institution would be but a charge upon the National Banks that supported it, and that the extent of that charge would be more than would be the rate of discount exacted upon their notes by individual brokers. An individual business open to free competition is always less expensively conducted than a corporation enjoying a monopoly. Result of all this roundabout plan: the National Banks' notes would stand exactly where they would stand without it; that is to say, exactly where they stand now—in

a word, as uncurrent money—impossible to be rendered current until the United States can be rolled up, as a map of it could be, and all the banks brought into convenient proximity with one another.

The act of Congress authorizing the Ten-forty loan fixed the limit at two hundred millions of dollars; but the Secretary of the Treasury, finding that it interfered with the taking of the five per cent loan, discontinued it when one hundred and seventy-three millions had been issued. There is a growing probability that the remaining twenty-seven millions will shortly be put upon the market.

Many inquiries have been made why the interest due on the 1st of November upon the Five-twenty year bonds is not anticipated on registered as well as coupon bonds. The answer is, as ascertained on application at the Treasury Department, that owing to the published regulations the Department is compelled to keep the books open for transfer of registered bonds until the 1st of October, after which period considerable labor will be required to make up the necessary schedules for the payment of the interest. This will require certainly to the 15th of October, and possibly to the 20th or 25th of that month. Every effort will be made to get the schedules out as soon as possible, and when completed they will be transmited to the proper officers, with directions to commence the payment of such interest at once.

The highest court in the State of Kentucky has just decided against the constitutionality of the legal tender act. Judge Robertson, of the Court of Appeals in that State, gave the appinion of the Court, from which the following is an extract:

Whenever a jurist inquires whether a statute is consistent with the State constitution, he looks into that constitution, not for a grant, but only for some limitation of the power inherent in the peoples' legislative organ, so far as not forbidden by their organic law.

But as Congress derives its power from grants by the people of pre-existing State sovereignties, an enlightened inquirer into the constitutionality of any of its acts, looks only to a delegation of power by the federal constitution; for that constitution expressly declares that all power not delegated by it, is reserved to the States or the people. In this class of cases, therefore, he who asserts the power, holds the affirmative, and unless he "maintains it," the controverted act should not be enforced as law by the judiciary. On the contrary, the party affirming that a legislative act of a State is prohibited by the State constitution, must prove it, and unless the proof be clear the contested act must be admitted to be law. The distinctive difference between the two classes of cases is that, in the former, the power must be shown to have been delegated, but in the latter it must appear to have been proibited.

And in this case, therefore, the power to pass the tender act must satisfactorily appear to have been delegated, before the judiciary should recognize and enforce it.

We apprehend that nothing will come of this decision but an appeal which will reverse it.

The rates for call loans during the month have not fluctuated, six per cent having been the ruling figure throughout, with exceptions at five and seven.

The following are the returns of the New York City Banks:

NEW YORK CITY BANKS.

(*Capital, Jan.*, 1864, $69,494,577; *Jan.*, 1865, $69,658,737; *April*, $76,658,737.)

Date.	Loans.	Specie.	Legal tender.	Circulation.	Net Deposits.	Clearings.
July 1,	216,556,421	15,554,990	60,904,464	5,818,445	191,656,778	473,720,318
" 8,	218,541,975	19,100,590	62,519,708	2,001,774	198,199,005	875,504,141
" 15,	221,286,052	20,400,441	60,054,646	6,250,945	200,420,283	550,959,312

Date.	Loans.	Specie.	Legal tender.	Circulation.	Net Deposits.	Clearings.
July 22,	222,960,205	22,382,903	52,756,229	6,589,766	193,790,096	$17,174 950
" 29.	22",341,766	20,773,115	46,956,782	7,085,454	186,766,671	494 854,159
Aug. 5,	219,102,793	19,400,380	43,561 973	7,656,370	178,247,674	576,961,325
" 12,	215,409,342	20,163,292	43,006,428	8,050,361	175,738,185	463,483,275
" 19,	210,827,581	19,604,636	45,588,980	7,639,575	174,593,016	492 697,782
" 26,	209,423,305	16,023,615	54,249,806	7,982,414	179,083,676	372,124,309
Sept. 2,	211,394,370	14,443,827	57,241,739	8,509,175	180,316,658	395,963,678
" 9,	214,189,842	13,755,824	56,320,734	8,811,142	179,353,511	434,257,375
" 16,	215,552,381	14,604,159	53,153,285	9,104,550	177,501,785	427,195,276
" 23,	215,879,454	14,222,062	54.018,475	9,294.805	177,420.789	393,503,366
" 30,	221,818,640	13,643,182	57,665,674	10,645,697	183,830,716	463,352,113

From which it will be seen that both circulation and loans are increasing steadily, a sure sign of expansion in credit; an event which, notwithstanding all the prognostications of jobbing houses who desire to continue the profitable and secure cash trade which they have of late been transacting, is foreshadowed by other indications than this one. Dry goods and foreign paper are particularly active.

The following statement shows the operations of the Bank Clearing House for the weeks corresponding with those for which the above bank averages are given:

	Clearings		Balances	
Weeks ending	Total of week.	Daily averages.	Total of week.	Daily averages.
July 1.....	$478,720,318	$79,953,386	$17,883,010	$2,980,501
" 8.....	375,504,141	62,581,023	18,234,535	3,039,091
" 15.....	550,959,312	91,826,552	20,150,787	3,358,464
" 22.....	517,174,956	86,195,826	22,896,080	3,732,680
" 29.....	494,854,139	82,475,622	18,577,262	3,066,210
Aug. 5.....	576,961,325	96,161,221	21,707,926	3,617,987
" 12.....	463,483,276	77,247,212	19,374,247	2,229,041
" 19.....	492,697,782	82,116,297	19,132,977	3,188,829
" 26.....	372,124,310	62,020,728	19,720,181	3,287,688
Sept. 2.....	395,963,697	65,993,946	18,944,140	3,157,356
" 9.....	434,251,376	72,208,563	17,976,061	2,996,010
" 16.....	427,195,277	71,199,213	17,562,813	2,927,135
" 23.....	393,503,666	65,583,944	18,551,060	3,092,243
" 30.....	463,352,113	77,225,352	19,484,342	3,247,390

The daily average clearings for the corresponding weeks of the year 1865-60 were as follows:

	1865.	1864.	1863.	1862.	1861.	1860.
July 1.	$78,953,386	$73,806,727	$53,552,155	$29,949,785	$17,664,446	$26,542,928
" 8..	62,534,023	56,086,914	53,324,275	27,964,954	14,398,848	23,456,448
" 15..	91.826,552	77,687,568	41,861,462	27,964,934	14,397,981	22,918,795
" 22..	86,195,826	67,190,691	47,447,403	27,108,468	14,327,511	21,239,451
" 29..	82,475,690	66,573,288	48,701,970	24,861,271	13,569,254	23,417,789
Aug 5..	96,161,221	78,481,149	49,897,334	23,321,046	13,402,889	22,626,029
" 12..	77,247,212	65,768,278	49,822,693	23,290,485	13,362,112	22,934,355
" 19..	82,116,297	62,333,464	62,292,630	24,609,848	13,824,338	22,433,949
" 26..	62,020,728	67,716,745	65,400,780	25,145,861	13,434,385	22,561,086
Sept 2.	65,993,676	72,780,320	65,802,385	25,679,147	14,843,149	24,072,406
" 9.	72,208,563	72,632,689	61,218,427	25,968,874	12,935,179	24,251,873
" 16.	71,199,213	83,031,957	57,210,658	29,946,942	16,184,070	25,502,240
" 23.	65,583,944	76,870,288	59,034,671	32,813,178	17,137,103	25,133,775
" 30.	77,225,352	90,514,076	62,505,489	39,835,577	18,447,896	28,104,324

The following are the returns of the Philadelphia Banks;

PHILADELPHIA BANKS.

(*Capital, Jan.*, 1863, $11,740,080; 1865, $13,315,720; *Feb.*, 1865, $14,485,450.)

Date. 1836.	Loans.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Legal tenders.
July 3,...	$50,149,649	$1,216,243	$6,888,488	$39,127,801	.....
" 10,...	50,188,778	1,137,700	6,758,585	41,344,056	....
" 17,...	50,221,528	1,152,911	6,821,938	43,966,927	....
" 24,...	52,454,760	1,154,537	6,886,449	46,166,928	$19,413,864
" 31,...	53,877,799	1,158,070	6,941,625	49,121,554	21,328,122
Aug 7,...	54,857,695	1,154,005	6,936,662	47,762,160	21,219,466
" 14,...	54,529,718	1,153,931	6,989,217	44,561,719	20,845,048
" 22, ..	51,920,580	1,160,222	7,076,587	41,348,173	20,561,063
" 29,...	50,577,243	1,155,197	6,983,523	38,864,910	19,640,768
Sept. 4,...	50,096,499	1,100,242	6,980,826	38,417,473	19,088,164
" 11,...	49,698,065	1,079,685	7,007,727	37,082,478	17,695,755

No change is indicated in these returns worthy of comment, except the decrease in legal tenders, an event of no great importance considering its amount.

The following table exhibits the number, capital, and circulation of the National Banks:

NATIONAL BANKS.

Date.	Banks.	Capital.	Circulation.
July 1, ...	1,378	$340,938,000	$146,927,975
" 8, ...	1,410	356,280,986	149,098,605
" 15, ...	1,447	364,020,756	154,120,015
" 22, ...	1,481	372,688,756	157,907,665
Aug. 5, ...	1,504	377,574,281	165,794,440
" 12, ...	1,523	379,781,701	169,593,960
" 19, ...	1,530	390,000,000	172,864,460
" 26, ...	1,534	392,614,383	175,165,690
Sept. 2, ...	1,549	394,104,383	177,487,220
" 9, ...	1,556	394,960,383	179,981,520
" 16, ...	1,560	395,310,383	183,402,870
" 23, ...	1,567	397,066,701	186,081,720

The following is the Clearing-house statement:

CLEARING-HOUSE STATEMENT, SEPT. 25.

Exchanges	$83,349,497
Balances	3,184,585

The transactions for last week of the month at the Custom-house and Sub-treasury were as follows:

	Custom-House. Receipts.	Sub-Treasury. Payments.	Sub-Treasury. Receipts.
Sept. 18	$892,887 91	$8,466,283 91	$2,223,623 15
Sept. 19	794,417 31	3,999,828 18	5,582,436 35
Sept. 20	468,705 61	3,576,574 36	3,711,639 71
Sept. 21	404,298 27	1,018,072 21	2,078,627 18
Sept. 22	585,842 77	2,672,946 62	2,411,389 69
Sept. 23	353,199 06	3,969,156 21	11,473 829 38
Total	$2,999,350 93	$23,696,866 49	$27,426,545 46
Balance in Sub-treasury morning of Sept. 18			$71,340,775 10
			$98,767 320 56
Deduct payments during the week			23,696,866 49
Balance at Saturday evening Sept. 25, 1865			$75,070,454 07
Increase during the week			3,729,678 97

The following are the returns of the Bank of England:

THE BANK OF ENGLAND RETURNS (IN POUNDS STERLING).

Date. 1865.	Circulation.	Public Deposits.	Private Deposits.	Securities.	Coin and Bullion.	Rate of Discount
July 5,...	42,717,616	9,348,667	14,418,335	33,529,456	15,099,943	3 "
" 12,...	22,948,563	4,590,283	16,229,845	31,559,914	14,561,150	3 "
" 19,...	22,789,408	4,932,103	14,894,217	30,992,455	15,083,867	3 "
" 26,...	22,590,254	4,770,902	15,989,813	32,181,100	13,603,050	3½ "
Aug. 2,...	23,203,757	5,214,377	14,681,727	31,054,027	13,603,815	3½ "
" 9,...	23,831,857	5,264,739	14,688,181	31,726,066	13,345,060	4 "
" 16,...	23,887,419	5,826,453	14,962,787	32,071,253	13,242,850	4 "
" 23,...	23,677,980	5,582,243	14,714,585	31,798 138	13,270,775	4 "
" 30,...	22,182,681	6,094,785	14,492,034	31,737,925	14,489,612	4 "
Sept. 6,...	22,236,008	5,985,710	14,207,995	31,816,545	14,322,275	4 "
" 13,...	21,949,755	6,321,640	13,860,979	31,724,718	14,155,579	4 "

The following are the returns of the Bank of France:

BANK OF FRANCE.

	Loans.	Cash and Bullion.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Interest.
July 6	591,852,987	521,352,745	859,170,675	221,419,987	3½
" 13	594,467,935	498,683,812	884,390,925	188,481,698	3½
" 20	601,711,488	493,997,271	899,347,175	179,478,477	3½
" 27	610,976,748	494,212,841	898,722,675	199,182,020	3½
August 3	629,185,610	493,250,442	898,888,075	219,283,186	3½
" 10	619,750,846	486,867,696	897,359,925	200,211,070	3½
" 17	623,258,456	488,170,183	877,349,725	202,158,615	3½
" 24	591,746,248	500,449,290	879,829,825	189,886,513	3½
" 31	637,672,4 3	498,958,920	916,501,325	192 331,850	3½
September 7	585,602,649	503,716,344	849,749,975	217,738,826	3½
" 14	579,090,374	499,224,478	850,146,625	209,987,979	3

The returns exhibit a decrease in commercial activity in a heaping up of deposits, a decline in loans and a steady increase of cash and bullion. In a financial point of view, however, they render the bank so much more safe and free from the consequences of any monetary *coup d'etats* which may be impending.

THE UNITED STATES DEBT.

We give below the statement of the Public Debt, prepared from the reports of the Secretary of the Treasury, for July, August, and September, 1865.

DEBT BEARING INTEREST IN COIN.

Denominations.	July 31	August 31.	September 30
6 per cent, due December 31, 1867.....	$9,415,250	$9,415,250	$9,415,250
6 do July 1, 1868.....	8,908,343	8,908,343	8,908,343
5 do January 1, 1874.....	20,000,000	20,000,000	20,000,000
5 do January 1, 1871.....	7,022,000	7,022,000	7,022,000
6 do December 31, 1880.....	18,415,000	18,415,000	18,415,000
6 do June 30, 1881.....	50,000,000	50,000,000	50,000,000
6 do June 30, 1881, exch'ed for 7.30s	139,546,450	139,194,000	139,531,000
6 do May 1, 1867–82 (5.20 years).....	514,780,500	514,880,500	514,780,500
6 do November 1, 1869–84 (5.20 years)	91,789,000	91,789,000	100,000,000
5 do March 1, 1874–1904 (10.40s)....	172,770,100	172,770,100	172,770,100
6 do July 1, '81 (Oregon war).....	1,016,000	1,0 6,000	1,016,000
6 do June 30, 1881.....	75,000,000	75,000,000	75,000,000
Aggregate of debt bearing coin interest.....	$1,108,663,142	$1,108,310,192	$1,116,638,193

DEBT BEARING INTEREST IN LAWFUL MONEY.

4 per cent	Temporary Loan	10 days' notice.	.....	$646,936	$618,128
6 do	do	do	.....	23,869,263	35,429,396
5 do	do	do	.....	74,570,641	71,101,187
6 do	Certificates (one year).....			106,706,000	85,093,000
5 do	One and two-years' notes.....			39,954,280	32,954,280
6 do	Three years' comp. interest notes...			212,121,470	217,694,160
6 do	Thirty-year bonds, (Union Pacific R.)			1,258,000	1,258,000
7.30 do	Three years' treasury notes, 1st series			300,000,000	300,000,000
7.30 do	do	do	2d series	300,000,000	300,000,000
7.30 do	do	do	3d series	230,000,000	230,000,000
Aggregate of debt bearing lawful money int...				$1,269,156,545	$1,274,478,103

DEBT ON WHICH INTEREST HAS CEASED.			
7.30 per cent Three years' notes	$358,550	$334,450	$322,250
do Texas Indemnity bonds	639,000	839,000	760,000
Other bonds and notes	329,570	329,570	307,070
Aggregate of debt on which int. has ceased	$1,527,120	$1,503,020	$1,389,320
DEBT BEARING NO INTEREST.			
United States Notes	$400,000,000	$400,000,000	$400,000,000
do do (in redemp. of the temp loan)	33,160,569	33,160,569	28,160,569
Fractional currency	25,750,032	26,344,742	26,487,755
Currency	$458,910,601	$459,505,311	$454,648,324
Uncalled for pay requisitions	15 736,000	2,111,000	1,220,000
Aggregate of debt bearing no interest	$474,646,601	$461,646,601	$455.868,324
Amount in Treasury—			
Coin	$35,337,357	$45,435,771	$32,740,789
Currency	81,401,774	42,782,284	56,236,441
Total in Treasury	$116,739,632	$88,218,055	$88,977,230
RECAPITULATION.			
Debt bearing interest in coin	$1,108,662,647	$1,108,310.192	$1,116,658,192
Debt bearing interest in lawful money	1,289,156,545	1,274,488,103	1,260,008,120
Debt on which interest has ceased	1,527,120	1,503,020	1,389,320
Debt bearing no interest (currency)	458,910,601	459,505,311	454,648,324
Uncalled for requisitions	15,736,000	2 111,000	1,220,000
Aggregate debts of all kinds	$2,874,092,908	$2,845,907,656	$2,744,947,736
Cash in treasury	116,739,632	88,218,025	88,977,230
ANNUAL INTEREST PAYABLE ON DEBT.			
Payable in gold	$64,521,837	$64,500,500	$65,001,570
Payable in lawful money	78,740,631	73,531,038	72,527,646
Aggregate amount of int. payable annually—not including int. on the 3 years' comp. int. notes, which is payable only at maturity.	$139,262,368	$138,031,628	$137,529,216
LEGAL TENDER NOTES IN CIRCULATION.			
One and two years' 5 per cent notes	$39,955,230	$33,954,230	$32,954,230
United States notes (currency)	433,160,569	433,160,569	428,160,569
Three years' 6 per cent compound int. notes	212,121,470	217,024,160	217,012,141
Aggregate legal tender notes in circulation	$685,236,269	$684,138,059	$678,126,940

COURSE OF GOLD, SEPTEMBER, 1865.

The following table shows the fluctuations of gold daily during the month of September, and monthly since January 1, 1865:

DATE	Open'ng	Highest	Lowest	Closing	DATE	Open'ng	Highest	Lowest	Closing
Sept. 1	144¾	145	144¾	145¾	Sept 18	148¾	148¾	148¾	148¾
" 2	144¾	144¾	144¾	144⅝	" 19	148¾	144	148¼	148¾
" 4	144	144¾	143⅞	144⅛	" 20	148⅞	144	148¾	148⅞
" 5	144¼	144¾	141½	144¾	" 21	148⅞	144¾	143⅞	144¾
" 6	144⅝	145	144¾	144⅞	" 22	148¾	148⅞	148¾	148¾
" 7	144⅞	144⅞	144⅝	144⅝	" 23	148¾	148¾	148¼	148¾
" 8	144¾	144⅝	144¾	144¾	" 25	148¾	144⅞	148	148¾
" 9	144¾	144¾	144¾	144¾	" 26	144¾	148⅞	148¾	148⅝
" 11	144¾	144⅝	144¾	144¾	" 27	144¼	144¾	148⅞	144
" 12	144¾	144¼	148¾	144⅞	" 28	144¼	144¼	144⅞	144
" 13	148⅝	148¾	148¼	148¾	" 29	148⅞	144⅞	144⅞	144¼
" 14	148¾	148¾	144¼	148¾	" 30	144	144¾	144	144¾
" 15	148¾	148¼	144⅝	142¾					
" 16	142¾	148¼	142¾	143¾	Month	144¾	145	142⅝	144¾

The monthly fluctuations since the commencement of the year have been as follows:

January	2 6	284¾	197¾	204¾	July	141	146¾	188⅝	144
Feb. uary	202¾	216¾	198¾	2 2	August	144¾	145¾	140¾	144⅝
March	200¾	201	148¼	157¾	September	144¾	145	142⅝	44¾
April	151	154¼	143¾	146¾					
May	145¾	145¼	128¾	187¾	Nine months	226	234¾	128¾	141¾
June	137¾	147¾	135¾	141¾					

COMMERCIAL AND INDUSTRIAL STATISTICS.

COMMERCE OF CINCINNATI.

The annual statement of the commerce of Cincinnati, reported to the Chamber of Commerce of that city, gives the following comparison of imports and exports for the past five years, ending August 31:

	Imports.	Exports.
1860–61	$90,198,186	$67,[illegible]38,136
1861–62	105,252,893	76,449,962
1862–63	144,189,213	102,997,171
1863–64	389,790,537	239,979,815
1864–65	307,552,397	293,[illegible]80,317

It will be seen that the value of both the imports and exports, the past year, fall far short of that of the previous year, which, it is hardly necessary to say, is owing in chief to the general decline in prices. That there has been a large increase in the value of commerce the last ten years, is seen by reducing the value the past year to a gold basis, and it will be found that it vastly exceeds what the value of the imports was before the war, even taking the highest figures, which were those of 1859–60. Now, the average premium on gold for the past year was a fraction over 87 per cent, and by making the proper deduction, as shown by this premium, from the aggregate value of the imports as given above, it reduces it to $181,452,915, which is $78,105,699 more than the value of the imports in 1859-60, the largest of any year before the war.

The following table shows the imports and exports of provisions the last six years, each year ending August 31:

IMPORTS.

	Pork & Bacon, hhds.	Pork, tcs.	Pork, bbls.	Pork, lbs.	Lard, bbls.	Lard, kgs.
1860	4,602	2,882	25,456	23,250,222	47,499	14,519
1861	5,136	6,459	37,447	21,912,769	50,362	12,745
1862	10,082	8,879	46,903	28,7[illegible]8,694	99,085	33,532
1863	8,443	10,861	47,457	33,215,723	98,707	11,809
1864	5,353	7,178	41,412	20,169,052	58,828	5,327
1865	4,918	6,810	38,642	10,868,538	55,556	6,450

EXPORTS.

1860	52,532	39,833	101,847	345,932	60,658	55,701
1861	47,861	32,251	121,635	7[illegible]6,571	100,806	46,643
1862	39,458	40,965	86,363	2,038,393	139,596	61,552
1863	27,746	53,735	123,900	700,881	144,147	33,699
1864	34,759	31,549	136,126	1,810,875	82,836	13,028
1865	27,727	37,440	86,061	1,124,758	64,011	17,674

MOBILE COTTON ESTIMATES.

The Mobile *Advertiser and Register* of September 3d publishes the following statement of the cotton trade of that port for the year ending August 31:

Stock on hand and on shipboard not cleared	24,290
Exported to Great Britain	5,755
Exported to United States ports	51,350
Burned and destroyed by explosion	11,410
Total	93,305

Deduct stock on hand September 1, 1864	18,000
Leave net receipts	75 305

The shipment to foreign (trans-oceanic) ports (5,755 bales) weigh 2,845,706 pounds, and are valued at $939 976: making the average weight per bale of 494 64 pounds, the value $163 33 per bale, and the average cost 33c. per pound.

Those who have been in the South during the four past years of war and blockade, and consequent derangement of the whole commercial and political condition of the country, can readily perceive the great embarrassment under which we labor in attempting to make up an annual statement of trade and commerce such as has been our custom to present to our readers in years past. Most of the more important tables being comparative, and being entirely without the proper data from which they can be made up, we have been obliged to omit them altogether.

As might be expected, the general trade, or rather speculation, was confined to the actual necessaries of life, with what few goods and luxuries could be smuggled through the lines and run through the blockade. The latter source of supply was entirely cut off after the occupation of the lower bay by the federal navy, August, 1864. Since the occupation of the city, cotton has come down rapidly, and been sold at unprecedentedly high figures.

Persons competent to judge estimate the cotton in the South at one million to one million five hundred thousand bales, and the growing crop at three hundred to five hundred thousand bales. Say thirteen hundred thousand to two millions bales, including the growing crop. Of this it is believed that at least four to five hundred thousand will be required for northern manufactories, leaving but 1 200,000 to 1,500,000 for all Europe.

Other parties, who have good facilities for knowing, do not estimate the cotton in the South at the date of the occupation of the county by the federal army (including the growing crop), at over 1,200,000 to 1,500 000.

From the best information at our command, we are inclined to the belief that the latter estimate will be found pretty nearly correct. In consequence of the very bad condition of the cotton throughout the country, it is believed at least one-tenth will be lost and found useless. Considerable cotton planted and matured will also be lost, from the fact that planters find it impossible, under the present labor system, to get the negroes to remain and gather it. This must be taken into consideration in the above estimate.

The same difficulty experienced at the date of our last annual review, concerning the data and speculations as to the cotton crop maturing, exists now. All that is known is, that it will be very small, and fall below the figures of any crop grown during the past forty years. In fact, from the best of the very limited information at our command, we think scarcely enough will be made to supply the ordinary demand that formerly existed for seed throughout the state. The unfortunate events the country has just passed through, and the almost entire breaking up of our labor system, at a time when it was of vital importance to the country for the production of the staple which has been the support of the South, and heretofore king of trade, has tended to disorganize the farming and

planting interest to such an extent that years may elapse before we can return again to days of plenty and prosperity.

We insert the annexed table showing the first receipts of new cotton for the last twenty years, with total crops respectively. Only one bale has been received here this season by J E. Curran & Co., and bought by D. E. Huger at 50c.:

1864-65, Aug. 20—1 bale—Liverpool Fair	75,306
1863-64	....
1862-63	....
1861-62	....
1860-61, July 22—1 bale—Strict Middling	549.441
1859-60, Aug. 11—1 bale—Low Middling	848,012
1858-59, Aug. 4—1 bale—Low Middling	704,403
1857-58, Aug. 22—1 bale—Middling	522,844
1856-57, Aug. 9—1 bale—Middling Fair	503,177
1855-56, Aug. 5—4 bales—Strict to Good Middling	659,733
1854-55, Aug. 7—4 bales—Strict Middling to Good Middling	454,597
1853-54, Aug. 7—1 bale—Middling Fair	538,116
1852-53, Aug. 19—2 bales—Middling Fair to Strict Middling Fair	546,518
1851-52, Aug. 7—1 bale—Middling Fair	549,777
1850-51, Aug. 11—1 bale—Middling Fair	451,696
1849-50, Aug. 16—2 bales—Strict Good Middling to Strict Fair	350,290
1848-49, Aug. 7—2 bales—Middling to Middling Fair	317,345
1847-48. Aug. 19—1 bale—Good Middling to Middling Fair	438,321
1846-47, Aug. 18—1 bale—Fair	342,510
1845-46, July 25—1 bale—Middling Fair to Fair	421,665
1844-45, Aug. 1—3 bales—Middling Fair to Fair	317,559

COTTON AND WOOL MANUFACTURES.

THE census of the United States for 1860, now being made up for publication, gives the following returns of the cotton and woolen manufactures of New England:

	Cotton goods.	Woolen goods.
Capital	$15,147,819	$13,077,355
Establishments	359	365
Cost of material used	34,559,883	23,978,431
Hands employed.....males.	29,584	14,470
do do ..... females.	49,045	10,350
Cost of labor	15,702,888	5,954,186
Value of Products	73,559,883	39,158,471

The manufacture of woolen goods in the Middle States is thus set forth in the returns: Annual value of production, $15.905 925; cost of material consumed, $8,743 491; number of hands employed, 7.098 males, and 4,540 females; expense of labor, $2,720,711; number of establishments, 476; capital invested, $8.473,610.

The manufacture of worsted goods, consisting of all wool and cotton wrap, mousseline delaine, barèges, cashmeres, etc., for ladies' dresses, is mainly carried on in three establishments in the United States. These are the Manchester Print Works in New Hampshire, the Pacific Mills at Lawrence, and the Hamilton Woolen Company's works at Southbridge, in Massachusetts. The products of the aforesaid establishments in 1864 was 22,750,000 yards; the annual value of the products, $3,710,375; annual cost of labor, $543 684; female hands employed, 1,278; male hands employed, 1,101; sets of cards, 110; cost of all raw meterial used, $2.442,775, pounds of cotton used, 1,653,000, pounds of wool, 3,000,000; capital invested, $3,230,000.

TRADE OF CANADA.

THE customs returns of Canada for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1865, have been submitted to Parliament. From this document we collect the following facts. There was imported during the year from—

	Great Britain.	United States.	Duty received.
Paying specific duties	$21,625	$51,508	$34,561
Specific and ad valorem	999,556	1,383,073	1,760,264
30 per ct. ad valorem	88,538	64,827	51,998
25 per ct. ad valorem	101,163	70,171	85,039
20 per ct. ad valorem	14,649,394	2,246,519	3,591,147
15 per ct. ad valorem	1,340	1,174	377
10 per ct. ad valorem	1,914,748	277,511	220,189
Free Goods, Coin, Bullion	....	4,768 478	....
Other free goods	3,260,098	10,829,351	....
Total	$21,035,871	$19,534,107	$5,663,377

The following table will exhibit the difference in imports between the years ending July 1st, 1864, and July 1st, 1865:

1864.	Value.	Duty.
Specific duty and 100, 40 and 30 per cent. ad valorem	$5.102 733	$8,873,960
Twenty five per cent. ad valorem	196,586	32.404
Twenty and fifteen per cent. ad valorem	20,131,922	3,954.970
Ten per cent ad valorem	2,222,053	220,734
Free goods, coin, bullion	5,049,957	....
Other free goods	17,044,022	....
Foreign reprints of British copyrights	6,191	....
Total	$49,753,469	$6,081,919

1865.	Value.	Duty.
Specific duty and 100, 40 and 30 per cent. ad valorem	$4,752.141	$1,846,623
Twenty-five per cent. ad valorum	182,011	85,039
Twenty and fifteen per cent. ad valorem	18,117,892	3,561,524
Ten per cent. ad valorem	2,216,653	220,189
Free goods, coin, bullion	4,768,478	.....
Other free goods	14,538,931	.....
Foreign reprints of British copyrights	4.918	.....
Total	$44,720,469	$5,663,377

Showing a falling off in the revenue receipts of $418,688 over the same period in the previous year, notwithstanding some articles were charged at a higher rate of duty in 1864-65.

INDIAN RUBBER AND GUTTA PERCHA MANUFACTURES.

THE census returns for 1860 exhibit the peculiar interest involved in the manufacture of India rubber in the States of New York, Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut, as follows: Annual product, $5.642,700, cost of labor, $794.570, male hands employed, 1.795, female hands employed, 973, cost of material $3,056,360; capital invested, $3.534,000. In addition two establishments, $100,000 capital, cost of raw material $69 000; male hands employed, 34; cost of labor $21.600; annual value of product, $125.750, from the manufacture of gutta-percha goods in the State of New York.

STATE AND MUNICIPAL FINANCE STATISTICS.

FINANCES OF MICHIGAN.

Michigan is asking a loan of $700,000, to fund its war bounty bonds of March, 1864. These bonds will bear 7 per cent. interest, payable semi-annually, and are payable at the pleasure of the State after the expiration of twenty five years from May 1. 1865.

The existing debt of the State on the 30th November, 1864, amounted to $3 511.149 as follows:

Canal loan bonds,	6 p. c.,	due Jan. 1,	1878		$100,000
Renewal "	6 p. c.,	" "	"		216,000
$2,000,000 "	7 p c.,	" "	1868		250,000
" "	6 p. c.,	" "	1873		500,000
" "	6 p. c.,	" "	1878		500,000
" "	6 p. c.,	" "	1883		750,000
War "	7 p. c.,	" "	1886		1,122,000
Total paying interest					$3,438,000

And the following non-interest paying—

Adjusted bonds	$9,000	
$5,000,000 loan bonds	12,000	
War loan bonds, called in	1,150	
Part paid $5,000,000 loan, unrecognized, $140,000, adjustable for	80,999—	103,149
Total funded debt		$3,541,149

The receipts into the treasury for the fiscal year ending Nov. 30, 1864, amounted to the sum of $2,444,242

And the expenditures to 2,004,194

Leaving a surplus of $440,048

The ability of this State to meet promptly all its liabilities is fully made out by the following comparative statistics:

POPULATION AND VALUATION.

Year.	Population.	Valuation.	Wealth p Cap.
1840	212,267	$87,884,024	$[illegible]75
1850	397,965	74,968,344	188
1860	751,110	262,785,750	349
1865	820,000	319,872,305	390

TAXATION.

Year.	Direct taxes — Rate.	Direct taxes — Amount.	Specific Taxes.	Total Amount.
1840	2.00 M. per $1	$58,296	$3,852	$62,145
1850	3.55 " "	110,803	85,855	196,658
1860	2.79 " "	464,166	196,000	66[illegible],166
1865	2.73 " "	470,001	375,[illegible]10	845[illegible]15

The development of production in the State is shown in the following summary of its principal staples:

Staples.	1840.	1850.	1860.
Wheat, bush	2,157,108	4,893 141	8,1[illegible]6[illegible]3
Wool, lbs	158,375	2,007,593	3,929,113
Indian corn, bush	4,553,128	8,197,178	17,783,739
Sawed Timber, feet	.....	301,157,500	795,606,998
Butter, lbs	.....	7,056,478	15,498,047
Hay, tons	113,805	421,070	761,156
Sheep	29,618	756,382	1,266,980
Neat cattle	185,190	270,803	432,994

The ultimate redemption of the debt is amply provided for by a sinking fund.

FUNDED DEBT OF RHODE ISLAND.

The following is an official statement of the funded debt of this State, with the date of the passage of the authorizing act, the rate of interest, time of payment, &c. The whole has been accumulated for war purposes:

Date of act.	Amount of debt. Authorized.	Issued.	Interest. Rate.	Payable.	Principal payable.
August, 1861	$500,000	$500,000	6	May & Nov.	Oct. 1, 1871
August, 1862	1,200,000	1,200,000	6	Mar & Sep.	Sep. 1, 1871
January, 1863	300, 00	300,000	6	Apr & Oct.	Apr 1, 1883
June, 1863	1,000,000	1,000,000	6	Jan & July	Jan. 1, 1893
May, 1864	1,000,000	1,000,000	6	Feb & Aug.	Feb 1, 1894
January, 1865	1,000,000	none	6	Feb & Aug.	Feb. 1, 1895

There is no probability of any of the last million being issued. The Hon. Samuel A. Parker, General Treasurer, through whose attention we received the above, remarks: "There has been no regular sinking fund provided for the extinction of the debt, but from a law passed by the General Assembly, authorizing any surplus money in the Treasury to be used for the purchase of the bonds, it is thought, and there is no doubt of it, that after another year the State will be in the market as a purchaser, and that before the time expires for the payment of them they will all be retired."

RAILWAY, CANAL, AND TELEGRAPH STATISTICS.

CONNECTING RAILROAD, PHILADELPHIA.

The Pennsylvania Railroad Company is offering six per cent mortgage bonds of the Connecting Railroad Company, between the station of the Pennsylvania Railroad Company, in West Philadelphia and Frankford, a distance of seven miles. The bonds are in sums of $1,000, with interest coupons attached, payable on the 15th day of March and September, the principal payable in five equal amounts at the rate of $200,000 per annum, the first series on September 15. A. D 1900. The principal and interest are secured by a mortgage of $1.000 000 upon all the railway and property of the company, and are guaranteed by the Pennsylvania Railroad Company, free of state taxes. This road perfects the connection between the Pennsylvania Railroad and the New York lines. The Philadelphia and Trenton Railroad leases the road, and agrees to pay an annual rent for nine hundred and ninety nine years of six per centum upon the cost of the road clear of taxes.

PORTAGE LAKE SHIP CANAL.

The importance of Portage Lake is entirely due to the enlargement of the Entry, so that it could admit all vessels in the Lake Superior trade. Steps are now taking to supplement this work by cutting a canal from the head of the lake to Lake Superior on the west of Keweenaw Point. Portage Lake reaches entirely across the peninsula to within about a half mile of Lake Superior, this distance constituting the old portage of the Indians, *voyageurs* and early settlers. At some past age, there was evidently a channel clear through, as the Mineral Range is wholly broken at this point, and the filling in has been plainly done by sand, deposited by the action of the waves. It is now proposed to cut

a ship-canal through this obstruction, and thus secure an entrance to Portage Lake from the west as well as the east shore of Keweenaw Point. The cut proper would be simply about half a mile in length, and those who have examined

GERMAN RAILROAD DIVIDENDS.

The following statement is of interest as showing the annual dividends paid in 1865 upon railroad capital in the German States:

	Per cent.		Per cent.
Leipsig-Dresden	20	Breslau Schweidnig	8 2-3
Nurnberg Furth	16	Berg Mark	7 1-2
Berlin Magdeburg	16	Hamburg railroad	7
Bookwas (coal line)	16	Crefeld Gladbach	6 2-3
Berlin-Anhalt	11 5-6	Eastern Bavarian railroad	5
Hamburg Bergedorf	10 1-3	Neisse-Breig	4 1-3
Berlin-Hamburg	10	Aix la Chapelle-Dusseldorf	4 7 30
Upper Silesia railroad	10	Mecklenburg railroad	3 1-2
Chemiz	9 1-3	Oppeln-Tarnowitz	3 1 4
Mayence-Mannheim	9 1-5	Kottbus railroad	2 1-6
Averaging in 1864, 8 68-100 per cent, in 1865			7 30 100

BANK REDEMPTION—LETTERS OF SECRETARY McCULLOCH AND COMPTROLLER CLARK.

We give below copies of the letters from the Secretary of the Treasury and the Comptroller of the Currency on the proposed scheme of redemption. They were addressed to the committee of the New York banks in reply to the following one from the latter, sent to each of these gentlemen for the purpose of obtaining an expression of their views:

NEW YORK, Sept. 7, 1865.

DEAR SIR—The question of the treatment of national bank notes by the New York Clearing House Association is to be presented for consideration at a meeting to be held in a few days. Your simple expression on this subject will have great weight. In fact, our bank officers are reluctant to act until all apprehension of a difference of views between you and themselves is removed. Let me, therefore, ask the favor of you to say in a word—First, whether, in your opinion, it is advisable for the banks to establish and maintain a regular system of redemption of national bank notes, by sealing and returning them to their place of issue as formerly; and second, whether you consider such a system of redemption as calculated to promote the welfare of the community and the stability of the banks themselves.

Your immediate reply will greatly oblige the bank officers, as the meeting referred to takes place Monday or Tuesday.

To this letter the Secretary of the Treasury made the following reply:

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, Sept. 9, 1865.

DEAR SIR—Your favor of the 7th inst. is received. I have merely time to answer categorically your questions, without argument, and without attempting to give reasons.

My opinion is that the national banks ought to redeem their notes at the commercial centers, and that a system that shall compel (when it will not be done voluntarily) a redemption at such points is needed to give uniform value to the notes of the national banks, and that the effect of such a system would be advantageous to the people and to the banking system.

The points at which redemption should be made are those at which the interior banks, in conformity with the current of trade, keep their bank balances.

I am, very truly, yours,

H. McCULLOCH.

The Comptroller of the Currency, who was detained from Washington by sickness, sent the following reply from Rochester:

ROCHESTER, Sept. 11, 1865.

DEAR SIR— Your letter of the 7th inst. is received. You ask me to say:

First—Whether in my opinion it is advisable for the banks to establish and maintain a regular system of redemption of national bank notes, by sealing and returning them to their place of issue as formerly.

Second—Whether I consider such a system of redemption as calculated to promote the welfare of the community and stability of the banks themselves.

I can see no objection whatever to your proposed plan of a clearing or assorting house. It will make the notes of all national banks what they cannot otherwise be, of equal value in every part of the country. If they are redeemed at par in New York, Philadelphia, and Boston, they will be at par in every section of the land. I am confident the measure, if adopted, will meet the approval of the public and of all sound banks, and may be the means of preventing disastrous results to all material interests of the country.

The amount of legal tender notes of descriptions now in circulation is about six hundred and eighty-five (685) millions, and the circulation of the banks, State and National, is about three hundred (300) millions, together with legal tender and bank circulation, in round numbers, one thousand millions. "Seven-thirties" are also used to a considerable extent as currency. The bank circulation of the whole country, North and South, at the breaking out of the rebellion, was not over two hundred millions, and the gold and silver in circulation at that time not over one hundred and fifty millions. The circulation of the country at this time is about three times greater than it was or ever had been before the suspension of specie payments. The enormous expenditures of the government, and the sudden and great increase of the volume of business created by the war, rendered an increase of circulating medium an absolute necessity. The war is now over, and but a comparatively small amount of currency will be required by the disbursing officers of the government, and the business created by the war has already nearly ceased. The great increase of the volume of currency must, consequently, show itself, either by its concentrating at the business centre of the country to an extent that will make it a necessity to have some mode of redemption provided, otherwise a new impulse will be given to inflation and increase of prices until employment is found for the whole volume of currency. In this way it would be absorbed even if it was twice as much as now issued.

With an inflated currency we cannot compete with other nations in manufacturing and producing unless the rate of foreign exchange is enormously high. The high rate of exchange would be our only protection from being flooded with foreign manufactures at a cost much less than they could be produced for here. No tariff can be an adequate protection if accompanied with an inflated currency.

This is clearly proved by the fact that we imported as freely when foreign exchange was up to three hundred as when it was down to its nominal rate.

The advance in exchange is, in effect, the same as an increase of tariff to the same amount. Foreign exchange must advance from its present rate, or a larger portion of our manufacturing establishments must stop, and our exports be comparatively light, unless some measure is adopted tending to the gradual reduction of the volume of currency and consequent reduction of the cost of producing and manufacturing in this country.

We are now upon the very eve of a commercial expansion that, I fear, will be unexampled in its duration and injurious effects, if not held in check by the action of the government and the conservative banks of the country.

National banks have now been organized with capital sufficient to absorb the entire amount of three hundred millions authorized by the National Currency act. Up to this time there has been no redemption of the national currency. Banks have received and paid it out, and have had no further concern about it; consequently all have found it profitable, as they receive the interest on the government bonds pledged for its security, and lend the notes upon interest. Nearly all, therefore, are anxious to increase their circulation, and, I greatly fear, will be able, with the assistance of applicants for new banks, to bring such influence to bear as to induce Congress to authorize a large increase of the national bank currency.

This may be prevented if immediate action is taken to provide for the redemption

and return to the place of issue the notes of existing banks. If this is done, the banks now in existence will find that they have as much circulation as it is for their interest to have, and, consequently, will be likely to oppose rather than favor an increase, as they would if permitted to go on and issue without any expectation of redeeming

If Congress should authorize a large increase of national bank currency, the whole matter would be placed entirely beyond the control of the conservative influence of the country.

The question is simply whether you now inaugurate a system of redemption and settlements, or give up all hope or expectation of anything of the kind for the next twenty years. I am confined to my bed at this place by illness, otherwise I should have written you more fully, and, I think, expressed myself more clearly in reference to the importance of your proposed measures. Truly yours,

F. Clark,
Comptroller of the Currency.

THE BOOK TRADE.

What I Saw on the West Coast of South and North America, and at the Hawaiian Islands. By H. Willis Baxley, M. D. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 443 and 445 Broadway. 1865.

In the latter part of Mr. Buchanan's administration, Doctor Baxley was appointed a Special Commissioner, and in that capacity visited the countries on the Western Coast of America, and the Hawaiian Islands. What his specific duties were, is not stated; but he appears to have made it his business to criticise "what he saw" not always in the most candid or friendly manner. He has a special gift to perceive the worst of everything. His style is often discursive, but wordy, and much is written with an affectation of "fine writing" where little is really expressed.

Setting out upon his journey, the author reached Aspinwall in eight days from New York. Thence he passed to Panama, pausing to remark the mortality that prevailed while the railway was built, and to descant on the insalubrity of the Chagres river. Panama is a tropical paradise, the former resort of buccaneers, where the American must amiably lay aside home habits and adopt the customs of the place.

At the port of Paita in Peru cotton was discovered in abundance awaiting transportation by a British steamer; its quality little inferior to that of the United States. At Callao the impressed soldiers, cholo mongrels and negroes, attracted notice. It is a port which may at a future day have a large trade. Lima the capital is seven miles distant. But our author considers Peru an unhappy country. Elections have been annulled by the President when his partisans had not been returned, the halls of legislation closed, and all that Peruvians have gained by casting off the yoke of Spain is the privilege of submitting to a Presidential yoke not less galling. The senators of this country are designated by lot from the Chamber of Deputies, who are themselves chosen by electors elected by the people. There is no public school system, and the clergy are ignorant and depraved.

The total imports of 1860 were valued at $3,562.957, of which the United States furnished $192,836; Great Britain and France supplying five-eighths. Nitre is exported in large quantities. Agriculture languishes because of the

want of labor—and whenever he notes this of any country the author by intimation ascribes it to the emancipation of the slaves. If slavery only existed there, he would consider it a paradise.

Chili and Valparaiso are more attractive than Peru and its capital. There is more energy among the population; and the climate for a northern man is certainly pleasanter. The sketch of travel through the country is instructive and interesting. The coal and copper mines are rich, and more than half the copper imported by England comes from Chili.

At present the British "Pacific Steam Navigation Company" have the nearly exclusive steam navigation of the west coast of South America. They run twelve steamers along a route of 4,000 miles, stopping at upward of forty ports. The Admiralty have caused this coast to be thoroughly surveyed, and disasters are rare.

The next country visited was California, and the description is valuable and interesting. The wealth of nature both in the soil and beneath the earth awake admiration. After a visit to the Yosemite country, the next place of destination was Hawaii. The government of this Hawaiian kingdom is a constitutional monarchy like that of Great Britain. The inhabitants are still in the process of transition of habits and manners. Churches are numerous, as the islanders emulate other Protestant nations in maintaining diversity of belief. But our author is in unfortunate temper toward the missionaries, whom he charges with interference in political affairs.

The consuls appointed by the United States to this country are charged with recognised incapacity, questionable character, and defective performance of duty. Their periodical removal and distance from supervision, add to the potency of the evil. A Commissioner, sent to the court of the late king Kamehameha, at his first reception was dressed in a Bowery boy's suit, and spit tobacco juice at the feet of the king, while patronisingly avowing his admiration of the civilized condition of the islands. Licensed plundering and stupid blundering seem to characterize our foreign service, while at home the tendency is to deterioration, ignorance, and corruption. Whether our author is a proper critic, with his decided prejudice against "puritanism" and his reiterated declarations in various forms that negro slavery is a normal condition and not incompatible with liberty, his observations deserve attention. He has undertaken the easiest part of the work of reform, that of finding fault, and it must be acknowledged that he has done it thoroughly.

Eighth Annual report of the Board of Commissioners of Central Park, for the year ending December 31st, 1864. New York: 1865.

The Central Park commissioners, in conformity with the unphilosophical principle lately favorite with the Legislature in relation to the matters of the city of New York, were constituted with an equal number from each political party. They have been engaged in their work with commendable zeal and activity, improving and embellishing with careful regard to the public taste and convenience. During the last year they have made their principal outlay upon that part newly added, north of 106th street. Their aim, at the northern end of the park, has been to preserve as far as possible the existing bold and striking

features of natural landscape. A lake of about twelve acres at the northeastern corner is well advanced. In planting, progress has been made to the extent of 20,658 trees and shrubs during the year. The transplanting of large trees is not desirable. The building of the exterior enclosure is necessarily delayed for want of money. The drainage is still imperfect, no system of sewerage for the adjoining wards having been adopted.

The cost of the land in which the park is situated was $4 815,671 60; and of the improvements $4,368,136 50—making a total of $9.183 808 10. The total valuation of property in the 12th 19th, and 22nd wards, surrounding the park, amounted in 1856 to $26,429,565; in 1864 it was $54,712,458—an increase of $28,282,893.

The number of visitors was increased to about 6,000,000 in 1864. Pedestrians were most numerous January 17th, when 45,129 entered the park; and least so on the 30th of March, when only 46 entered. The greatest number of equestrians, 1,075, were there on the 12th of June; a single one visited it on the 26th of March. On the 29th of May 13,014 vehicles entered, and on the 26th of March only 101. The afternoon after 3 o'clock appears to be the period when when the grounds are most frequented.

The report shows that the commissioners are at work with a zeal and enthusiasm most commendable; and the Central Park will remain to future time, the monument of their labor, and the glory of the city of New York.

Lyrics of Life. By ROBERT BROWNING, with illustrations. Boston: TICKNOR & FIELDS.

THIS is the third volume we have seen of the series of Companion Poets for the People, the publication of which has been lately begun by Messrs. Ticknor & Fields. The plan of the publishers is to present the choicest poems of the best poets in an attractive style, at a price so low as to bring the series within the reach of every household. The present volume contains popular selections from Robert Browning, while the previous ones issued contained similar selections from Longfellow and Tennyson. So much taste and elegance is displayed in the preparation of the volumes, that the series cannot fail to become extremely popular.

CONTENTS OF OCTOBER NUMBER.

ART.		PAGE
1.	Arizona—Its Resources and Prospects	249
2.	Commerce of New Orleans	263
3.	Minnesota—Its Resources and Progress	269
4.	Commercial Law.—No. 26. The Law of Shipping and Marine Insurance	287
5.	Finances of Pennsylvania	276
6.	Analyses of Railroad Reports. No. 1	280
7.	The Great Continental Railroad	291
8.	Railroad Stock Fluctuations, 1860-1865	296
9.	New Negotiations with the Indians	299
10.	Commercial Chronicle and Review	305
11.	Journal of Banking, Currency, and Finance	311
12.	The United States Debt	316
13.	Course of Gold, September, 1865	317
14.	Commercial and Industrial Statistics	318
15.	State and Municipal Finance Statistics	322
16.	Railway, Canal, and Telegraph Statistics	323
17.	Bank Redemption—Letters of Secretary McCulloch and Comptroller Clark	324
18.	The Book Trade	326

THE

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE

AND

COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

NOVEMBER, 1865.

MISSOURI IRON REGION.

BY ROBERT H. LAMBORN, ESQ., OF ST. LOUIS.

THE vast interior river system, whose outlet is the Mississippi, and which reaches with navigable streams, thousands of coal seams, and millions of acres of charcoal land, has near its central point—in Iron and St. Francois counties, Missouri, and the district westward—a mineral region, producing, like the Lake Superior mines, a rich, hard and pure ore, suited for extended carriage, easy to excavate, and practically inexhaustible in quantity.

This is the great iron deposit of Missouri; and its existence fixes in the early future centers of industry at localities where, going out from it, pure stone coal shall be most readily accessible. Possessing chemical qualities very similar to the lake ore, and not, therefore, especially demanded for mining, and costing about the same price at the mines, the question of cost of transportation will fix the district in which each variety of ore will ultimately predominate. The two ores already meet at Pittsburg, but here Lake Superior will in time be almost, if not quite exclusively, used. At Cincinnati they again meet, and will probably continue to compete, with the advantage growing on the side of the southern ore, which will supply the region westward of this point, in the Ohio valley and throughout the valley of the Mississippi River and many of its tributaries. But one means of egress is now in existence for the products of the iron region of Missouri. The Iron Mountain Railroad, which is surveyed from St. Louis to Memphis, 279 miles, skirts the shores of the Mississippi River for 20 miles; at 80 miles reaches Iron Mountain, and at 86 Pilot Knob, to which point it was built in 1858. The remaining 193 miles to Memphis exist only on paper. The highest grades of the finished portion of the road are 53 feet per mile in favor of and 59 feet per mile against the trade. It will be seen that the river navigation is reached in 60 miles from the mines, and at a point called Illinois Station will be the probable future shipping and smelting locality, since here coal and ore can meet at the lowest aggregate cost, and cheap water carriage may commence. The approaching visitor recognizes the iron district by the groups of hills resembling the mountains of Mar-

quette County, northern Michigan, and of the Sterling District of Southern New York in a remarkable degree. These hills are the eastern end of the ridge, which, extending toward the Rocky Mountains, forms the crest of the water shed between the tributaries of the Missouri and those of the Mississippi. Among them, similar in appearance to those surrounding it, is the Iron Mountain, an oval hill about 230 feet high, and having a base of 500 acres. Six miles southward is Pilot Knob, only distinguished from the surrounding mountains by a few huge masses of porphyry that form the summit. A mile westward of this is Shepherd's Mountain, an oval forest-covered ridge. These three mountains contain all the specular ore of the immediate district, as far as at present known, but there are rumors of other deposits in the neighborhood, and if the rules established in other mineral districts apply here, and the experience of Lake Superior may be taken as a guide, many rich mines are still awaiting the intelligent explorer, while toward the west there are several localities where large quantities of specular ore are known to exist.

In view of the growing interest which is being felt among many classes of business men in this especial central mineral deposit, by manufacturers of iron, who are glad to compare their own districts with those at a distance, and who recognize in Missouri a State which must soon compete largely with them in the expanding markets of the West; by railroad men of the Mississippi valley, who are looking with anxiety for a source of supply which shall give them a first-class iron from mills and furnaces near at home; by capitalists who seek a district destined by nature to an unlimited and rapid growth; by intelligent mechanics and manufacturers who desire to invest their labor and their skill in localities where circumstances favor large returns, and in view of the vast possible development of the region the following somewhat detailed description will be acceptable.

Iron Mountain is an oval hill, owned by the American Iron Mountain Company. It has been usual to assume that it consists entirely of iron ore, "a solid cone of oxide of iron" or "a conical hill consisting of iron boulders," and many elaborate calculations have shown that with a base of 500 acres, and a height of 288 feet it contained (according to the engineers of first survey of the Iron Mountain Road) 105,000,000 tuns of metallic iron, or 212,000,000 tuns of ore, while, according to Dr. Litton's geological survey of the State (1855), p. 77, the total weight of ore above the surface is 230,187,375 tuns.

Since the investigations were made, upon which the above estimates were founded, a number of cuts have been driven upon the sides of the supposed solid ore hill, and no doubt can now exist that the ore occupies, in an almost solid body, all the north side of the hill for a distance of 3,000 or 4,000 feet, and for a thickness of several hundred feet, while the south side is composed of a porphyritic rock which dips northward beneath the ore. The ore is hence a vast lenticular mass, pitching northward, extending to an unknown depth beneath the surface, and, on one side, and probly on both, bounded by a porphyritic rock, in which crystals of feldspar are distinctly visible. The excavations made for ores for shipping and smelting are as yet but scratches upon the surface. One opening is at the east end, one at the west, and a third is upon the summit, where the iron ore crops out in huge boulders, but the work of cutting a roadway entirely through the mountain has been commenced,

and is being carried forward with vigor. This excavation, when finished, will reveal the anatomy of the mountain, and determine the limits of its bed. This and the other cuts show enough to render the locality one of absorbing interest to the chemist and geologist.

Beside the bed of rich solid ore on the north (known as "bluff ore") is a singular bed of equally rich ore consisting of pebbles, producing what is known as "surface ore," that covers the entire mountain as with a coat of mail. This bed, without admixture of other solid material, extends to a depth of from a few inches on the north side to fifteen feet or more on the south side of the mountain, and is cemented with and underheld by a reddish clay. The ore fragments are as solidly packed as though beaten down for railroad ballast. They are from the size of a pea to 100 pounds or more in weight, but the greatest number weigh from two to five pounds. How was this coating of mail formed and laid thus evenly above the substratum of clay? The impression forces itself upon the mind that the iron pebbles have been worn and polished by attrition under water, this action must have been local, since the pebble beds only extend a short distance from the base of the mountain and the ore mass, and not the result of a current, which would have strewn the material it modified for a long distance in the direction of its course. It must have been violent, since only the hard masses of ore are there, looking like pebbles left by the breakers on the ocean shore; all softer material has been diffused in the form of suspended mud. The action must have taken place in some chemical (and probably heated) solution, because in many of the pebbles are found hexagonal holes several inches deep, marked with peculiar striæ, and ending with pyramidal faces, proving the existence therein at one time of solid quartz crystals, which had been dissolved out by some powerful menstruum that was without effect upon the surrounding oxide of iron. I know of nothing beside subaqueous volcanic action that can explain all these phenomena.

Pilot Knob, the other large iron deposit of this neighborhood, and the property of the Pilot Knob Iron Company, has also been described as a solid mountain of iron, nearly 500 feet high, and 500 acres base, capable of producing so many thousand tuns per perpendicular foot. This is, however, shown to be a misapprehension; the mountain consists of beds of limestone, a porphyritic rock and iron ore, all probably metamorphic in their origin, like the Lake Superior beds. The bed of ore, cropping out about 100 feet below the rugged porphyritic summit, cuts the mountain like a huge plate dipping southward toward the Arcadian Valley. Some distance below it are beds of a druzy limestone. The openings made here are upon this outcrop, and two inclined planes 1,700 feet long reached down to the valley, the railroad and the furnaces. Shepherd's Mountain, also belonging to the Pilot Knob Iron Company a mile south-west of Pilot Knob, is an oval ridge lifted about 600 feet above the valley, through which, between porphyritic walls run several apparently nearly perpendicular veins of specular ore, two of which have been worked; one is 18, the other 8 feet in thickness. The tram road to these deposits has been destroyed by the rebel soldiers, whose bones are now whitening in the bush, and no ore has been taken out for several years.

A singular error prevails regarding this ore. It is generally believed to be magnetic. A careful search for magnetic ore failed to detect a single

fragment. Every opening and waste pile was searched, and not a piece would give the dark red streak belonging to the mixture of protoxide and peroxide which form the grand masses in New-Jersey and our Lake Champlain. Everywhere the red streak, the fibrous and plumose structure, the low hardness, indicated the specular ore or the peroxide. At length the manager of the mine unearthed from a store hidden years ago, for the benefit of curious visitors, a fragment which has the qualities of the loadstone, but it is only magnetic through a small per centage of magnetic ore mingled with a larger quantity of the specular.

In many respects the operation of mining in Missouri and in Marquette County, Michigan, resemble each other. What are known as mines in both regions are properly quarries; the only excavations yet made are open to the day; no pumping aparatus is required, no winding machinery used. Parties of workmen, in most instances Irishmen, attack the exposed ends of the seams or ore masses, with 1¼ inch steel drills, and with sledges; the hard ore is blasted out and hammered into fragments weighing from one to twenty pounds. These are thrown into carts and hauled to furnaces for smelting, or dumped into the cars on the railroad and transported to St. Louis or Carondelet for shipment. Holes averaging five to seven feet deep are made for blasting. One set of drillers can bore in some places five feet per day, but rarely so much; $1.50 per day is now paid for common labor in the mines; $1.70 for good drillers. Before the war wages were $1 and $1.20 per day for the same work. The average amount taken out per man is four tons; the net cost on cars has been as low as 35 cents per ton, and is now 50 cents.

The "surface ore" of Iron Mountain requires only the labor of picking it from its bed and throwing it into the cars. The shipments of iron ore from this region have as yet been moderate. They amount to the end of 1864 to about fifty-five thousand tuns from all points. The records of the Iron Mountain Road show that

In 1861	8,886 tuns	were	shipped.
In 1862	5,782 "	"	"
In 1863	9,890 "	"	"
In 1866	7,070 "	"	"

In addition to this must be reckoned the amount used in the six furnaces and one bloomary (and for a time two bloomaries) of the neighborhood, which will give the whole quantity mined to date.

To reach Pittsburgh will cost at present about $11 per ton of ore; $1.90 of this is freight to St. Louis, and $8 thence to Pittsburgh by steamboat. The first cost and various charges will make up the remainder. It has been delivered in Pittsburgh at a little less than three-fifths of this sum, but the uncertainties of river navigation make it impossible to depend upon this distant market.

The Iron Mountain and Pilot Knob ores are peroxides or sesquioxides of iron. They belong to what is known as the specular group, and are mineralogically the same as most of the Lake Superior ores, the celebrated ores of Elba, and many of those of Siegew in Germany. They are almost chemically pure iron and oxygen, but have as admixture a small quantity of silica, which is greatest in the ores of Pilot Knob. The texture of those from the last named deposit is exceedingly fine grained, almost steely

in fracture and appearance, while those from Iron and Shepherd Mountains are coarser grained, more open and easily smelted.

They are what the metallurgist distinguishes as *red shot* ores, producing an iron that works with difficulty at a cherry red, is not very well adapted for forging, but produces a tough bar capable of bending double when cold without cracking, having a high tensile strength, and giving a silky fibrous fracture. It is very difficult to break so as to show a crystalline texture, and those who have worked both Lake Superior and Missouri ores have found that the latter required the largest admixture of *cold shot* material to produce a *neutral* metal. The iron casts well, chills evenly and properly for car wheel manufacture, is well adapted for making steel, and is used for that purpose largely in Pittsburgh, while the hard surface pebbles of the Iron Mountain smelted with cold blast and charcoal, produce a pig which is in demand as far east as New York for making those small castings which are afterward converted into malleable iron. The product of the ores range from 54 to 56 per cent of metallic iron in the furnaces at the mines; higher yields are said to be obtained elsewhere.

There are at Pilot Knob two, and at iron mountain three blast furnaces. A sixth furnace works Iron Mountain ores at Irondale, twelve miles northward from the mines. A seventh has just been built at Carondolet, six miles southward from St. Louis, to try smelting Pilot Knob ore with the mineral coal of the vicinity. One bloomary at Farmington completes the list of works in Missouri, smelting the ores of this district. As the metallurgic customs of the Lake Superior region are transplanted from New England, so those of Missouri have come West on their own parallel from Pennsylvania and Ohio. The charcoal is made in pits as in Pennsylvania. A Blair County manager superintends the Pilot Knob works, and the foreign capital here invested is chiefly from the Middle States. The ore in small fragments, as brought from the mountain, is thrown in a stratum twelve inches thick upon a heavy layer of logs; upon this is thrown eight inches of fine charcoal; then twelve inches of ore, then charcoal, and so on, until a heap fifty feet long and eight feet in hight, or more, is formed. This, set on fire, burns for two weeks; when cooled the pieces are found cracked and porous, and are now ready for smelting. Unroasted ore is sometimes used, but the product of the furnace is decreased about one-seventh, and the charcoal required in the furnace is increased one-fifth by the change. Charcoal is made on the land of the company, which cuts from twenty to twenty-five cords of wood per acre, chiefly oak; it weighs eighteen pounds per bushel, and forty bushels make a cord. The present contract price for cutting wood is eighty cents per cord, equal to two cents per bushel for the coal, and four cents per bushel is paid for charring. Add to this an average hauling charge of 50 cents per mile per load of 150 bushels, and the present cost at furnace is 9 cents per bushel. The furnace charge at the Pilot Knob furnace, to which these data especially apply, is 20 bushels charcoal, 18 lbs. to the bushel; 600 lbs. of roasted ore; 150 lbs. of limestone flux. About 120 such charges are smelted per day, and 15 to 17 tons of iron made. The flux is found near the furnace, and is furnished at 50 cents per ton of iron. The net cost of producing iron is $21 per ton. The Pilot Knob furnaces are 11 and 13 feet wide in the bosh and 45 feet high. Air at 600 degrees is driven into the furnaces at a pressure of 3½ lbs. per square

inch, through two tuyeres, each three inches in diameter. The capacity of one is 4,000, of the other 5,000 tons per annum, ranking probably first in point of capacity among all the charcoal furnaces in the United States.

Labor is abundant, both black and white. Furnace keepers receive $2 per day; guttermen and fillers $1.75 per day. Boarding can be had at $13 per month. Corn is worth $4.25, and wheat $2 per bushel. Flour $10 per barrel, bacon 22 cents per pound, and beef from 7 to 10 cents per pound. Lard is abundant and cheap. Twenty-five dollars per acre will buy rich, cleared, and well improved farms, with good buildings, in the Arcadian Valley, and good fertile soil may be had at one-fourth that sum, at points contiguous to the mineral deposits.

No one—remembering that our national ratio of increase of population, which will give the Union 100,000,000 inhabitants in 1900, and no one conversant with the growth of the railroad system of the Eastern and Middle States, and with the vast agricultural and mineral resources of the Mississippi and Missouri Valleys—can doubt, that within a few years, all the fertile plains of Kansas, Nebraska, Iowa, Missouri, and the adjoining States, will be intersected by railroads, requiring material for track and machinery, and for continual renewal and repair at the hands of the iron master. Much of the iron now used in making roads in this region comes from abroad. In addition to its first cost and the import duty, several profits are added in charges for carrying it almost half across the continent.

Yet these are hardly sufficient to induce home capitalists, and skilled iron men, to enter into a contest with British manufacturers, for they know that the government has no settled policy to favor their efforts. They know that, on the contrary, existing statutes discriminate in favor of the foreign article and against the domestic by taxing the home manufacturer, directly and indirectly, through the excise laws, more per ton than they tax the foreign manufacturer through the tariff laws. They know that the best established manufacturers of the East will have to close their furnaces the moment gold goes to par, and hence it is not to be wondered that there is not a rail mill west of the Mississippi. The protection afforded by the necessity of paying freight in both directions has caused the erection of re-rolling mills throughout the Middle Western States. In 1864, Illinois ranked fourth in the Union as a rail-making State from this cause solely. These re-rolling mills have already been forced to reduce their rates to the lowest point by *competition with each other*, as is proven by the following circumstance:—The workmen at one of the large Western mills recently struck for higher wages. The mill-owners found by calculation that they would have to close or suffer continued loss. The railroad companies for whom the mills were employed came forward voluntarily and offered such advance on their contract price of iron as would enable the iron men to keep their furnaces in operation. What is true regarding re-rolling mills, which *circumstances* have *protected*, would be true of all branches of iron manufacture were they justly and *legally* protected. The consumer would ultimately obtain fabrics at lower rates than they could be brought from abroad. Our money would remain among our own people, increasing their wealth, and increasing, in a greater ratio, their capacity to bear taxation; Republican Merthys Tydvels, St. Seraings, Birminghams, Sheffields, and Essens would spring up on the borders of our vast Western coal fields The prairie farmer, who sells his corn for one-eighth the price paid for it

by the *foreign* consumer would sell it at once to *his neighbor*, and put the additional 700 per cent into his pocket. New uses for capital would everywhere arise, and new demands for labor; variety of employment in the community would increase the range and activity of thought, and add new zest to social intercourse; American energy, freed from European thraldom, would find even more generous reward than it has heretofore known, and American civilization, advancing untrammeled, would reach the perfection dreamed of by the founders of the Republic.

MR. McCULLOCH ON OUR FINANCES.

MR. MCCULLOCH'S Indiana speech, the financial part of which we give elsewhere in full, is generally regarded as a summary of the policy he will recommend to Congress in his forthcoming report. The chief measure in this policy on which public attention fixes are the contraction of the redundant volume of our paper money, and the gradual restoration of the currency so that the paper dollar shall be equal to the dollar in gold.

It is currently reported that a strong pressure will be brought to bear on Congress, with a view to obtain power for the National Banks to increase their circulation beyond the 300 millions now authorised by law. The emission of notes is so profitable during a suspension of specie payments that we need not wonder if such a mischievous scheme has been dreamed of by some of the advocates of inflation. It is clear, however, that any project of this kind will meet the determined opposition of the Secretary of the Treasury, as of every citizen who understands the true interests of thecountry. To allow the banks to increase the currency on the one side, while the people with great cost and effort are diminishing it on the other, would be to impoverish the many for the advantage of the few, and by causing the most ruinous fluctuations in prices it would spread discontent and suffering among the industrious masses of our citizens.

But contraction of our paper money, it has been said, is found to be practically impossible; and even if further additions can be prevented, Mr. McCulloch, in the present condition of the National Treasury and of the public credit, must fail in all his attempts to curtail the currency. In proof of this statement, we are pointed to the noteworthy fact that the least movement towards contraction makes money tight, and that when this happens, the banks immediately begin to draw out their deposits from the government. These deposits are paid off in greenbacks from the Treasury vaults; and these greenbacks fill up once more the recently depleted channels of the circulation, thus restoring the disturbed equilibrium. An illustration of this argument is just now offered by the results of the negotiation of the new 50 million loan. Several millions of old compound interest notes, which have long been imprisoned in the reserve-chests of the banks, were paid into the Sub-Treasury. Now as these compound notes were legal tender and formed part of the 25 per cent reserve which the banks are required by law to keep on hand, their place had to be supplied. This circumstance combined with others to cause a temporary scarcity in the supply of greenbacks here. The evil would have

remedied itself in a few days, but as while it lasted a rise in the rate of interest was produced, the banks, to escape the pressure and oblige their customers, called in their loans from the Sub-Treasury to the amount of several millions of dollars. Hence, as we predicted a few weeks ago, the consequence of the negociation seems likely to be that almost as much legal tender paper will be poured out of the Treasury as will be gathered in by the loan. If this should prove so, the gorged channels of the circulation, instead of being depleted, will be once again surcharged and overflowing.

In view of these facts then it has been feared that contraction is an impossibility, and that every such effort to restore a sound currency is foredoomed to miscarry. We do not assent to this discouraging conclusion. Our financial maladies, though bad enough, inspire hope and not despair. The right method of contraction, it is true, may not as yet have been hit upon. But assuredly we are near to its discovery, nearer perhaps than our least desponding prophets suppose. However this may be, it is certain that a man as practical and clear-sighted as Mr. McCulloch, would not have spoken so confidently of his policy of contraction if he were not sure of averting an ignominious and damaging defeat.

Our experience so far has abundantly demonstrated the fact that the chief obstacles in the way of contraction are the call loans, of which the amount in the Treasury at present is over 100 millions bearing 5 and 6 per cent interest. These call loans are as potent stimulants of speculation as the inflated currency itself, inasmuch as they aggravate the evil and prevent its cure.

We conclude, therefore, that the paying off of these temporary loans to the banks is a fundamental part of Mr. McCulloch's plans. And it is a most fortunate circumstance that the currency balance in the Treasury is so ample, and the receipts from taxes and from the sales of government property are so rapidly accumulating, that the payment of these call loans will be very much facilitated. Probably it will not be deemed expedient, even were it possible, to pay off the whole immediately. Of the outstanding 100 millions perhaps one-fourth or 25 millions might with advantage be left in the form of Clearing-House certificates, bearing, as at present, 5 per cent interest, and payable on demand in greenbacks. It is found that on an average the sum we have mentioned is ample for the monetary requirements of the banks in making their daily exchanges. There will also be some further advantages incidentally secured by the arrangement. The pressure on the money market must be severe and real to induce the banks to convert their Clearing-House certificates into cash; and yet whenever the emergency is present, and is sufficiently urgent, these institutions can relieve themselves; and the stringency, if it becomes unmanageable by other palliatives, can be checked by the temporary conversion of a part of the certificates into greenbacks.

A second expedient will, of course, be to carry steadily forward the funding of the compound interest notes; but from what has been said it will be evident that some further machinery is necessary. The contracting process must be applied to the greenbacks as well as to the other legal tenders. Of this species of currency the amount afloat is about 428 millions. The greenbacks must be eventually absorbed into long interest-bearing bonds, and no method seems so practicable for this purpose as to

convert them first into compound notes; and then, hereafter, to fund them as sufficient interest accrues, and they have gradually withdrawn from active use as currency. This process must at first be gradual, and it might not be practicable to carry it on at a more rapid rate than about ten millions a month. If this scheme should be approved, new legislation by Congress will have to be sought; for the only authority Mr. McCulloch has at present to fund greenbacks is to convert them directly into bonds, which has hitherto seemed to be practically impossible.

In venturing to suggest this method for gradually and safely funding the currency, restoring specie payments, preventing ruinous speculation, and terminating the reign of extortionate prices, we do not pretend that it is perfect or final. But if the prevailing rumors are correct some such expedient for conversion and funding will be offered for the action of Congress, and if any practicable improvements can be suggested they will doubtless be adopted and incorporated into the plan.

BRAZIL.—ITS POPULATION, PRODUCTS, COMMERCE, ETC.

Brazil occupies in relation to population, production, and commerce nearly the same statistical position that the United States did in 1820.

In whatever light we view this great American Empire it presents an infinity of subjects worthy of consideration by the statesman and merchant. At the present time any information relating to it is both important and interesting. It has a great war on its hands, waged against one of the most powerful and best trained States of the Southern continent—a war which will test the strength of the nation, made up, as it is, of heterogenous savage materials but little civilized by European commixture; and its African element, at least a third of the aggregate, is an additional danger, foreshadowing internal insurrection and aid to the invader from within. Then, again, Brazil will probably become the residence of many American families dispossessed at home and self-exiled on account of their complicity with the late rebellion.

But it is to the merchant that Brazil will always be interesting. It produces several of the most important staples of commerce, coffee, sugar, cotton, tobacco, India rubber, gutta percha, etc., and is the chief source of several of these to which the United States looks for supplies. The commerce of the country in these articles is expanding from year to year, as the interior is reached by railroads on land and steamboats on the rivers. These have made great progress already, and are liberally encouraged by the Emperor's government. Hitherto, however, the interests of the United States in Brazil have been singularly anomalous. While we have been the best customers of the Empire, we have had to go into its ports with gold in hand. Europe has enjoyed the great bulk of the import trade, and nearly all the profits of the carrying business. The reason of this commercial obliquity is that England, France, the Hanseatic Towns, etc., have fostered their interests in the country by establishing banking and other commercial facilities in the chief ports, and by keeping up regular and frequent steamer lines for mail and general purposes. In the meanwhile the United States has slept, allowing the golden prize of commerce to be seized by its competitors. The result is that the balance of trade is yearly widening against us. The day, however, is at hand when a stand will be

taken to revolutionize the course of this commerce. Our home rebellion is now squelched, and the hundreds of steamers used for its suppression are rapidly being returned to their commercial purposes; and it is to be hoped that at so favorable a juncture the opportunity will not be lost to enter not one but several lines in competition with the lines which Europe has found to be so prolific of profitable success. We have a hundred staples that are wanted in such a country as Brazil—why should we be satisfied with the exportation of a few, and those, as heretofore, the most bulky of them. Our looms and workshops indeed produce every necessity for a most extended trade with this country, which also presents a vast field for the introduction of machinery, agricultural implements, and all the other mechanical contrivances which in no small degree secured for the United States the pre-eminence it enjoys as an industrial nation.

This subject was the theme of an article which appeared in the November issue of the *Merchants' Magazine* last year. To this we refer, as it contains much valuable information relating to the country, its government and people, which we do not intend to repeat in this connection. Our object at the present time is to present a series of the latest statistics of the Empire, which we gather from the voluminous returns published by the government by order of the legislature of 1865. They refer chiefly to the statistical year 1863–64, but are the latest, and much later than any previously published in this country.

POPULATION.

And first, as to population. In such a country, thousands of miles of which have never been seen by civilized man, it is impossible to expect accuracy in this matter. Nor can the complexion or race be distinguished except approximately. We must, therefore, be content with the estimates presented by the most authentic sources of information. These certainly are the government officials who have given the following table for the year 1864:

Provinces.	Area in leagues.	Population			Capitals of Provinces.
		Free.	Slave.	Total.	
Amazonas	64,000	65,000	5,000	70,000	Manaos.
Para	39,000	235,000	15,000	250,000	Belem.
Maranhao	12,500	330,000	70,000	400,000	San Luiz.
Piauhy	11,000	165,000	10,000	175,000	Theresina.
Ceara	4,500	456,000	30,000	486,000	Portaleza.
Rio Grande do Norte	1,500	205,000	5,000	210,000	Natal.
Parahyba	1,500	230,000	30,000	260,000	Parahyba.
Pernambuco	6,000	930,000	250,000	1,180,000	Recife.
Alagoas	1,200	205,000	45,000	250,000	Maceio.
Sergipe	1,200	200,000	50,000	250,000	Aracapi.
Bahia	14,000	950,000	250,000	1,200,000	S. Salvador.
Espirito Santo	1,400	45,000	10,000	55,000	Victoria.
Rio de Janeiro	2,400	650,000	200,000	850,000	Nictheroy.
Municipio Neutro	60	350,000	50,000	400,000	S. Sebastino
San Paulo	11,000	740,000	60,000	800,000	San Paulo.
Parana	6,000	80,000	20,000	100,000	Curitiba.
Santa Catharina	2,200	105,000	15,000	120,000	Desterro.
Rio Grande do Sul	9,000	390,000	30,000	420,000	P. Alegre.
Minas-Geraes	20,000	1,200,000	150,000	1,350,000	Ouro Preto.
Goyaz	21,000	185,000	15,000	200,000	Goyaz.
Mato Grosso	51,000	75,000	5,000	80,000	Cuiaba.
Total	280,460	7,791,000	1,315,000	9,106,000	

The "Municipio Neutro" is the seat of the general government, and includes Rio and vicinity.

The Brazilian league is the eighteenth part of a degree, and is consequently equivalent to 14.76 square miles. At this reckoning the area is 4,137,600 square miles, or about a third larger than the United States.

STAPLE PRODUCTIONS.

The following is a statement of the approximate production of the principal commercial and food staples of the Empire, calculated on the basis of the consumption of 9,106,000 inhabitants, and the exportation for the quinquennial period 1858-63:

Products.	Quantities. Consumed.	Exported.	Total.	Values in Milreis.
Brandy....Canadas.	17,810,855	2,313,782	19,624,637	9,812,319
Cotton.....Arrobas.	714,745	846,934	1,561,679	15,616,790
Rice.....	5,569,755	322,810	5,892,595	35,355,570
Sugar.....	7,406,182	8,364,918	15,771,050	47,313,150
Cacao.....	27,010	273,746	300,756	1,804,536
Coffee.....	2,468,500	10,932,097	13,401,597	80,409,582
Mandioca. Alqueires.	17,310,855	200,000	17,510,855	26,266,282
Legumes.....	11,078,845	21,155	11,100,000	33,300,000
Tobacco... Arrobas.	1,572,870	693,126	2,265,996	13,595,976
Gum elastic.....	13,567	164,380	177,947	2,669,205
Mate.....	928,514	549,615	1,478,129	4,434,387
Grain....Alqueires.	27,559,225	21,718	27,580,943	27,580,943
Annual products.....				75,000,000
Other products.....				20,000,000
Total value in milreis.....				393,158,660
The total value of exports in the quinquennial period 1858-63 was.				117,227,005
Leaving for consumption.....				275,931,655

or for each inhabitant an average value of 30 : 302 milreis, or, say $16.

COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION.

The aggregate commercial movement of the Empire in 1863-64 was 252,506,574 milreis, a gain of 30,863,870 milreis (13.92 per cent) over the preceding year. The value of importations in 1863–64 was 123,045,857 milreis, or 23,873, 167 (24-7 per cent) milreis greater than the preceeding year. The value of the products exported in 1864 was 129,470,699 milreis, a gain of 6,990,703 (5.76 per cent) milreis. The difference in favor of the export trade in 1863-64 was 6,424,824 milreis. The shipping employed in the import trade amounted to 915,801, and in the export trade 1,030,053 toneladas, making a total in and out of 1,945,854 toneladas. The following tables give the details:

FOREIGN GOODS IMPORTED.

The following table exhibits the value of goods and merchandise of foreign production imported into the the ports of the Empire in 1863-64.*

---

* The quantities and values in the following statements are given in Brazilian denominations, and hence the following explanation will be necessary to readers unacquainted with them.

The "arroba" is 32 lbs. Brazilian or 32.52 lbs. avoirdupois.

The "oitava" is the eighth part of an ounce, or 55½ grains English.

The "Canada" is 0.36414 gallon.

The "milreis" is 1000 reis and is valued in gold at $0.54½ and in silver at $0.51½.

Ports of Importation.	Average 1858-64. Milreis.	Year 1863-64. Milreis.
Rio de Janeiro...	61,918,807	70,633,356
Bahia.....	16,860,096	16,102,871
Pernambuco.....	18,622,429	18,397,475
Maranhao	3,370,007	3,907,915
Para.....	4,490,342	5,244,234
Rio Gr. do Sul...	4,854,261	4,147,078
Porto Alegre....	803,057	456,506
Uruguayana.....	332,630	125,135
Santos.....	1,222,527	1,471,631
Paranagua.....	143,405	82,410
Antonina, ...	2,359	8,923
Parahyba	142,771	54,306
Ceara.....	1,005,643	1,496,036
Santa Catharina.	227,281	443,700
Alagoas.....	182,134	146,145
Sergipe.....	41,108	29,149
Espirito Santo...	1,575	1,869
Rio Gr. do Norte.	215,102	186,847
Piauhy.....	215,663	187,450
Mato Grosso.....	183,774	73,344
Total	114,834,971	123,045,875

Countries of origin.	Year 1863-64. Milreis.
Sweden	409,989
Denmark.	132,420
Hanseatic cities	5,653,868
Holland	116,094
Belgium	1,805,904
Great Britain, &c.....	64,838,109
France, &c	23,110,413
Spain, &c	2,250,074
Portugal, &c.....	6,346,413
Italy	778,404
Austria	776,543
United States.....	6,259,484
Chili	146,682
Peru	22,979
Rio de la Plata	9,062,371
Ports of the Amazon	986,596
Ports not stated	270,000
Pisca.....	9,596
Africa.....	269,624
Paraguay	13
Total	123,045,875

The average imports for the previous five years was 114,834,971 milreis.

The values (milreis) of the principal articles imported in 1863-64, compared with the average of the five preceding years are shown in the annexed statement:

Articles.	Average, 1858-63.	Years 1863-64.		Increase or decrease.
Oils.....	1,004,502	1,122,287	inc.	117,785
Cod and other Fish	2,773,918	1,883,366	dec.	1,890,552
Spirituous Liquors.....	1,661,572	1,665,725	inc.	4,153
Stationery.....	1,439,401	1,326,209	dec.	113,192
Provisions	5,301,930	7,143,775	inc.	1,841,845
Stone Coal.....	2,540,868	1,833,667	dec.	707,200
Hats.....	1,535,456	1,384,498	"	150,958
Hides.....	857,988	901,241	inc.	43,253
Drugs.....	1,456,411	1,468,158	"	41,747
Flour.	7,679,907	4,142,582	dec.	3,537,325
Ironware.....	6,167,996	4,796,916	"	1,371,080
Iron	1,292,761	670,053	"	622,708
Earthenware and Glass.....	1,712,912	1,462,856	"	250,056
Machinery.....	796,025	621,374	"	174,651
Butter	2,149,864	1,940,136	"	209,728
Cotton fabrics.....	30,501,715	23,970,897	"	6,530,818
Woolen "	4,968,841	4,401,000	"	567,841
Linen "	2,616,784	2,992,637	inc.	375,903
Silk "	2,865,479	2,350,992	dec.	514,487
Mixed "	2,670,756	2,735,943	inc.	65,187
Gold and Silver Coin.....	4,376,413	19,607,060	"	15,230,647
Gold and Silver Manufactures.....	3,487,673	1,542,555	dec.	1,945,118
Paper	1,039,907	1,207 456	inc.	167,539
Powder.....	556,058	518,602	dec.	37,456
Silver	665,888	765.238	inc.	99,350
Clothing.	1,538,215	1,529,561	dec.	8,654
Salt.....	1,026,423	1,326,722	inc.	300,299
Wines.....	4,606,726	5,632,062	"	1,025,336
Other articles	15,542,782	22,571,317	"	7,028,535
Total milreis.....	114,834,971	123,045,875	inc.	8,210,904

The following table exhibits the value (milreis) of textile fabrics imported yearly for the five years ending with 1863-64:

Years.	Cotton.	Woolen.	Linen.	Silk.	Mixed.	Total.
1859-60....	27,514,978	5,783,570	2,986,218	3,405,531	2,521,633	42,221,930
1860-61....	34,435,526	5,116,674	2,699,187	2,988,048	2,213,819	47,453,254
1861-62....	34,938,768	3,916,984	2,366,073	2,139,542	2,797,581	46,158,948
1862-63....	23,827,407	3,967,059	2,170,397	2,187,718	2,486,071	34,638,752
1863-64....	23,970,897	4,401,000	2,992,687	2,350,952	2,735,943	36,451,469
Average..	28,937,575	4,637,057	2,642,902	2,604,366	2,553,009	41,384,849

Coal, iron, ironware and machinery were imported in the same years to the following values:

Years.	Coal.	Iron.	Hardware.	Machinery.	Earthenware.
1859-60.....	2,120,706	1,141,724	5,654,007	938,687	1,585,948
1860-61.....	3,534,381	1,356,913	7,123,886	692,241	1,619,446
1861-62.....	2,805,465	1,032,412	6,198,871	764,209	1,624,975
1862-63.....	2,076,342	1,450,728	5,207,886	850,927	1,841,740
1863-64.... ..	1,833,667	470,058	4,797,916	621,374	1,462,856
Average milries	2,486,112	1,130,286	5,796,413	773,487	1,626,993

The importations of provisions, flour, fish, salt and drugs were valued as follows:

Years.	Flour.	Fish.	Provisions.	Salt.	Drugs.
1859-60.....	10,685,862	3,609,020	3,419,283	1,128,794	2,109,580
1860-61.....	7,285,613	2,725,635	5,568,618	812,671	1,490,436
1861-62.....	5,799,797	1,514,857	8,410,941	1,129,272	1,239,295
1862-63.....	4,922,627	1,489,532	5,497,468	1,168,076	999 610
1863-64	4,142,582	1,383,366	7,143,775	1,326,722	1,498,158
Average (milreis)	6,567,296	2,144,482	5,928,017	1,113,107	1,467,414

The following table shows the aggregate importations for the five years ending with 1863-64, the amount of coin and the imports not including coin:

Years.	Aggregate Imports.	Gold and Silver coin.	Imports not Including coin
1859-60.....	113,027,995	4,193,481	108,834,514
1860-61.....	123,720,345	5 332,672	118,387,673
1861-62.....	110,531,198	2,043,488	108,487,701
1862-63.....	99,172,708	4,388,887	94,783,821
1863-64.....	123,045,875	19,607,060	103,438,815
Average (milreis).....	113,899,622	7,113,117	106,786,505

—and from the above there should also be deducted for re-exportations the following—2,226,291, 1,593,056, 1,504,790, 1,578,976, and 1,547,-415 milreis for the five years respectively, being an average of 1,690,105 milreis.

NATIONAL PRODUCTS EXPORTED.

The following statement shows the value of national exports from the Empire, giving the ports of destination for the fiscal year 1863-64:

Ports of Exportation.	Average. 1858-63. Milreis.	Year. 1863-64. Milreis.
Rio de Janeiro	59,861,360	54,224,641
Bahia	13,906,499	13,058,166
Pernambuco	11,473,576	18,453,455
Maranhao	2,899,115	6,151,678
Para	5,469,835	5,829,674
Rio Grande do Sul	4,461,121	4,757,032
San Jose do Norte	2,029,494	1,773,195
Porte Alegre	177,788	283,039
Uruguayana	379,851	107,106
Santos	6,963,027	6,239,534
Paranagua	1,159,080	1,106,526
Antonina	101,522	160,971
Parahyba	3,080,323	5,819,057
Ceara	1,643,914	2,675,800
Santa Catharina	131,107	153,306
Alagoas	2,539,947	6,593,183
Sergipe	705,150	1,201,143
Espirito Santo	10,505	87,763
Rio Grande do Norte	419,220	414,087
Piauhy	170,058	246,265
Mato Grosso	44,723	134,580
Total	117,227,005	129,470,699

Destination.	Year. 1863-64. Milreis.
Russia	494,814
Sweden & Norway.	1,684,798
Denmark	667,377
Hanseatic Cities	1,154,378
Belgium	620,344
Great Britain, &c.	52,485,098
France, &c	17,060,934
Spain, &c	4,316,617
Portugal, &c	6,662,255
Italy	565,147
Austria	764,544
Ports of the Baltic	308,140
Ports of the Amazon.	13,579,229
Greece	92,245
Turkey	597,189
Mediterranean	638,352
United States	21,666,765
Mexico	291,518
Chile	1,188,657
Rio de la Plata	4,014,253
Other ports	587,729
Total	129,470,699

The annual average exports for the previous five years was milreis 117,227,005. The quantities and values of the principal articles of national product exported in 1863–64 and the annual average for the five previous years are shown in the annexed:

Articles.	Quantities. Average.	Quantities. 1863-64.	Value in milreis. Average.	Value in milreis. 1863-64.
Brandy, canadas	2,213,782	1,748,993	706,010	650,271
Cotton, arrobas	846,934	1,297,228	8,262,878	28,335,649
Sugar, "	8,364,918	7,911,310	19,412,088	19,844,783
Hair, "	40,381	52,786	363,753	431,941
Cacao, "	278,746	284,190	1,495,694	1,308,742
Coffee, "	10,933,097	8,183,298	61,072,434	54,130,654
Hides, salt, No.	634,454	764,336	8,443,547	5,226,074
" dry, arrobas	369,748	445,625		2,721,515
Diamonds, oitavas	10,658	10,255	3,662,388	4,122,724
Tobacco, arrobas	693,126	907,218	4,106,457	3,512,035
Gum-elastic "	164,380	232,288	2,785,633	3,695,373
Mate "	549,615	719,069	1,668,901	1,510,403
Gold, oitavas	370,586	81,898	1,054,162	114,036
Articles not specified			3,833,123	3,855,861
Total value			117,227,005	129,470,699

As indicated in the above table the most important of the exports of Brazil are (1) coffee, (2) sugar, (3) hides, (4) cotton, (not looking to the returns of 1863–64, which are exceptional), (5) tobacco, (6) diamonds, and (8) gum-elastic. These are the principal staples. Mate (Paraguay tea), cacao, gold, etc., are secondary materials, and there are also a number of others which together make up the aggregate. The tables which follow show the amount of coffee, sugar and cotton exported for a number of years with their average prices at the ports of exports:

Coffee.—Coffee is exported wholly from Rio de Janeiro, Santos, Bahia

Ceara, and Pernambuco. The following are the quotations (arrobas) exported in the five years ending with 1863–64:

Years.	Rio de Janeiro.	Santos.	Bahia.	Ceara.	Pernambuco.	Total.
1859-60	8,573,063	1,481,730	195,638	56,430	432	10,207,293
1860-61	13,054,061	1,288,604	198,304	44,146	143	14,585,258
1861-62	8,162,195	1,371,729	198,313	147,939	648	9,880,824
1862-63	6,891,872	1,390,804	286,167	147,777	215	8,716,836
1863-64	6,810,343	1,062,686	187,432	109,976	1,795	8,183,293

The average export prices (reis per arroba) at each of the above ports in the years named were as follows:

Years.	Rio.	Santos.	Bahia.	Ceara.	Peanamb'o.	Aver'ge
1859-60	5.986	5.146	5.121	5.110	6.831	5 844
1860 61	5.508	5.080	5.099	5.837	7.298	5.461
1861-62	5.896	6.230	5 678	6.360	5.622	5.945
1862-63	6.576	6,047	6.160	6.976	7.864	6.484
1863 64	6.749	5.857	6.311	6.094	8.460	6.614

Sugar.—The sugar of Brazil is of two kinds—white and muscovado. The first is exported only from Bahia, Pernambuco, and Rio de Janeiro. The amount and average price per arroba from each of these ports for the past five years have been as follows:

Fiscal Years.	Bahia.		Pernambuco		Rio de Janeiro.	
	arrobas.	reis.	arrobas.	reis.	arrobas.	reis.
1859-60.....	194,562	3.351	683,634	4.312	46,573	4.297
1860-61.....	1,201,363	2.245	583,419	3.656	89,495	5.238
1861-62	943,722	2.657	1,279,056	3.061	114,929	3.584
1862-63.....	775,971	2.567	995,847	2.967	47,244	3.676
1863-64.....	374,496	2.642	762,120	3.542	37,350	4.886

The following shows the exports of muscovado sugar (arrobas), from the six principal exporting ports for five years:

Years.	Pernambuco.	Bahia.	Sergipe.	Alagoas.	Parahyba.	Rio.
1859-60...	2,220,346	797,044	187,712	242,782	833,918	125,026
1860 61...	1,611,715	.....	86,040	193,467	405,194	87,548
1861-62...	3,103,242	2,662,779	404,092	569,888	742,545	556,167
1862-63...	2,391,858	3,000,464	631,738	603,608	620,279	401,541
1863 64...	2,491,494	1,826,960	654,150	440,710	447,019	537,153

The average prices (in reis per arroba) were as follows:

Years.	Pernambuco.	Bahia.	Sergipe.	Alagoas.	Parahyba.	Rio.
1859-60.....	2·569	2.794	2.476	2.147	1.965	3.437
1860-61.....	2.308	....	2.469	2.287	1.822	3.193
1861-62.....	2,040	1.951	1.903	1.817	1.513	2.461
1862-63.....	1.796	1.647	1.699	1.650	1,323	2.506
1863-64.....	2.473	2.402	1.808	2.210	1.902	3.112

Cotton.—The principal cotton provinces are Pernambuco, Maranhao, Alagoas, Parahyba, and Ceara, which produce nine-tenths of all the cotton grown in the empire. The following table shows the quantity (in arrobas), exported from Brazil for the last 14 years:

Years.	Pernamb'o.	Maranhao.	Alagoas.	Parahyba.	Ceara.	Total.
1850-51....	163,148	359,259	144,937	108,982	55,467	870,464
1851-52.....	182,237	252,808	140,070	214,501	42,921	898,294
1852-53.....	218,131	297,212	156,024	185,266	67,523	997,907
1853-54.....	123,915	402,422	156,371	133,579	50,860	892.272
1854-55.....	131,272	306,750	150,600	196,665	48,367	877,176
1855-56.....	111,607	292,020	232,487	256,495	65,646	1,024,801
1856-57.....	153,708	267,823	230,270	289,593	61,578	1,088,025
1857-58.....	121,458	281,255	312,661	188,741	76,826	1,014,550

Years.	Pernamb'o.	Maranhao.	Alagoas.	Parahyba.	Ceara.	Total.
1858-59.....	83,457	230,903	167,024	156,151	74,324	751,848
1859-60.....	130,765	240,777	152,951	221,557	77,580	854,624
1860-61.....	79,586	207,954	130,443	173,267	58,728	670,860
1861-62.....	116,718	210,259	273,397	183,900	50,785	872,210
1862-63.....	256,649	230,451	583,200	201,899	44,250	1,085,628
1863-64.....	394,492	245,381	260,521	222,795	67,691	1,297,228

The average export prices of cotton (per arroba) for the same years was—

	reis.		reis.		reis.		reis.
1850-51....	6.443	1854-55....	5.342	1858-59....	7.447	1862-63....	15.491
1851-52....	4.773	1855-56....	5.498	1859-60....	7.526	1863-64....	21.843
1852-53....	5.105	1856-57....	6.424	1860-61....	6.979		
1853-54....	5.494	1857-58....	6.559	1861-62....	8.928	1850-64 ...	8.132

The average prices at the ports severally for the last five years are shown in the following table:

Years.	Pernambuco.	Maranhao.	Alagoas.	Parahyba.	Ceara.	Average.
1859-60.....	8.247	7.684	6.765	7.166	7.688	7,510
1860-61.....	7.851	6.928	6.311	7.142	7.148	6.979
1861-62.....	10.348	9.808	7.004	9.740	9.224	8.928
1862-63.....	16.568	17.385	13.198	14.968	14.898	15.491
1863-64... ...	22.657	22.160	21.402	21.918	20.905	21.843

FOREIGN IMPORTS RE-EXPORTED.

The following table shows the values (milreis) of foreign imports re-exported from the several ports of the Empire for the year 1863-64, compared with the average of the five preceding years:

Ports.	Average of 5 years.	Year 1863-64.	Ports.	Average of 5 years.	Year 1863-64.
Rio de Janeiro....	1,283,504	928,011	Paranagua.... ...	20,663	....
Bahia....	262,654	244,223	Ceara	1,008	8,250
Pernambuco.....	135,991	225,781	Santa Catharina ..	39,471	60,038
Maranhao.....	36,152	4,955	Alagoas....	4,176	....
Para.....	51,075	32,589	Parahyba.....	82	....
Rio Grande do Sul.	100,553	42,966	Rio Grande do Sul.	628	30
Uruguayana.....	2,253	....	Piauhy....	791	....
Santos.....	1,041	5,522	Mato Groeso	907	....
Total.....				1,940,949	1,547,415

TOTAL COMMERCE.

The following table exhibits the values (milreis) of both exports and imports for the fifteen years and the three quinquennial periods ending with 1863-64:

Years.	Exports.	Imports.	Total.
1849-50.....	55,032,461	59,165,749	114,198,210
1850-51.....	67,788,170	76,918,619	144,706,789
1851-52.....	66,640,804	92,860,415	159,500,919
1852-53.....	73,644,724	87,362,896	161,007,620
1853-54.....	76,842,492	85,839,336	162,681,828
Average.....	67,989,650	80,429,403	148,419,033
1854-55.....	90,698,614	85,170,961	175,869,575
1855-56.....	94,432,478	92,779,246	187,211,724
1856-57.....	114,553,890	125,351,935	239,905,825
1857-58.....	96,247,463	130,440,173	226,687,636
1858-59.....	106,805,972	127,722,619	234,528,591
Average.....	100,547,683	112,292,987	212,840,670

Years.	Exports.	Imports.	Total.
1859–60	112,957,972	113,027,995	225,985,967
1860-61	123,171,168	123,720,345	246,891,508
1861–62	120,719,942	110,531,189	231,251,131
1862–63	122,479,996	99,172,708	221,652,704
1863–64	129,470,699	123,045,875	252,516,574
Average	121,759,954	113,899,622	235,659,576
Average 15 years	96,765,756	102,207,337	198,973,093

The increase per centum, by periods, has been as follows:

Second over first period	47.89	39.61	43.40
Third over second period	21.09	1.43	10.25
Third over first period	79.08	41.61	58.80

The figures for 1859–64 show a large increase in exports, with scarcely any movement in imports. Previously to this period the balance of trade had been uniformly against Brazil, in both the former quinquennial periods, to the amount of 12,000,000 milreis a year. It is questionable, however, whether in this instance the favorable balance in the last period is the result of increased home manufactures. It is more probably owing to the non-increase of consumption by a nation two-thirds of whose inhabitants are only semi-civilized.

COMMERCE WITH THE UNITED STATES.

To the above may be added, with advantage, an outline of the commerce between Brazil and the United States, in more detail, for the year 1863–64. The following shows the value of imports from and exports to the United States:

Ports.	Exports to United States.	Imports from United States.	Total exports and imports.
Rio de Janeiro	15,394,906	3,139,495	18,534,401
Bahia	707,870	401,268	1,109,138
Pernambuco	1,155,972	864,726	2,020,698
Maranhao	122,209	296,228	418,437
Para	1,973,047	1,014,553	2,987,600
Rio Grande do Sul	1,423,386	481,312	1,904,698
San Jose do Norte	....	....	42,500
Porto Alegre	....	....	....
Uruguayana	....	....	....
Santos	706,560	....	706,560
Antonina	....	....	....
Paranagua	....	....	....
Parahyba	46,965	....	46,965
Ceara	37,629	43,309	80,938
Santa Catharina	2,842	18,593	21,435
Alagoas	....	....	....
Sergipe	....	....	....
Espirito Santo	....	....	....
Rio Grande do Norte	52,879	....	52,879
Piauhy	....	....	....
Mato Grosso	....	....	....
Total (milreis)	21,666,766	6,259,484	27,926,250

NAVIGATION.

The following table exhibits the amount of shipping engaged in the *foreign trade* in 1863–64:

Flags.	Entered. Vessels.	Tons.	Crews.	Sailed. Vessels.	Tons.	Crews.
National.....	374	61,604	3,791	368	45,798	2,676
Foreign.....	2,516	854,197	37,687	2,428	984,257	36,139
Total, 1863–64...	2,890	915,801	41,478	2,796	1,030,053	38,815
" 1862–63...	3,064	946,213	46,309	2,727	1,097,016	43,193
" 1861–62...	2,793	938,907	43,036	2,598	1,083,128	42,226
" 1860–61...	3,033	992,482	38,926	2,765	1,070,801	37,387
" 1859–60...	2,861	917,582	30,931	2,817	1,010,775	31,564
" 1858–59...	3,155	956,017	31,942	2,807	956,837	29,166

The number of entrances and clearances in the *coasting trade* in 1863–64 is shown in the annexed tabulation:

	Entered. Vessels.	Tons.	Crews.	Sailed. Vessels.	Tons.	Crews.
Total, 1863–64...	3,370	658,651	49,909	2,966	567,432	40,018
" 1862–63...	3,452	726,390	51,746	3,411	724,489	48,521
" 1861–62...	3,110	659,420	46,580	3,013	610,345	44,341
" 1860–61...	3,119	657,728	42,770	2,853	556,392	38,664
" 1859–60...	3,359	630,990	41,181	3,178	598,260	38,209
" 1858–59...	3,114	494,360	36,081	3,059	477,368	33,864

We conclude this article with an abstract from a dissertation on the relations between the United States and Brazil, which lately appeared in *O Coroto Mercantil*, an influential commercial paper published at Rio de Janeiro, the object of which is mainly to make plain the benefits both countries would derive from regular steam communication, awd the more intimate knowledge of each other, this would bring about. Though the object for which it was written is now gained, steam lines from New York and Boston to the ports of Brazil having been formally arranged, much of the information it contains is not only new but exceedingly interesting:

"With regard to steam communication, the following may be considered as a brief notice of the general views taken of it in the United States. Figures and facts drawn from the history of the past, and the statistics of the actual commerce, seem to guarantee the success of the enterprise. The most intelligent observers do not discover any plausible reason for not auguring the most happy result, and at the same time the most advantageous occasion is offered to vastly increase the traffic and the means of transport of passengers between the United States and Brazil; the commerce between them and other South American countries will likewise be considerably augmented.

"As regards the Empire of Brazil, does it answer its interests to have direct steam communication with the United States? It has been already proved that, of all its customers, the United States is the best—not only the best but equal to all the others united. This is a very important fact. If it be evident in itself that in private affairs, by smoothing the ways and augmenting the facilities between purchasers and sellers, the quantity of transactions and exchanges will be increased, it will be difficult to prove the contrary with regard to nations; and certainly, among private persons a seller would not desire to see his best customer badly served.

"Brazil is comparatively a new country or nation, possessing a territory of vast extent, greater than that of the United States, a large portion of which is of extreme fertility and abundant in precious woods and mineral wealth, with an extensive coast provided with fine and safe harbors, and

with a climate equal, if not superior, to any portion of the earth. Already with a population twice greater than that of the United States in the year 1790, with its system of internal improvements vigorously pursued, and with the rapid development of its resources, which to-day are buried in complete lethargy, its future greatness will be on a far larger scale.

"For several years more coffee will continue to form its principal product and first staple article for export commerce; but in proportion as the current of its population pours over its immense interior, other articles will, in their turn, play a more prominent part, and the whole commerce of the country will keep pace with the increase of the population. The natural augmentation of a population of eight to nine millions—its actual state—will be very considerable, to which Europe will add by immigration a great per centage.

"By means of a system of land grants properly organised, this Government is able to offer great allurements to foreigners to establish themselves there and to cultivate the interior. At the same time, Brazil may hope from the United States, in proportion as the relations between the two countries will have been multiplied, many advantages by the introduction of its improved agricultural instruments and various other articles which, so far, have not formed any important item in its commerce. England and the United States are great manufacturing nations, and it must be the interest of Brazil to encourage competition between them. England has greatly improved her position with reference to Brazil, since 1850, by the decisive advantages resulting from her steam communication.

"The general trade has also much increased between her and Brazil, while between the latter and the United States that commerce has scarcely begun, and without some new incentive may remain in its infancy, leaving in the meantime Brazil exposed to the evil influence of monopoly. The proportion in the increase of coffee export to the United States will, in future, probably be greater than it has been till now, on account of the great impulse communicated to it by the culture of waste lands and the generally improved condition of the planters, in consequence of the introduction of railroads.

"The consumption of Brazilian coffee, during the last seven years, was 964,700 bags yearly, whilst during the seven preceding years it was on an average yearly only 661,670 bags, showing for that short period an increase of 46 per cent. This answers exactly the period of seven years during which railroads were regularly opened in the interior of the United States; and the greatly increased shipping of coffee to New Orleans and New York—two principal points which provide the interior—shows the wholesome influence exercised by the establishment of railroads. The demand for an article like coffee will increase in the United States, in a greater proportion than that of its increased population. because the railroad, although a mere machine, is at the same time a great civilizer, and soon transforms what at first was luxury, into common want, and afterwards into necessities.

"And for the same reason, if Brazil continues its policy of internal improvements, the demand for those articles which the United States is able to furnish in exchange, at moderate prices, will also increase. It is not possible to fix any limits to the amount of this exchange traffic between the two nations. However, the true policy of Brazil cannot be to put any

obstacle in the way of the progress of this traffic; on the contrary. it is its interest to accord to it all possible facility. in order to improve and complete it. Certainly there is every probability that between Brazil and the United States the most amicable relations will continue, if there is taken into consideration the reciprocity of their interests and position with regard to other nations.

"Those two countries, governed by liberal constitutions, are destined to be natural allies in the progress of the world; and in truth it is the interest of all nations to be friends to Brazil, not only in consideration of its progressive importance in the rank of nations, but on account of its position on the ocean. Brazil, and in particular its commercial capital—Rio de Janeiro—is placed as if to serve as a central station to the commercial relations of all maritime nations. From Europe to the East Indies, and to the western coast of South and North America, and from the United States to those points, Rio de Janeiro is the great provisioning port. Ships in danger or having suffered damage, merchant craft proceeding from all parts of the globe, may touch at Rio de Janeiro, sure to find there a safe and commodious harbor, with the best opportunity of procuring assistance or providing themselves with provisions, water, &c. Rio de Janeiro thus occupies a peculiar and imposing position, to which no other port in the world can ever become a rival.

"The United States are to-day the second, and will soon be the first commercial nation in the world. They behold in Brazil another great and young nation, rising in the same hemisphere and pursuing the same general policy, viz.: That of conferring the greatest quantity of well being on the greatest number possible. And if the United States, which have not yet ceased to be a young nation, are already the greatest customer of Brazil, what may be expected within twenty years, when their net of Railways, whose length already exceeds 30,000 miles, will be still more extended, especially if Brazil should persevere in the same manner in its domestic improvement with regard to foreigners? Here are two young nations, near each other, whose yearly exchanges amount to nearly twenty millions of dollars. In a few years these figures will have doubled; and shall such a considerable commerce, and the money transactions resulting from it, forever continue in their present embarrassing position because these two countries are forced in their mutual communications to have recourse to an immense circuit? One of the principal reasons of that state of things being continued is that the two nations know very little of each other. Generally the people of the United States entertain a very erroneous and false opinion of the actual state of Brazil. They are not aware of the great improvements which have taken place here during the last ten years; they know little of the progress of its political and social life; and without having more frequent relations they will be unable to duly appreciate the Brazilians. The simplest way of doing away with this inconvenience is to establish a steamship line directly from the United States to Brazil. If the Congress of the United States should extend its protection to a company for the formation of such a line, would it not be also the interest of Brazil and the Brazilians to encourage it as much as possible?

"There are many important points which concern the relations of both countries. The character of their institutions, in spite of the few relations

existing between them, bears a great resemblance. This may partly be attributed to the fact that the people of both countries enjoy the liberty to procure their well being in the way they like. The one have a President, the other an Emperor; but the provisions of their respective Constitutions are equally enlightened and humane for almost all practical purposes; they accord personal liberty and protection to everybody. There exist small differences; but in Brazil, in its most enlightened districts, life and property are as fully guaranteed as in the United States. Thus, being free, the natural intelligence of the people impels them to cultivate the arts and other branches of knowledge, and with the aid of well directed science, the progress of agriculture, industry and commerce may be confidently looked for."

ANALYSES OF RAILROAD REPORTS. NO. 2.

The reports analysed in the present Number are those of the Michigan Central and the Michigan Southern and Northern Indiana Companies.

4.—MICHIGAN CENTRAL RAILROAD.

The Michigan Central Railroad extends in a single track from Detroit to Chicago, a distance of	284.8 miles
And holds a lease of the Joliet and Northern Indiana Railroad (completed in 1855), which joins it at Lake Station	44.5 "
Making the total length operated	329.3 miles

The main line stretches in a west and southwest direction across the lower Michigan peninsula, its initial point being Detroit, at which it connects with the great railways of Canada. Its western terminus is Chicago, on which converge the principal lines draining the upper and middle Mississippi countries. It is thus situated on the best line for through business; and, within its own circuit, has one of the finest agricultural regions of the West. Leaving Detroit it passes through Wayne, Washtenaw, Jackson, Calhoun, Kalamazoo, Van Buren, Cass and Berrien counties in Michigan, and through the northern parts of La Porte, Porter and Lake counties in Indiana, into and half through Cook county in Illinois to Chicago. Along this line are situated the principal cities of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Jackson, Marshall, Kalamazoo and New Buffalo, the latter the principal port in the southern portion of Lake Michigan. Detroit is the commercial metropolis of the State and, in 1860, had 45,619 inhabitants. The other cities have populations ranging from 4,000 to 6,000 each. The population of the counties above named, in 1854 and 1864, is compared in the annexed table, which also gives the grain and wool crops return by the State census of the latter year:

Counties.	Population 1854.	Population 1864.	Bushels, 1863 Wheat.	Bushels, 1863 Other grain.	Pounds Wool.
Wayne	63,778	83,226	181,145	317,240	196,421
Washtenaw	28,836	34,048	714,909	259,054	879,509
Jackson	21,855	25,905	733,558	101,912	596,117
Calhoun	22,768	30,488	885,583	119,359	448,459
Kalamazoo	16,893	25,842	682,032	126,585	274,990
Van Buren	8,800	17,880	295,135	77,447	56,586
Cass	13,194	17,776	397,741	110,278	114,827
Berrien	13,847	25,856	341,368	110,658	53,421
Total	191,401	261,075	4,181,466	1,222,533	2,637,712

And to these figures may be added an equal enumeration for those portions of the counties adjoining those named on the north and south, which are, in a great measure, dependent on the Central Railroad for their markets. Chicago, at which city it makes its western terminus, is the largest grain, pork, beef and lumber mart in the world, and in 1865, contained 178,539 inhabitants.

The *rolling stock* owned by the Company at the close of the fiscal years in May, 1861 to 1865, was, as shown in the following table:

	1861.	1862.	1863.	1864.	1865.
Locomotive engines	98	98	98	97	97
Passenger and baggage cars	108	108	108	97	109
Freight cars	1,060	1,284	1,297	1,289	1,301
Working cars	251	262	262	289	289
Total cars	1,419	1,654	1,667	1,655	1,673

The *mileage of engines* drawing trains on the road, yearly since the full completion of the road in 1852:

Fiscal Years.	No. of Eng's.	Miles run with trains: Pas'ger.	Freight.	Working.	Total.
1852-53	..	375,125	331,167	197,054	903,346
1853-54	..	550,000	450,000	150,000	1,150,000
1854-55	64	652,979	503,909	135,851	1,292,739
1855-56	81	804,161	621,508	151,202	1,576,871
1856-57	92	795,441	740,716	143,031	1,679,188
1857-58	98	676,080	503,923	108,041	1,288,044
1858-59	98	631,709	448,361	107,818	1,187,948
1859-60	98	582,638	450,449	123,916	1,156,103
1860-61	98	528,115	545,888	163,265	1,237,268
1861-62	98	507,635	672,627	156,396	1,336,658
1862-63	98	511,226	762,877	174,455	1,448,558
1863-64	97	591,994	729,133	237,105	1,558,232
1864-65	97	645,974	642,671	294,148	1,582,793

The following table shows the tonnage and passengers carried over the road in the same years:

Fiscal Years.	Passengers carried: Thro'	Local.	Total.	Tons of Fr't Carried.
1852-53	77,492½	107,059½	247,552	161,236
1853-54	112,906	245,029	357,936	216,360
1854-55	158,635½	345,138½	503,774	241,825
1855-56	161,270	389,510	550,780	231,253
1856-57	187,029½	406,600½	593,630	258,529
1857-58	154,684½	307,279	461,956½	276,294
1858-59	92,169	269,368	361,537	225,153
1859-60	72,666½	251,755	324,421½	235,276
1860-61	65,110	262,765	327,775	275,570
1861-62	55,292	253,536	308,828	463,112
1862-63	59,689	387,673	447,361	554,[illegible]
1863-64	89,552½	556,206½	645,759	542,470
1864-65	107,540½	745,348½	852,889	485,573

The *direction of travel and traffic* is shown for the four last years in the following tables:

DIRECTION OF TRAVEL.

Fiscal Years.	Westward: Local.	Thro'	Total.	Eastward: Local.	Thro'	Total.	Pas'ng's car'd 1 mile	Earnings per pass'r per mile.
1861-62	129,009	32,040	161,049	124,527	23,252	147,779	29,905,673	2.53c
1862-63	190,946	32,759	223,705	196,726	26,930	223,656	35,923,072	2.49c
1863-64	280,203½	49,627½	329,831	276,003	39,925	315,928	51,627,391	2.44c
1864-65	337,873	59,714½	447,586½	357,476½	47,836	405,302½	68,338,575	2.39c

DIRECTION OF TRAFFIC.

Fiscal Years.	Tons carried one mile: Westw'd.	Eastward.	Total.	Proportion: West.	East.	Earn'gs per ton per mile
1861-62	16,869,966	64,863,488	81,733,474	20.64	79.36	1.51c
1862-63	25,678,889	73,826,089	99,504,978	25.81	74.19	1.39c
1863-64	31,061,968	60,967,177	91,929,145	33.77	66.23	2.25c
1864-65	29,689,208	43,248,111	72,937,319	40.70	59.30	3.08c

The following table exhibits the *earnings* and *expenses* of the road (including local taxes) from the 22d September, 1846, when the present company came in possession, to the 31st May, 1865:

Fiscal years.	Gross Earnings: Passengers.	Freight.	Mails, &c.	Total.	Operating Expenses.	Net Earn'gs.
1846–47 (7½ mos)	$60,760	$146,953	$1,588	$209,300	$86,167	$123,133
1847–48 (13 mos.)	152,053	234,649	14,354	401,047	201,858	199,189
1848–49	197,767	214,439	15,223	427,429	239,234	188,195
1849–50	368,437	279,411	44,124	691,972	301,649	390,323
1850–51	490,120	408,449	48,778	947,347	341,665	605,682
1851–52	531,477	412,438	76,033	1,069,948	404,747	665,200
1852–53	569,489	504,956	59,216	1,153,661	568,722	585,939
1853–54	855,918	673,020	50,475	1,579,413	903,944	675,469
1854–55	1,246,409	900,446	68,429	2,215,284	1,335,627	879,657
1855–56	1,497,855	1,209,925	92,663	2,800,443	1,571,818	1,228,625
1856–57	1,610,416	1,413,492	80,695	3,104,603	2,083,199	1,021,404
1857–58	1,321,039	1,033,748	73,970	2,428,757	1,531,218	897,539
1858–59	933,609	831,435	64,085	1,838,129	1,072,733	765,398
1859–60	893,508	962,622	66,815	1,822,945	1,077,483	755,462
1860–61	800,950	1,171,795	75,809	2,048,494	1,137,724	910,770
1861–62	724,915	1,559,061	77,265	2,361,241	1,149,153	1,212,088
1862–63	589,682	1,983,757	73,121	2,946,560	1,272,360	1,674,200
1863–64	1,262,415	2,073,274	98,859	3,434,548	1,720,125	1,714,423
1864–65	1,771,813	2,233,529	140,077	4,145,419	2,406,149	1,739,270

The United States taxes on dividends and passengers, not included in any of the above items, amounted in 1862–63 to $28,385; in 1863–64 to $55,222, and in 1864–65 to $165,265.

The *profit and loss account*, which differs somewhat from the Superintendent's statements, on which the above table is based, gives the following as the result of operations for the same years:

Fiscal years.	Total Resources.	Current expenditures.	Interest and Exchange.	Sinking Fund.	Dividends declared.	Surplus to credit.
1846–47	$209,300	$86,167	$.....	$.....	$100,751	$23,383
1847–48	433,429	201,858	.....	.....	176,000	45,571
1848–49	473,001	239,234	.....	.....	176,000	57,776
1849–50	752,188	301,649	242,109	.....	190,368	18,062
1850–51	985,166	400,840	277,469	.....	230,544	76,313
1851–52	1,151,607	470,981	274,379	.....	404,139	2,153
1852–53	1,151,796	566,722	279,399	.....	320,000	deficit 14,325
1853–54	1,574,280	903,944	269,587	.....	368,536	12,193
1854–55	1,274,128	1,335,628	360,903	.....	340,860	236,737
1855–56	3,115,059	1,566,819	478,639	.....	602,840	466,761
1856–57	3,628,650	1,872,895	586,502	.....	604,450	564,803
1857–58	2,992,719	1,890,557	701,887	.....	302,955	87,420
1858–59	1,977,196	1,072,732	735,488	.....	.....	108,976
1859–60	1,961,449	1,077,483	730,760	60,000	.....	78,206
1860–61	2,126,699	1,137,724	634,323	75,000	181,713	3[illegible],434
1861–62	2,407,023	1,149,153	679,463	84,500	181,713	312,194
1862–63	3,260,111	1,272,360	617,657	84,500	484,573	772,636
1863–64	4,189,522	1,720,125	600,217	84,500	726,864	1,002,894
1864–65	5,124,107	2,406,149	622,691	84,500	1,136,826	708,385
Cash dividend declared June 20, 1865					259,648	448,737

The *financial condition* of the company at the close of each fiscal year from 1850–51 to 1864–65 is exhibited briefly in the following table:

Fiscal Years.	Liabilities: Capital.	Bonds.	Bills payable.	Income.	Total.	Cost of Property.
1850–51	2,658,000	3,802,250	191,388	76,318	6,709,187	6,339,666
1851–52	3,237,500	3,965,950	949,579	2,153	8,156,700	8,156,700
1852–53	4,234,000	3,994,313	631,176	...	8,856,834	8,351,459
1853–54	5,681,000	3,985,063	294,570	12,192	9,951,999	9,272,949
1854–55	5,021,916	5,594,063	315,223	236,737	12,163,939	10,644,027
1855–56	6,033,432	5,408,063	1,098,766	466,766	13,009,936	11,418,173
1856–57	6,058,092	5,736,563	1,459,834	564,803	13,914,986	12,160,677
1857–58	6,057,840	8,284,063	118,576	87,420	14,548,411	13,158,958
1858–59	6,057,840	8,184,489	....	108,976	14,351,799	13,158,958
1859–60	6,057,820	7,914,489	90,782	78,206	14,141,676	13,158,958
1860–61	6,057,784	7,968,489	125,000	38,434	14,191,649	13,158,958
1861–62	6,057,710	7,999,489	....	312,194	14,371,174	13,151,258
1862–63	6,057,436	7,999,489	....	772,636	14,834,954	13,805,576
1863–64	6,315,906	7,740,989	....	1,002,894	15,066,822	13,805,576
1864–65	6,491,386	7,565,489	....	708,385	14,781,571	13,805,576

The total includes also several small balances not otherwise designated.

The construction account, which includes the cost of steamboats, was increased in 1862–43 by the transfer of sundry items, properly belonging to construction, and not before charged to that account.

On the 31st May, 1865, the Trustees of the Sinking Funds reported $565,368 71 to the credit of the First and $167,643 50 to the credit of the Second Sinking Fund, which, deducted from the Bonded debt leaves the net amount debt of $6,832,376 78.

The cost of road and equipment *per mile*, the earnings, expenses and profits per mile, and the rate of dividends, as deduced from the foregoing tables, are shown in the following statement:

Fiscal Years.	Miles of Road.	Cost of R'd p. m.	Earnings. per mile.	Exp. p. m.	Profits. p. m.	Exp. to earn'gs.	Rate of Div.
1846–47 (7¼ mos.)	143.1	$18,976	$1,469	$602	$867	$4117	8
1847–48 (13 mos.)	159.4	23,699	2,516	1,266	1,250	50 33	8
1848–49	217.9	21,097	1,961	1,098	863	55 99	8
1849–50	217.9	23,261	3,176	1,384	1,792	43 58	8
1850–51	227.5	27,886	4,164	1,502	2,662	36 07	9
1851–52	284.8	28,640	3,737	1,421	2,316	38 06	14
1852–53	284.8	29,394	4,057	1,989	2,062	49 10	8
1853–54	284.8	32,559	5,545	3,174	2,371	57 24	8
1854–55	284.8	37,573	7,778	4,689	3,089	60 29	10
1855–56	284.8	40.092	9,833	5,519	4,314	56 12	11
1856–57	284.8	42,699	10.901	7,314	3.587	67 10	10
1857–58	284.8	46,204	8,528	5,376	3,152	63 04	..
1858–59	284.8	46,204	6,454	3,766	2,688	58 35	..
1859–60	284.8	46.204	6,435	3,788	2,652	58 83	
1860–61	284.8	46,204	7,198	2,994	3,199	55 52	3
1861–62	284.8	46,198	8,291	4.035	4,256	48 66	3
1862–?3	284.8	46,474	10,346	4.468	5,878	43 19	8
1863–64	284.8	46.474	12,059	6,040	6,019	50 05	12
1864–65	284.8	46,474	14,555	8,449	6,106	58 05	18
Dividend declared June 20, 1865—Cash 4 and stock 6.							10

The fluctuations of the *market price* of the stock of the Michigan Central Railroad Company at New York monthly for the five years ending with June, 1865 has been as follows:

Months.	1860-1.	1861-2.	1862-3.	1863-4.	1864-5.
July	47¾@60¾	41 @47¾	57 @ 63¾	107 @116½	132 @140
August	59¾@73¾	40¾@43	59¾@ 60¾	113 @126	133¾@140¾
September	67¾@72¾	41¾@43¾	66¾@ 81½	116 @123¾	123¼@134¼
October	59¾@70¾	41 @52	81¾@ 92¾	120¾@126¾	114¼@130
November	45 @64	41 @54½	85¾@ 91½	120¾@128¼	124¼@128¼
December	41 @50¾	41 @50¼	88¾@ 93	119¾@128¾	115 @138
January	51¾@61¾	47 @55¾	91 @ 99	118¾@130	103¾@117¼
February	49¾@60¾	48¾@54¾	94¾@ 98¾	131¾@143	107¼@114¾
March	54 @60	55¾@58¾	97 @104¾	136¾@152	89¾@112
April	40 @58	53¾@56¾	99¾@105	133 @157	93 @114
May	40 @46	56¼@63¾	105 @124¼	131 @146¾	106 @115
June	39¾@44¾	59¾@68¼	106 @119¾	142¾@156½	105¼@130
YEAR	40 @73¾	40¾@68¼	57 @124¼	107 @157	89¾@140¾

The Michigan Central Railroad Company was chartered by the Legislature of Michigan March 28, 1846, with a capital of $5,000,000, with authority to increase it to $8,000,000, and to purchase the railroad partially completed by the State extending west from Detroit to Kalamazoo, 143 miles.

The construction of a railroad from Detroit on Lake Erie to St. Joseph on Lake Michigan was commenced by a company originally chartered in 1831, which up to 1837 had expended on the work $116,902. In 1837, the State having undertaken an elaborate system of internal improvements, assumed the construction of this line, which formed a part of the system, and opened the first section from Detroit to Ypsilanti 29.4 miles in January, 1839.

The road was extended and opened to Ann Arbor 8 miles further west in October, 1839; to Dexter 9½ miles in July, 1840; to Jackson 28.7 miles in January, 1842; to Marshall 31.7 miles in August, 1844; to Battle Creek 12.9 miles in November, 1845; and to Kalamazoo 22.8 miles in March, 1846—making a total length completed and operated at this time 143 miles.

The credit of the State had by this time become exhausted, and its finances so embarrassed as to necessitate the abandonment of its public works. At this juncture the Legislature passed an act authorizing their sale, and under this act the present Michigan Central Railroad Company was formed, and the road sold to them for the sum of $2 000,000. The work had been constructed after the fashion of the day, with a flat rail laid upon longitudinal sleepers, and in the cheapest if not most economical manner. The cost to the State had been about $2,500,000.

The new company took possession of the property on the 23d September, 1846, and immediately provided the means for its extension westward to New Buffalo on Lake Michigan, a distance of 74 miles from Kalamazoo, the point attained under the State administration, and for the reconstruction of the portion already open, but which was already in a delapidated condition. The graduation of the new line was commenced in March, 1847, and the work was completed in the spring of 1849, having been opened for traffic in sections as follows: From Kalamazoo to Paw Paw, 16.3 miles, in July, 1847; to Decatur, 7.7 miles, in August; to Dowagiac, 11.1 miles, in September; and to Niles, 12.5 miles, in October, 1848, and to New Buffalo early in the year 1849. The road between New Buffalo and Michigan City 9.6 miles was completed on the 30th October, 1850. Upon reaching the lake, communication was maintained with Chicago by means of steamboats. The road was finally constructed into Chicago, and the first trains entered that city on the 21st April, 1852. That portion of the line west of Michigan City was constructed nominally by the New Albany and Salem Railroad Company, under authority granted by their charter to construct branches—the State of Indiana having refused to give the Michigan Central Company the required powers. For the Illinois portion of the line the Illinois Central Railroad was used under a perpetual agreement made between the two companies. The stations, etc., in Chicago are owned and occupied conjointly with the Illinois Central and the Chicago, Burlington, and Quincy companies. The Michigan Central Railroad Company has been one of the most fortunate in the West. With the exception of the three years 1858, '59, and '60, in which the result of the financial panic of 1857 were chiefly felt, this company has never failed to pay dividends to its stockholders. Its geographical position is admirable, and its connection either by rail or steamboat complete. But much of the success it has enjoyed must be attributed to the able minds that have directed its destinies, and which still labor in its behalf. Since the present company acceded to the property the stockholders have received an average dividend of 7.26 per centum yearly.

5.—MICHIGAN SOUTHERN AND NORTHERN INDIANA RAILROAD.

THE Michigan Southern and Northern Indiana Railroad consists of the several divisions and branches as shown in the following statement:

Main line	Toledo to Chicago	242.06	miles.
Air line	Toledo to Elkhart	133.20	"
Detroit, Monroe & Toledo line	Air Line Junc. to Detroit & Mil. Junc.	59.12	"
Monroe branch	Adrian to Monroe	33.60	"
Jackson branch	Lenawee Junction to Jackson	41.90	"
Lenawee branch	Palmyra Junction to Lenawee Junction	2.50	"
Constantine branch	White Pigeon to Constantine	4.18	"
Total (on which are 53.23 miles of side track)		516.56	miles.
Track (with 0.75 miles side track) owned conjointly with Chicago and Rock Island Railroad Company		1.67	"
Track of Detroit and Milwaukee Railroad from Junction to Detroit under permanent lease		3.21	"
Total length operated by M. S. & N. I. R. R. Co		521.44	miles.

This road, in its several divisions, traverses eight counties in Southern Michigan, three in Northwestern Ohio, eight in Northern Indiana, and one county (Cook) in Illinois. It has three several termini to the east, viz: Toledo, Monroe, and Detroit, all of which it connects directly with Chicago, which is its western terminus. At Toledo it joins the Lake Shore Line of Railroads, through which it reaches the seaboard markets. At Monroe it has direct access to Lake Erie and its navigation. At Detroit it connects with the great Canadian railroads. These facts assure to the road a very large through traffic, for which there is only a single competitor, and that, only so far as the Detroit trade is concerned. This competitor is the Michigan Central Railroad. There is no difference, however, in the distance between Chicago and Detroit by either line, each having a length of 284 miles. The country drained by the Southern road has an extreme width of sixty miles, narrowing as it proceeds west, and towards the Illinois line becoming limited to the immediate shore of Lake Michigan. But from this territory, which is a fine agricultural and well populated country, it derives from local travel and traffic fully half its gross annual income and nearly three-fifths of its net revenue, the rate of local carriage being higher than the through rate, the average difference in favor of through carriage having been in 1864–65 for passengers 9.5 mills and for tonnage 16.7 mills per mile. A competing line for the local business would have the effect of equalizing these charges. The result, however, has been an enormous revenue for the work done, and a highly prosperous condition of late years, and especially during the progress of the late war; all of which will be seen in the following tables exibiting the yearly results of operations. For several years (1858–61) swamped by debt, it has recently emerged from its difficulties, and become one of the most remunerative of enterprises.

The *rolling stock* on the road has been as follows:

Year Ending	Locom's Engines.	Cars in Trains Pass.	Fre't.	gravel	Total
January 1, 1858	90	139	1,235	..	1,414
" 1859	91	135	948	28	1,111
March 1, 1860	89	113	929	30	1,072
" 1861	88	109	934	30	1,069
" 1862	88	111	956	20	1,089
" 1863	88	111	1,087	20	1,218
" 1864	86	110	1,135	..	1,245
" 1865	97	123	1,337	..	1,460

The *mileage of engines with trains* is given in the following statement:

Years Ending	Passenger.	Freight.	Wood & Gravel.	Total.
Jan. 1, 1858	858,974	561,319	149,310	1,569,603
" 1859	768,396	567,184	139,219	1,374,799
March 1, 1860	669,482	704,349	156,247	1,530,078
" 1861	571,314	881,818	139,245	1,592,377
" 1862	657,970	990,851	146,399	1,775,218
" 1863	682,382	1,197,109	190,346	2,060,637
" 1864	736,935	1,245,465	189,027	2,171,477
" 1865	785,286	1,151,612	250,226	2,187,124

The *amount and direction of travel and traffic* on the road are shown in the following statements:

AMOUNT AND DIRECTION OF TRAVEL.

Years Ending	Number of Passengers— Thro'	Local.	Total.	Mileage of Passengers— Thro'	Local.	Total.
Jan'ary 1, 1858	159,992	374,558	534,550	39,240,118	14,626,845	53,866,963
" 1859	85,237	317,692	402,929	20,705,032	14,114,858	34,819,880
March 1, 1860	64,213½	275,773	339,986½	15,823,144	11,488,097	27,311,241
" 1861	64,147½	304,652	368,799½	15,663,978	12,312,051	27,976,029
" 1862	57,094	280,546	337,640	13,962,242	11,142,989	25,105,231
" 1863	66,138	330,585	396,723	16,544,660	12,930,716	29,478,376
" 1864	96,413	480,482	576,895	22,690,068	18,040,202	41,730,270
" 1865	135,197	696,168	831,365	33,260,246	28,212,298	61,472,544

The number of passengers carried *eastward* in 1864–65 was 400,798½, and *westward* 430,566½.

The earnings from passengers per mile in 1859–60 was 2.61 cents, viz: 2.27 through and 3.07 local; in 1860–612.68 cents, viz: 2.29 through and 3.17 local; in 1861–62 2.33 cents, viz: 2.10 through and 3.26 local; in 1862–63 3.02 cents, viz: 2.17 through and 3.26 local; in 1863–64 2.70 cents, viz: 2.17 through and 3.40 local; and in 1864–65 2.75 cents, viz: 2.33 through and 3.28 local.

AMOUNT AND DIRECTION OF TRAFFIC.

Year Ending	Through tonnage— East.	West.	Total.	Way tonnage— East.	West.	Total.	Total Tons.	T'ns car'd 1 mile.
Jan. 1, 1856	13,468	35,648	49,116	91,843	51,341	143,184	192,300	28,082,994
" 1857	19,637	48,484	68,121	85,774	77,919	163,693	231,814	37,524,532
" 1858	11,207	40,414	51,621	96,819	86,364	183,183	234,804	28,532,565
" 1859	36 996	17,724	54,720	127,614	79,279	206,893	261,613	30,893,589
Mar. 1, 1860	78,872	27,416	105.288	162,039	77,973	241,012	346,300	45,744,920
" 1861	103,190	34,500	137,690	187,284	73,755	260,989	398,679	56,428,071
" 1862	143,306	39,833	183,139	181,757	87,812	269,569	452,708	66,468,104
" 1863	193,262	53,370	246,632 2	3,664	83,330	296,994	543,626	81,141,241
" 1864	183,475	6 ,430	243,905	206,361	108,713	315,074	558,979	86,308,461
" 1865	126,631	68,038	194,669	228,941	103,891	332,832	527,501	77,682,529

The gross earnings per ton per mile for the same yearswere: 2.768, 2.558, 2.817, 2.742, 2.292, 2.201, 2.092, 2.099, 2.296, and 2.833 cents and thousandths.

The *gross earnings, expenses, and profits* of operating the road (including steamers) are given in the following statement:

Years Ending	Gross earnings— Pas'ng's.	Frei't.	Other.	Total.	Operat'g expenses.	Prf'ts f'm operat'ns
Jan. 1, 1856	$1.520,675	$954,428	$120,927	$2,595,630	$1,319,154	$1,276,476
" 1857	1,598,919	957,121	158,808	2.714.848	1,598.770	1,116,078
" 1858	1,316,478	808.703	189,246	2,309,487	1.765,176	544,311
" 1859	930,174	872,419	226,832	2,019,425	1,242,152	777,273
March 1, 1860	714,196	955,752	164,533	1.834,421	1,067,493	766,728
" 1861	749,237	1,226,569	89,653	2,075,459	1,039,830	1,035,629
" 1862	710,417	1.419,498	120,603	2,250,518	1.112,970	1,137,548
" 1863	892,138	1,804,582	117,114	2,813,831	1,352,555	1,461,276
" 1864	1,944,129	2,016,851	123,314	3,384,294	1,753,517	1,630,777
" 1865	1,875,061	2,242,772	171,433	4,289,465	2,408,352	1,881,113

The *rate and character* of the dividends paid on the capital stock of the company since the completion of the road into Chicago, have been as follows:

	Stock. Cash.	Stock. Scrip.	Guar. st'k: cash.		Stock. Cash.	Stock. Scrip.	Guar. st'k: cash.
January, 1853	5	..	..	January, 1857	5	..	..
July, "	7	..	..	August, 1863	..	..	5
January, 1854	..	10	..	Febr'ry, 1864	..	..	5
July, "	5	7	..	August, "	3½	..	5
January, 1855	..	5	..	Febr'ry, 1865	3½	..	5
July, "	5	..	..	August, "	..	..	5
January, 1856	5	..	..				
July, "	5	..	..	Total	44	22	35

The *financial condition* of the company at the close of each of the last ten fiscal years is exhibited in the following statement:

Years ending.	Stock. Common.	Stock. Guar'd.	Funded Debt.	All other Liabilities.	Total of all acc'ts.
Jan. 1, 1856	$6,928,000	.....	$5,800,000	$518,234	$13,247,134
" 1857	7,263,100	.....	1,910,000	2,840,349	17,013,549
" 1858	5,983,200	$2,893,200	8,593,000	1,990,943	19,460,743
Mar. 1, 1859	6,061,800	2,893,600	9,343,000	1,277,007	19,585,397
" 1860	6,024,600	2,893,600	9,721,000	1,336,763	19,975,963
" 1861	6,124,600	2,893,100	9,719,704	603,084	19,340,988
" 1862	6,124,600	2,893,600	9,750,707	449,560	19,218,467
" 1863	6,124,600	2,893,600	9,527,078	245,047	18,790,325
" 1864	7,536,800	2,583,600	8,287,255	224,311	18,631,966
" 1865	7,536,600	2,183,600	8,564,115	709,902	18,994,217

Against which have been charged—

Years ending.	M. S. & N. I. R.R. Length. miles.	M. S. & N. I. R.R. Cost of road. & equip.	Steamers and Prop'rs.	D. M. & T. R.R. Length. miles.	D. M. & T. R.R. Cost of road.	Total cost of fixed prop.
Jan. 1, 1856	378	$11,226,757	$418,457	..	.....	$11,645,208
" 1857	460	15,337,170	527,607	..	491,865	14,356,642
" 1858	460	14,742,754	676,933	59	1,346,855	16,766,541
Mar. 1, 1859	460	14,714,731	698,245	59	1,411,067	16,824,043
" 1860	460	15,193,670	712,678	59	1,523,786	17,430,134
" 1861	460	15,238,379	691,278	59	1,560,043	17,489,709
" 1862	460	15,260,663	691,278	59	1,560,182	17,512,123
" 1863	460	15,257,883	.....	59	1,653,382	16,911,265
" 1864	460	15,263,444	.....	59	1,663,568	16,927,012
" 1865	460	15,263,444	.....	59	1,698,768	16,962,212

The company also held, March 1, 1865, the following property and assets:

Available property and assets	$1,072,409	
Nominal assets	72,656	
Profit and loss, Balance of Income	886,940	2,032,005
Total Property and assets		$16,994,217

The *cost of road and equipment per mile and earnings per mile* of road are shown in the subjoined table:

Year ending	Cost per mile of road, &c.	Per mile of road. Earn'gs.	Expen's.	Profit.	Expenses per cent.	Divi. Com.	Divi. Guar
Jan. 1, 1856	$29,701	$6,867	$3,489	$3,378	50.81	10	..
" 1857	28,999	5,902	3,475	2,427	58.88	10	..
" 1858	29,074	4,450	3,401	1,049	76.43	..	..
" 1859	31,071	3,891	2,393	1,498	61.50	..	..
Mar. 1, 1860	32,211	3,534	2,057	1,477	58.21	..	..
" 1861	32,366	3,999	2,003	1,996	50.09	..	..
" 1862	32,410	4,336	2,144	2,192	49.45	..	..
" 1863	32,584	5,421	2,606	2,815	48.07	..	..
" 1864	32,614	6,521	3,378	3,143	51.80	..	10
" 1865	32,668	8,265	4,640	3,625	56.14	7	10
Dividend paid August, 1865						..	5

The *lowest and highest prices* of the company's stocks at the New York Stock Exchange Board for each month of the five years ending March 1, 1865, were as shown in the following tables:

COMMON STOCK.

Months.	1860-61	1861-62.	1862-63.	1863-64.	1864-65.
March	7¼@19	14½@18¼	22¾@25	53¾@ 61¾	98 @118½
April	9¾@14	13¼@17¾	23 @23¾	55½@ 67½	84¼@118¾
May	11¾@13	10¾@13¾	23 @26½	67½@ 88	85¼@100¾
June	10¾@14	10¼@12¾	25¾@28¼	68¼@ 81	93¼@100
July	13½@19	12 @15¾	23¼@27¼	73¼@ 89¾	80¾@ 94¼
August	17¾@25	12¾@14	24¾@32½	88 @113	82¼@ 92¾
Septemb'r	19¾@24½	13 @14¾	31 @39¼	77 @108¼	71 @ 85
October	15¼@23¾	13¾@19¾	37¼@47	79 @ 89¾	57 @ 71¾
November	12½@18	17¼@20¾	37¼@43¾	79 @ 87¼	68¼@ 77½
Decemb'r	10¾@15	16 @19¾	36¾@41½	77 @ 89	68¾@ 74¾
January	14¼@16¾	19 @22	45¾@65¾	84¾@ 90	61 @ 74¼
February	12¾@15¾	20¾@24¾	55 @63¾	88¾@ 99	68¾@ 70½
Year	7¼@25	10¼@24¾	22 @65¾	53¾@113	57 @118¼

GUARANTEED 10 PER CENT STOCK.

Months.	1860-61.	1861-62.	1862-63.	1863-64.	1864-65.
March	17 @24½	33 @39½	46 @ 49¾	94¾@109	143 @150
April	19¾@26	26 @29¾	44¼@ 47¾	98 @110	127 @165
May	22 @26¼	24¾@29¼	47 @ 58¾	108¾@122½	130 @148
June	23 @30½	22½@27½	57 @ 64	110¾@119	140 @143¾
July	30 @44	26¼@33½	52¾@ 60¾	111 @117	133 @140
August	43 @50	27½@30	55¾@ 64¾	113½@140	140 @149½
Septemb'r	42¾@50¼	28¾@31¼	61¼@ 74	124 @137	125½@147
October	35 @50¼	31 @40¾	72½@ 85	134½@151	133 @133
November	26¼@38¼	35¾@41¾	80¾@ 85¾	135 @151	140 @146¾
Decemb'r	28 @33	36¾@41¾	82 @ 85	130 @135	141 @146
January	33 @38	39¼@43¾	86¾@107	132½@140	135 @147
February	27½@34	40¾@49½	102 @106¾	133 @142½	135 @140
Year	17 @50¼	22½@49¾	44¼@107	94½@156	125½@165

The Michigan Southern and Northern Indiana Railroad Company is a consolidation of the Michigan Southern and the Northern Indiana Railroad companies.

The "Michigan Southern Railroad Company" was chartered May 9, 1846, under an act of the Legislature of Michigan providing for the sale of the State works. By this act the Southern Railroad and its equipments were to be sold for the sum of $500,000. This road had been undertaken by the State as part of the internal improvements authorized by the act of March, 1837, and at the date of sale had been completed from Monroe to Hillsdale, 69 miles, at a cost of $1,300,000. The capital of the new company was fixed at $2,000,000, with the right to increase it to $3,000,000. According to the terms of sale the main line was to be continued west to Lake Michigan, and the Tecumseh branch then open 10 miles, was to be extended to Jackson. The section from Hillsdale to Sturgis was placed under construction early in 1850, and completed and opened for traffic to Jonesville in November, to Coldwater in December, and to Sturgis in March. The remainder of the line in Michigan was commenced in May, 1851, and completed in the following July. In the meanwhile the road had been extended from Monroe to Monroe Pier on Lake Erie. In 1849 and 1850 the Legislature passed acts supplementary to the charter authorizing the relaying of the road with heavy iron, the original track having been constructed of flat bars laid on longitudinal sills. This change was completed before the end of 1852.

The "Northern Indiana" was chartered under the name of the "Buffalo and Mississippi Railroad Company" by the Legislature of Indiana February 6, 1835. The portion of this road in Ohio was chartered March 3, 1851, with a provision for consolidation with the Indiana road. Construction was commenced in 1853, and the road completed to Bryan, 72 miles west from Toledo in 1855, and to the junction with the main line at Elkhart early in 1857.

The portion of the Michigan Southern Railroad within Indiana was built under the charter of the Buffalo and Mississippi Company, and that within Illinois under a separate charter granted June 16, 1852. The whole of the main line was completed into Chicago in May, 1853, a short link next to the city having been built conjointly by the Michigan Southern and the Chicago and Rock Island railroad companies.

The Michigan Southern and Northern Indiana companies had from the first been intimately connected, and their roads constructed and operated under one superintendence. It now became necessary to form the two into a single corporation, and to this end articles of consolidation were signed on the 25th April, 1855.

The Tecumseh, now Jackson Branch, was extended to Manchester in 1855, and to Jackson in 1857. A further extension to Lansing has been spoken of, and will probably be completed at some future day.

The Constantine Branch from White Pigeon to Constantine was opened in 1857. The St. Joseph Valley Branch, extending from Constantine to Three Rivers, was built by a separate company, and purchased by the Michigan Southern Company. In 1864 it was again transferred to the original company on condition of extending it to Schoolcraft. The old branch from Elkhart to Goshen is now a part of the Air Line. A branch or siding of fourteen miles in length from Baileytown to Michigan City also exists, but is simply used for supplying the road with wood from the lake.

The Erie and Kalamazoo Railroad was chartered in 1835, but not built until 1852. Subsequently the stock of the company was bought up by the consolidation, and it now forms part of the main line between Toledo and Chicago.

The Detroit, Monroe and Toledo Railroad was also built by a separate company, the chief part of the stock of which was held by the consolidation, and all is now so held except 73 shares. The construction of this road was commenced in the summer of 1856, and the section between Detroit and Monroe completed in December. The remainder of the line southward was opened in 1857.

The Company formerly owned a number of steamers and propellers which connected the Lake Erie termini of the road with Cleveland, Buffalo, etc. These were sold in 1862.

Few roads in the United States are better equipped than this one. Stations, storehouses, piers, etc., are abundantly supplied, and all that conduces to facilitate the movement of goods and passengers has been sedulously attended to by those in charge of the works. The increase of rolling stock from year to year is shown in tabular form, but numbers alone cannot express the full measure of the increase. We must also take into consideration the increased power of the engines and capacity of the cars, which have nearly doubled within the last ten years. The facilities of the road, indeed, are ample for a very large increase of its present business.

The first years of this road were surprisingly prosperous. At the time of its completion into Chicago both foreign and domestic immigration were in the highest state of activity, and both passengers and tonnage paid handsomely. The business of 1856 reached $2,714,848. Large dividends were in vogue in those days. But the panic of 1857, which swept over the west country with its full force, stopped almost wholly the west-

ward movement, and in that and the subsequent years the business of the road fell off nearly one-half. To make the matter worse, the lateral and branch roads of the company were found to earn less than their proper share, and to cost vastly out of proportion to their earnings. Dividends of course ceased, and it was with great difficulty that the debt alone could be managed. The year 1859–60 was one of the greatest gloom, the earnings and profits having come to bare living amounts. By this time, however, a large portion of the floating debt of the company had been liquidated, and the war coming on with its great business movement, the company now commenced to recuperate in earnest, and from year to year has been increasing in strength and prosperity. It is now, indeed, wholly relieved from debt; and for the last two fiscal years has been able to pay ten per cent interest on its guaranteed stock, and for the last year seven per cent on its common stock. Five years ago the common stock of this company sold heavily at from 7½ to 12, and the guaranteed stock at 17 to 24; in March last the first was selling at 63½ to 70, and had sold as high as 118¾, and the latter was selling at 135 to 140, and had sold at 165.

STATISTICS OF ENGLISH LIFE.

Dr. W. Farr, of the General Register-office, has completed his supplementary volume on the mortality of England in the ten years 1851–60, the census of 1851 and of 1861 furnishing the means of comparing the population with the deaths. He tells the story of life from its beginning. There is little definite information respecting the rate of embryonic mortality; but some years ago Dr. Granville collected statistics of the history of 400 mothers, married women, who applied to the Westminster General Dispensary, and found that though 272 of them had had only live children, the other 128 had in the previous ten years borne 556 live children and 305 dead embryos, the latter most frequently in their earlier months, just as the mortality in the first year of breathing life increases rapidly as we proceed backwards from the 12th to the third, second, and first month. In the 26 years 1838–63 there were registered in England the deaths of no less than 2,374,379 infants born alive but not living for a single year. At this present time 100,000 infants of less than a year old die every year in England. The French returns are very minute, and show in 1856 a mortality of 154 per cent per annum in the first seven days after birth, 120 in the second seven days, and 54 in the sixteen days following. The mortality among children under five years of age in the ten years 1851–60 was very little over 4 per cent, in the more healthy districts of England; in one or two thinly-peopled districts in the extreme north it was under 2.5 per cent. Among the children of peers it has been calculated to be little over 2 per cent; among the children of the clergy in 1829 and 1858 rather over 3 per cent. On the other hand, there are 151 districts of England where, taken as a whole, the child mortality of 1851–60 exceeded 8 per cent; there were in those districts in 1861 1,391,420 children, and every year nearly 65,000 more die than if the death-rate were the same as in healthy districts. In the ten years 1851–60 the mean annual mortality among children under five was 10.49 per cent

in the city of London (east division;) 10.219 in Nottingham; 10.852 in St. Giles's; 11.725 in Manchester district; and 13.198 in Liverpool district. There is no reason to suspect that any great number of the infants in these districts fall victims to deliberate crime, but there is, no doubt, great negligence on the part of parents, great ignorance of the conditions on which health depends, and great privation among the poor. It may be said that the weaklier lives are thus cut off, but it must be borne in mind that many of the strongest children are weakened for life.

Passing on to the higher ages, we find the rate of mortality declining with every year of life up to 12 or 13, when it is at its lowest. Between 10 and 15 years of age less than five boys in a thousand die in the year. Twenty years later in life the mortality is doubled, and goes on increasing to the close. At all ages the variation in the rate in different districts is shown to be very striking. The mortality of men in towns demands a careful investigation. At 45-55 the mortality of London men is not far from double that of men in the healthy districts of the country. It is much higher at every age than the mortality of women in London. Ill-ventilated workshops may have something to do with this, and so may indulgence in spirits and other stimulants. The workmen in all large towns suffer as much as, and often more than, the workmen of London. For instance, at the age 25-35, and again at the age 35-45, and again at the age 45-55, the workmen of Liverpool, Manchester, Bristol, and Newcastle-upon-Tyne die at a still greater rate than the men of London. In the ten years 1851-60 the deaths in 30 large town districts of England, with an aggregate mean population of 2,541,630, comprising seven London districts and the principal provincial town districts, averaged 71,194 a year, while the deaths at the rate in healthy country districts would have been only 38,459—an annual loss of above 32,735 lives in much less than a seventh of the population.

If the mortality of all England is arranged in five great groups, the following result appears:—Where the mortality was 14, 15, or 16, per 1,000 persons living, the population was only 86 to the square mile; where the mortality was 17, 18, or 19, the population was 172 to the square mile; where 20, 21, or 22, 250; where 23, 24, or 25, 1,128, and where 26 and upwards, 3,399. Yet there can now be no doubt that mere proximity of dwellings does not necessarily involve a high rate of mortality. If an adequate water supply and sufficient arrangements for drainage and cleansing are secured, the evils which make dense districts so fatal may be mitigated. It is remarkable that some of the dense districts of cities are already comparatively salubrious. The mortality of a district is by no means bound to its density of population. Bermondsey is less densely inhabited than St. James' Westminister, but the mortality is considerably greater. Next to each other in these tables stand Westminister district (St. John's and St. Margaret's), and the district of St. George, Hanover square, with equal density of population in each taken as a whole; but the former has a mortality far heavier than the latter. It is also to be noted that in London the mortality fell from the annual rate of 25 per 1,000 in the decenniad 1841-50 to 24 per 1,000 in 1851-60. The mortality of Lancashire and Cheshire also declined from 27 to 26. Taking all England, though the growth in numbers, of course, increased the density of population, the rate of mortality did not increase, but continued at 22 per 1,000.

FINANCES OF MINNESOTA.

"THE wealth of nations," says a distinguished statist, "is composed of three distinct elements, of which population is one, real property is the second, and personal property the third."

Minnesota was erected into a Territory of the Union in 1849, with a population of 4,049 souls. Here it becomes a political community, and takes its statistical start. Eight years later when preparing to take its place in the sisterhood of States, a census was taken, which showed that its population had increased to 150,037. In the meanwhile the assessed valuation of real and personal property had risen from $514,936 to $35,000,000.

Thus, in less than ten years, had arisen from the wilderness, a State equaling in population more than one sovereignty of Europe, the structure of a thousand years! This same State contains now (1865) not less than 250,000 inhabitants, and possesses a taxable valuation of not less than $50,000,000.

It took Ohio, Indiana and Michigan each thirty-five years from their foundation to reach the same status. Illinois gained the same point in twenty-five years. Wisconsin, Iowa and Minnesota had each 250,000 fifteen years after being erected into separate territories. It would appear from this that the further we progress into the wilderness the greater and more rapid the influx of population. This, however, may be explained by the greater facilities now enjoyed than those vouchsafed to the immigrants of an earlier date. They had to break the untrod wilderness, unmarked by even ordinary roads, while the immigrant of to-day reaches his destination by railroad and steam navigation. So much for facilities, and as to time, the work of thirty days is now compressed into a single day. Other elements have also favored later times—adverse policy has driven to our shores millions of foreigners, refugees from tyranny and starvation, and the vast increase of population in the older States has compelled the young and able to seek new homes in the West. It is not wonderful then that the extreme portion should receive this foreign and domestic overflow, which, passing the older settlements, seeks new fields on which to expend its forces.

POPULATION AND VALUATION.

The progress of Minnesota since it became a State, in population, land occupation, and wealth is shown in the following table:

Fiscal Year.	Population.	Land, acres.	Valuation for Taxation— Real estate.	Pers'l prop'ty.	Total.
1858.....	155,000	5,182,309	$34,533,144	$7,313,634	$44,846,778
1859.....	163,000	5,957,645	28,349,116	7,227,176	35,576,892
1860.....	172,022	6,404,491	32,021,913	4,629,907	36,753,408
1861.....	190,000	7,171,559	34,066,830	5,914,683	39,981,513
1862.....	215,000	7,274,818	24,791,888	5,040,831	29,832,719
1863.....	230,000	7,580,161	25,100,198	6,560,570	31,660,768
1864.....	250,000	8,026,285	33,111,956	8,500,000	41,611,956

The apparent falling off from the valuation of 1858 is caused by change in the assessment laws. The depression in 1862 and 1863 is the result of Indian hostilities in those years, which temporarily disorganized the

frontier counties, which though appearing in the land column are absent for valuation.

TAXATION.

The amount of taxes assessed on the above valuations, collectable in the next succeding year, is shown in the annexed table:

Taxed Year.	State Taxes			County and Local taxes.	Aggregated Taxation.
	Revenue.	Interest.	Total.		
1859.....	$146,463	$62,777	$209,234	$345,135	$551,369
1860.....	124,517	53,364	177,881	327,349	505,230
1861.....	91,884	55,130	147,014	508,971	655,985
1862.....	99,954	59,926	159,926	498,432	658,358
1863.....	74,765	58,507	133,272	448,392	581,664
1864.....	79,913	63,864	143,777	526,976	670,753

The state taxes for 1850-60 were at the rate of 5 mills, and for the four subsequent years at the rate of 4 mills—3½ and 2½ mills being for revenue, and 1½ mill for interest on the funded debt.

It may be proper in this place to state that there has been great delinquency in the payment of taxes, and that, if all were to pay, the rate might be substantially reduced. The amount for each of the above years remaining unpaid at the end of 1864 was as follows:—of the tax of 1859, $75,015; of 1860, $24,751; of 1861, $20,989; of 1862, $23,556; of 1863, $16,869; of 1864 $25,772.

The taxation for county and other local purposes of course varies in rate for different years, and in the several counties and towns. The aggregates for each purpose for the years 1863 and 1864 are shown the following statement:

Purposes.	1863.	1864.	Purposes.	1863.	1864.
School Tax.....	$59,042	$63,539	City Tax	$5,700	$51,709
County Tax.....	118,912	158,055	Road and Bridge ..	31,502	12,428
Township Tax.....	40,223	39,594	Poor Tax.....	1,309	29,607
Town Tax	6,424	23,550	Other Special	122,280	13,7494
Aggregate local Taxes.....				$448,392	$526,976

INDEBTEDNESS.

The state inaugurated its existence by creating a debt of $250,000 wherewith to pay its first expenses and a further debt was incurred for war purposes. At the present time its funded debt may be described as follows:

State loans of July, 1858, (Act, March 13) for which bonds were given, bearing 8 per cent interest, payable semi-annually in January and July at New York, and principal, payable July 1, 1867.....	$250,000
State War loan of November 1, 1862, for which bonds were given, bearing 7 per cent interest, payable semi-annually in May and November at New York, and principal payable in 1872.....	100,000
Total Funded Debt.....	$350,000

The state has also made itself liable for an issue of bonds to railroad companies to the amount of $2,275,000.

A floating debt amounting at the end of 1864 to $42,567 existed. This debt consists of unredeemed Treasury warrants issued in compliance with law, and expenditures properly incurred in behalf of the state, for which appropriations have not been made.

The constitution of Minnesota requires that a law authorizing a state loan shall also provide for levying a tax sufficient to pay the annual interest and the principal, within ten years, and shall specifically appropriate and set apart said taxes for said purposes, and the same shall not be repealed or diminished until the principal and interest of the debt shall have been wholly paid. Both the existing loans of the state have been made under this constitutional provision.

EXPENSES OF GOVERNMENT.

The following statement shows the ordinary expenses of the State government for the years under-stated:

	1861.	1862.	1863.	1864.
Executive	$18,850 00	$18,814 57	$14,420 79	$20,046 12
Legislative	24,035 82	25,979 49	18,826 73	19,803 42
Judicial	19,200 00	21,995 97	19,736 25	20,400 64
Public printing	7,510 96	15,053 70	11,993 03	14,596 18
State prison	6,269 34	7,603 18	7,925 00	10,144 69
Normal School	1,315 19	183 10	.....	3,000 00
Miscellaneous	6,415 51	3,041 30	15,677 74	12,004 30
Deficiencies	12,153 06	4,639 40	15,364 09	12,000 00
Land office	.....	6,127 28	2,671 53	3,657 70
Military	.....	23,971 00	10,685 00	4,320 94
Soldiers' voting fund	.....	850 82	2,200 00	2,203 30
Insane	.....	.....	2,500 00	3,575 39
Blind and deaf mutes	.....	.....	1,300 00	4,640 65
Sufferers of Sioux War	.....	.....	3,000 00	626 00
Capitol repairs	.....	.....	.....	4,303 70
Sick and disabled soldiers	.....	.....	.....	3,644 07
	$97,749 88	$128,259 81	$126,300 16	$138,967 10
Interest on loans	22,500 00	21,800 00	26,309 73	27,073 60
Total	$128,249 88	$150,059 81	$152,609 89	$166,040 70

The total receipts and expenses for the same years were:

	1861.	1862.	1863.	1864.
State taxes and polls	$100,186 83	$156,013 81	$178,529 07	$191,915 04
United States war tax	.....	40,263 44	26,355 15	7,714 13
$100,000 war loan	.....	.....	101,250 00	.....
U. S. on account of Sioux war	.....	.....	200,000 00	.....
School lands	.....	16,001 80	149,058 28	174,024 33
Miscellaneous	5,599 77	4,073 28	9,116 48	3,503 50
Total income	$105,786 60	$216,362 33	$659,308 98	$377,157 00
State warrants cancelled	$101,732 00	$137,505 71	$450,758 61	$197,020 18
Permanent school fund invested	.....	.....	111,687 50	134,335 09
General school fund disbursed	.....	.....	11,169 13	70,573 49
Apportionment of int. imp. fund	.....	.....	2,742 43	964 43
United States war tax	.....	47,030 17	.....	.....
Miscellaneous	.....	.....	181 65	58 97
Total disbursements	$101,782 00	$184,535 88	$576,539 32	$402,952 15
Balance in treasury	4,729 43	36,555 87	119,825 53	93,530 38

CENSUS OF CHICAGO AND COOK COUNTY, ILLINOIS.

Illinois, like New York, takes a census every ten years, at a period between the federal enumerations. The census of Chicago and the county in which it is located has just been published, with the following results:

CITY OF CHICAGO.

The city is divided into sixteen wards, which contained an aggregate population of 178,539, distributed thus:

Ward.	White.	Colored.	Total.	Sub. to Mil. Duty.
First	11,694	316	12,010	3,868
Second	11,787	771	12,558	3,105
Third	12,632	829	13,461	3,236
Fourth	8,938	31	8,969	1,814
Fifth	10,336	...	10,336	2,732
Sixth	9,721	...	9,721	1,485
Seventh	15,397	10	15,407	3,297
Eighth	8,213	22	8,235	1,360
Ninth	10,660	65	10,625	1,755
Tenth	10,565	97	10,662	1,900
Eleventh	12,380	14	12,394	2,144
Twelfth	9,843	11	9,854	1,521
Thirteenth	7,227	6	7,233	1,063
Fourteenth	9,890	26	9,916	1,521
Fifteenth	14,113	4	14,117	2,256
Sixteenth	13,521	1	13,522	2,968
Total	176,847	2,192	178,539	35,668

The following table shows the ages of all persons, male and female, in all the wards of the city:

	Males.	Females.
Under 10 years of age	27,997	27,453
Over 10 and under 20 years of age	12,159	15,387
Over 20 and under 30 years of age	18,199	18,185
Over 30 and under 40 years of age	17,775	14,206
Over 40 and under 50 years of age	9,227	6,280
Over 50 and under 60 years of age	3,482	2,703
Over 60 and under 70 years of age	1,270	1,223
Over 70 and under 80 years of age	339	370
Over 80 and under 90 years of age	61	59
Over 90 and under 100 years of age	1	3
Over 100 years of age	....	1
Total	90,516	85,331
Number of colored persons of all ages	1,050	1,142

Aggregate population 178,539. Subject to military duty 35,668.

LIVE STOCK.

Value of the live stock owned in the several wards of the city:

First Ward	$56,900	Seventh Ward	$7,230	Thirteenth Ward	$42,295
Second "	110,005	Eighth "	46,445	Fourteenth "	09,260
Third "	107,160	Ninth "	87,197	Fifteenth "	52,930
Fourth "	123,955	Tenth "	69,225	Sixteenth "	25,860
Fifth "	39,075	Eleventh "	1911,700		
Sixth "	23,475	Twelfth "	45,721	Total	$2,858,463

GRIST-MILLS, SAW-MILLS, AND DISTILLERIES.

Flouring and grist mills	12	Saw mills	1
Distilleries	5		

EDUCATIONAL.

University	1	Pupils in attendance	201
Academies, gram'r & private schools,	48	Pupils in attendance	9,518
Common schools	18	Pupils in attendance	16,549

COOK COUNTY.

The total population of the county was 217,309, distributed as follows:

Towns, &c.	Whites.	Colored.	Total.	Lib'l to Mil. d'ty
Barrington	1,273	14	1,287	228
Bremen	1,494	..	1,494	234
Bloom	1,244	..	1,245	236
Chicago (City)	176,347	2,192	178,539	35,668
Cicero	1,589	8	1,597	204
Elk Grove	1,011	4	1,015	145
Evanston	1,626	..	1,626	278
Hanover	946	2	948	126
Hyde Park	941	13	954	83
Jefferson	1,754	45	1,799	191
Lemont	1,765	..	1,765	358
Lake	1,334	..	1,334	315
Lake View	1,140	16	1,156	176
Lyons	1,467	13	1,480	172
Maine	1,527	..	1,527	216
New Trier	819	2	821	113
Niles	1,450	30	1,480	191
Northfield	1,114	1,615	1,615	191
Orland	1,090	..	1,090	191
Palatine	1,626	..	1,626	244
Palos	951	..	961	164
Proviso	1,640	..	1,640	232
Rich	1,454	..	1,454	250
Schaumburg	861	..	861	132
Thornton	1,703	..	1,703	276
Wheeling	1,822	5	1,827	238
Worth	1,439	24	1,463	282
Leyden	1,477	8	1,485	185
Calumet	1,577	2	1,579	298
Total	214,937	2,372	217,309	41,354

The following shows the ages of all persons in the county, including Chicago, with the number and sex of the colored people, and the number of persons liable to military duty—

	Males.	Females.
Under 10 years of age	34,691	33,853
Over 10 and under 20 years of age	16,005	18,974
" 20 " 30 " "	20,835	20,785
" 30 " 40 " "	20,527	16,640
" 40 " 50 " "	11,322	7,917
" 50 " 60 " "	4,842	3,708
" 60 " 70 " "	1,879	1,683
" 70 " 80 " "	485	502
" 80 " 90 " "	95	84
" 90 " 100 " "	8	10
" 100 years of age		1
Total	110,575	104,362
No. of colored persons of all ages	1,150	1,213

Aggregate population, 217,309; No. subject to military duty, 41,354.

AGRICULTURAL.

Value of live stock, $5,479,825; grain products, $1,782,484; other agricultural products, $1,040,667; No. of pounds of wool grown, 94,031. Flouring and grist mills, 14; saw mills, 1; distilleries, 6.

EDUCATIONAL.

Universities, 3; pupils in attendance, 361; academies, private and grammar schools, 53; pupils in attendance, 10,087; common schools, 198; pupils in attendance, 23,619.

MANUFACTURES IN THE COUNTY.

Number of manufactories of various kinds in the county, with the value of the goods annually manufactured in the several establishments: Clothing, 56, $619,850; boots and shoes, 57, —1,102,555; confectionary, 8, $490,500; book and job printers, 17, $466,246; blank books, 4, $169,547; newspapers, 10, $956,933; cigars, 25, $11,050; iron founders, 26, $5,502,711; liquor, 7, $3,706,000; cabinet, 36, $324,369; corn-sellers, 1, $20,000; trunks, 8, $114,820; picture frames, 1 $4,300; show cases, 1, $1,200; agricultural implements, 7, $380,425; glass, 1, $45,000; paper collars, 4, $104,300; tobacco 4, $321,000; saddlery, 1, $25,000; tin and hardware, 34, $268,850; marble, 14, $215,500; lightning rods, 1, $11,000; carriages, 55, $1,094,650; sidewalk lights, 1, $19,000; upholsterers, 4, $25,000; sash door and blinds, 17, $648,000; bakeries, $635,175; tanning and currying, 19, $1,050,300; willow ware, 1, $800; wood carving, 2, $6,000; flouring mills, 14, $1,729,955; gas works, 3, $628,418; box factories, 2, $51,378; soap 6, $102,200; brick, 14, $503,250; glue, 1, $238,242; oil and candles, 14, $1,957,925; coopers, 43, $340,811; whips, 1, $800; caps, 2, $150,000; treasurys, 38, $2,195,300; wash boards, 1, $1,000; moulding, 2, $90,000; pumps, 2, $77,000; brooms, 8, $354,750; piles, 1, $15,000; lime, 4, $165,000; organs, 4, $64,000; faucets, 1, $35,000; nails, 1, $200,000; soda, 3, $55,000; rolling mill, 1, $900,000; rope, 1, $4,000; sugar, 1, $149,505; cotton, 2, $32,000; malt, 3, $129,000; hats and caps, 10, $121,950; banners, 22, $36,768; vinegar, 6, $142,625; baskets, 1, $1,000. Total, $25,710,202.

COMMERCIAL LAW.—NO. 27.

MARINE INSURANCE.

(Continued from page 274, vol. 53.)

THE INTEREST WHICH MAY BE INSURED.

A mere possibility or expectation cannot be insured; but any actual interest may be. If one has contracted to buy goods, he may insure them, and will recover if the property be in him at the time of the loss; for if they are then destroyed it will be his loss. (For what is meant by the property being in him, see chapter on Sales.)

If one has taken on himself certain risks, or agreed to indemnify another for them, he may insure himself against the same risks. The policy may

express and define the interest in such a way that any change in the nature of it will discharge the insurance. If it is not so defined and declared, a change, as from the interest of an owner to that of a mortgagor, or of a mortgagee, will not defeat the policy.

A mere indebtedness to a party on account of property gives the creditor no insurable interest; thus, one who has repaired a house or ship cannot insure the house or ship merely because the owner owes him; but if the creditor has a lien on the property, this is an surable interest. And generally, every bailee or party in possession of goods, with a lien on them, may insure them. And a lender on bottomry or respondentia may insure the ship or goods. And any persons who have possession of property, or a right to possession, and may legally make a profit out of it, as factors on commission, consignees, or carriers, may insure their interest.

If a mortagee be insured, and recovers from the insurers, he, generally at least, transfers to them the security for his debt, on accounts with them for its value; because, to the extent of that security, he has met with no loss, and, if he did not transfer it, would recover his money twice; but a recent decision in Massachusetts throws some doubt on this obligation of the insured to transfer the security for the debt to the insurers.

A policy usually adds to the description of the property, "lost or not lost." This phrase makes the policy retrospective; and attaches it to the property if that existed when, by the terms of the policy, the insurance began, whether this were for a voyage or for a certain time, although it had ceased to exist when the policy was made. In a case in Boston, there was an insurance on the cargo of the ship Tarquin, "lost or not lost, now on a whaling voyage." The court said; "To construe this policy, so as to make the risk commence on the day of its date, it would be necessary to limit the word 'voyage' to a very small part of the voyage, without any words expressing such limitation, and would render the words 'lost or not lost' wholly inoperative: We are of opinion that this policy would attach upon the oil from the time the vessel first began to take whales in the course of this voyage."

An interest which was originally valid and sufficient, cannot be defeated by that which threatens, but does not complete, an actual divestment of the interest in property; therefore, not by attachment, or an execution for debt; nor by liability to seizure by government for forfeiture, nor a right in the seller to stop the goods *in transitu*; nor capture; because after all these the property may remain in or return to the insured. But sale on execution, actual seizure by government and forfeiture, stoppage *in transitu*, or condemnation by court as lawful prize, divest the property, and therefore discharge the insurance.

The insurance never attaches, if the interest is illegal originally, and it is discharged if the interest becomes illegal subsequently to the insurance, or if an illegal use of the subject-matter of the insurance is intended. And any act is illegal which is prohibited by law, and made subject to a penalty. The effect would be the same if the policy opposes distinctly the principles and purposes of law, as wagering policies do.

Mariners, or mates, are not permitted by the law-merchant to insure their wages, but may insure goods on board bought with their wages; and one legally interested in the wages of a mariner may insure them; as one to whom they are assigned by order or otherwise. A master may in-

sure his wages, commissions, or any profit he may make out of his privilege.

An unexecuted intention of illegality, if not distinctly acted upon, will not defeat a policy; nor a remote and incidental illegality; as smuggling stores on board, or not having on board the provisions required by law; nor a change from legality to illegality, which cannot be proved or supposed to be known to the insured. And upon these questions, the court, if the case be balanced, will incline to the side of legality. A cargo may be insured, which is itself lawful, but was purchased with the proceeds of an illegal voyage.

If a severable part of a cargo or a voyage is legal, it may be insured, by itself, although other parts are illegal. But if a part of the whole property insured together is illegal, this avoids the whole policy.

A compliance with foreign registry laws certainly is not necessary, and with our own probably is not, to sustain the insurance of an actual owner in good faith.

By the law of nations, goods contraband of war are forfeited if captured by a belligerent against whom they might be used. Goods are contraband which are munitions of war, or are designed or capable of supporting an enemy in carrying on war—as even food, if sent to a place which an enemy seeks to reduce by starvation; and so are any goods sent to a blockaded port. No contraband trade is, strictly speaking, illegal, in the neutral country which carries it on; that is, the courts of that country will not declare it illegal, or annul contracts which have this trade in view for illegality. But if the owners of a ship contemplate contraband trade, either in the place they send her to, or in the goods they put on board, this is an additional risk, and therefore it must be communicated to the insurers, or the policy is void.

Freight is a common subject of insurance. In common conversation this word means sometimes the cargo carried, and sometimes the earnings of the ship by carrying the cargo. The latter is the meaning in mercantile law, and especially in the law of insurance. It includes in insurance law the money to be paid to the owner of a ship by the shipper of goods and the earnings of an owner by carrying his goods, and the amount to be paid to him by the hirer of his ship, and the profits of such hirer, either by carrying his own goods, or by carrying, for pay, the goods of others.

An interest in freight begins as soon as the voyage is determined upon, and the ship is actually ready for sea, and goods are on board, or are ready to be put on board, or are promised to be put on board by a contract which binds the owner of the goods to put them on board, for that voyage.

If a ship is insured on a voyage which is to consist of many passages, and sail without cargo, but a cargo is ready for her, or contracted for her at the first port she is to reach and sail from, the owner has an insurable interest in the freight from the day on which he sails from his home port.

If one makes advances towards the freight he is to pay, and this is to be repaid to him by the ship owner if the freight is not earned, the advancer has no insurable interest in what he advances; but if he is to lose it, without repayment, if the ship be lost or the freight not earned, he has an insurable interest.

PRIOR INSURANCE.

Our marine policies generally provide for this by a clause, to the effect, that the insurer shall be liable only for so much of the property as a prior insurance shall not cover. The second covers what the first leaves, the third what the second leaves, and so on; and as soon as the whole value of the property is covered, the remainder of that policy, and the subsequent policies, have no effect. This priority relates not merely to the date of the instrument, but to the actual time of insurance. Sometimes the policy provides that the insured shall recover only the same proportion of the whole loss which the amount insured in that policy is of the whole amount insured by all the policies on the whole property.

When a prior policy is deducted, from this deduction is taken the amount of the premium paid for the insurance.

It sometimes happens that the property is increased in value, or in the valuation, after the first insurance is effected; but in settling with a second, only the actual amount covered by the first is deducted.

A subsequent policy may be suspended by the fact that prior policies cover all the property, and when any of these prior policies is exhausted, the next policy begins to take effect.

If all once attach, and afterwards the property is diminished, we should prefer the rule that all the policies should be diminished *pro rata*. It has been held, however, that the rule as to prior policies operates, and the last policy is discharged or lessened by the whole amount of the diminution.

Where no provision is made in the policies as to priority, all are insurers alike, but all together only of the whole value at risk. The insured, therefore, may recover of any one insurer at his election, and this insurer may compel the others to contribute to him in proportion to their respective insurances.

Insurances may be simultaneous, and then no clause as to prior policies has any application, and all the insurances are liable *pro rata*. They are simultaneous, if said to be so in the policies; or if made on the same day, and bearing the same date, and there is no evidence as to which was, in fact, first made.

DOUBLE INSURANCE AND RE-INSURANCE.

If there be double insurance, either simultaneously or by successive policies, in which priority of insurance is not provided for, we have seen that all are insurers, and liable each in proportion; thus, if all the policies cover twice the value of the property insured, each policy is valid for one-half of its own amount.

But there is no double insurance, unless all the policies insure the very same subject-matter, and, taken together, exceed its whole value.

Many insurances of the same subject-matter, for the benefit of different parties, do not constitute double insurance.

Re-insurance is lawful; for whoever insures another has assumed a risk against which he may cause himself to be insured. This is often done by companies who wish to close their accounts, to lessen their risks, or get rid of some especial risk.

THE MEMORANDUM.

This word is retained, because the English policies have attached to them a note or memorandum providing that the insurers shall not be liable for any loss upon certain articles therein enumerated, (and thence called memorandum articles,) unless it be total, or greater than a certain percentage. In our policies the same thing is provided for, but usually by a clause contained in the body of the policy. The general purpose is to guard against a liability for injuries which may very probably not arise from maritime peril, because the articles are in themselves perishable; but which injuries it might not be easy to refer to the precise causes which produced them. Thus grain, fish, hides, fruit, etc., are very liable to be somewhat injured on the voyage, and if there has been bad weather, or a greater leak than usual, it is impossible to say whether these goods have lost value from their own decay, or from a peril of the sea. It is therefore provided that the insurers shall not pay unless there be a total loss by a sea peril, which ends all question, or so large a loss as ten or twenty per cent; for this could hardly happen without visible and certain cause. And then if the cause were shown to be not a peril insured against, the insurers would not be liable.

The articles excepted, and the percentage of loss necessary to charge the insurers, vary very much at different times and in different States.

WARRANTIES.

A stipulation or agreement *in the policy*, that a certain thing shall be or shall not be, is a warranty. And every warranty must be, if not strictly, at least accurately complied with. Nor is it an excuse that the thing is not material; or that the breach was not intended, or not known; or that it was caused by an agent of the insured. A warranty is equally effectual if written upon a separate paper, but referred to in the policy itself as a warranty. And the direct assertion or allegation of a fact may constitute a warranty.

If the breach of the warranty exists at the commencement of the risk, it avoids the whole policy, although the warranty was complied with afterwards and before a loss; and although all other risks were distinct from that to which the warranty related: and even if the breach was caused by one of the risks against which there was insurance. Thus, if a vessel is warranted "coppered," and she is not coppered, and is lost by the ignition of cotton in the hold. Here the breach of the warranty, that is, the want of the copper, has nothing to do with the loss; but the insurers would be discharged.

If the breack occur after the risk begins, and before a loss, and is not caused or continued by the fault of the insured, the insurers are held; as they are if a compliance with the warranty becomes illegal after the policy attaches, and it is therefore broken.

The usual subjects of express warranty are, first, the ownership of the property, which is chiefly important as it secures the neutrality, or freedom from war risks, of the property insured. The neutrality is sometimes expressly warranted; and this warranty is not broken, if a part of the cargo that is not insured is belligerent. But it is broken if a neutral has the legal title, but only in trust for a belligerent. The neutrality of the ship

and of the cargo must be proved by the ship's having on board all the usual and regular documents. False papers may, however, be carried for commercial purposes, either when leave is given by the insurers, or when it is permitted by a known and established usuage.

If neutrality is warranted, it must be maintained by a strict adherence to all the rules and usages of a neutral trade or employment. Without warranty, every neutral ship is bound to respect a blockade which legally exists by reason of the presence of an armed force sufficient to preserve it, and of which the neutral has knowledge.

The second most common express warranty is that of the time of the ship's sailing. She sails when she weighs anchor or casts off her fastenings, and gets under way,—if she be then ready for sea and intended for sea,—although stopped immediately after, or driven back. But however ready and intended, if she is stopped before she gets under way, this is a breach of the warranty of sailing. Nor is it complied with by leaving a place to return to it immediately; or by going from one port of the coast or island, which she is warranted to leave, to another. If the ship is warranted "in such a harbor or port," or "where the ship now is," this means at the time of the insurance. And "warranted in port" means the port of insurance, unless another port is expressed or distinctly indicated.

IMPLIED WARRANTIES.

The most important of these warranties—which the law makes for the parties without their saying anything about them, although they may, if they please, make them for themselves—is that of *seaworthiness*. By this is meant, that every person who asks to be insured upon his ship, by the mere force and operation of law, warrants that she is, in every respect,—hull, sails, rigging, officers, crew, provisions, implements, papers, and the like,—competent to enter upon and prosecute that voyage at the time proposed, and encounter safely the common dangers of the sea. If this warranty be not complied with, the policy does not attach, whether the breach be known or not, unless there is some peculiar clause in the policy waiving this objection.

If the ship be seaworthy and the policy attaches, no subsequent breach discharges the insurers from their liability for a loss previous to the breach. Even if it does not attach at the beginning of the voyage, if the unseaworthiness be capable of prompt and effectual remedy, and be soon and entirely remedied, the policy may then attach. Especially if it could be considered as attaching in the port, and then as suspended only by the sailing in unseaworthy condition, and then reviving, or re-attaching, on repair. The true rule should be, that if unseaworthiness prevents the policy from attaching at the proper commencement of the *risk*, the contract becomes a nullity.

If she becomes unseaworthy in the course of the voyage, from a peril insufficient to produce it in a sound vessel, this may be evidence of inherent weakness and original unseaworthiness; and then the policy never attached. But if originally seaworthy, and by any accident made otherwise, the policy continues to attach until she can be restored to a seaworthy condition by reasonable endeavors. And the general rule is, that she must be so restored as soon as she can be. It is the duty of the master

to repair her as soon as he can; by the aid of another ship if that may be, but otherwise not to keep her at sea if she can readily make a port where she can be made seaworthy; and not to leave that port until she is seaworthy. The neglect of the master would not generally discharge the insurers, but it is the rule that a ship must not leave a port in an unseaworthy condition, if she could there be made seaworthy; if she does, the insurers are no longer held. But their liability may be, not destroyed, but only suspended, if the seaworthiness be cured at the next port, especially if that be not a distant port. Thus, if a ship loses her best anchor, and goes into a port where she may get one, leaves it without an anchor because the master thinks the anchor costs too much there, and he will buy one at the next port, she is unseaworthy as soon as she goes to sea, and the insurance is suspended; but if as soon as she arrives at the next port she gets an anchor, the unseaworthiness is cured, and the policy revives. For a loss happening while their liability is suspended, we should say, thay are not liable, whether the loss was occasioned by that unseaworthiness or not. But there are some who hold that the insurers are liable for a loss happening during an occasional unseaworthiness which could have been repaired, unless the loss arise from that unseaworthiness.

There cannot possibly be a definite and universal standard for seaworthiness. The ship must be fit for her voyage or for her place. But a coasting schooner needs one kind of fitness, a freighting ship to Europe another, a whaling ship another, a ship insured only while in port another. So as to the crew, or provisions, or paper, or a pilot, or certain furniture, as a chronometer or the like; or the kind of rigging or sails. In all these respects, much depends upon the existing and established usage. There is, perhaps, no better test than this; the ship must have all those things, and in such quantity and of such quality as the law requires, provided there is any positive rule of law affecting them; and otherwise such as would be deemed requisite according to the common consent and usuage of persons engaged in that trade. And the reason for this rule is, that this is exactly what the insurers have a right to expect, and if the insured intend anything less, or the insurers desire anything more, it should be the subject of special bargain.

If a policy be intended to attach when a ship is at sea,—as, for example, upon a whaler that has been out a year or more,—we should say the same principle would apply, and ought to be sufficient as a rule of law, although it might sometimes involve difficult questions of fact. That is, we think the ship must be seaworthy, in that sense and in that way in which a ship of her declared age, size, employment, and character, after being at sea for that time, under ordinary circumstances, ought to be in, and may be expected to be in, by all concerned. It seems to be admitted that the standard of seaworthiness is to be found from the usage and understanding of merchants, at the place where the ship belongs, and not at that where the ship is insured.

If the question arises on a time policy, whether a ship must be at the beginning seaworthy, and in such condition that she will remain so unless some accident intervene during the whole of the period, we should answer, she must be seaworthy in the begginning, only in the sense in which her then place and condition require; as, if in port, seaworthy for that port;

if just going to sea seaworthy for that; if at sea seaworthy for that. And then she must be kept in a seaworthy state, which means fit to encounter the perils of any service she is put to, from time to time, during the whole period. And if at any time during that period she is unseaworthy for her then place and the work, through the fault of the insured or his agents, and a loss occurs by reason of such unseaworthiness, the insurers will not be liable therefor; and perhaps not if a loss occurs from any cause during such unseaworthiness.

There are other implied warranties. One of these is, that the insured shall deal honestly with the insurer, and make a distinct and true statement of all material circumstances affecting the risk. Another is, that the ship shall pursue the usual course of her voyage, without deviation from it, or the unnecessary encounter of unusual risks. But these will be considered in subsequent sections.

COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW.

Navigation Laws should be Altered—Rates of Interest—Prices of Articles—Dry Goods for month—Specie Movements—Rates of Exchange—Prices U. S. Paper—Government Sales of Gold, &c.

When, towards the close of the sixteenth century, Venice had lost the greater portion of her previously immense commerce, partly through the fact that the discovery of America had deprived her of her former advantageous situation in the centre of the commercial world, and partly from her desolating wars with Turkey, there were but two countries in the world of a rank which entitled them to wear her fallen diadem. These countries were Spain and the Low Countries, at that time both under one crown. Spain, however, was afflicted with many embarrassing commercial regulations, which had not yet been carried into the Low Countries, and which more than counterbalanced her vast natural advantages. Consequently it was not long before nearly all that trade from America which would otherwise have flowed into Europe through Spain made its way to the Low Countries, thence to be distributed to all parts of the Continent by means of the numerous canals which intersected the country. This latter feature had not a little to do with the advance which the Low Countries henceforth made in commerce. Spain was destitute of either canals or common roads; so was England; so was France. The Low Countries on the contrary, were cut up in every direction by canals. Vessels penetrated far into the interior; and this at a time when wheeled vehicles were rude and lumbersome, was a great advantage. The banks of the canals also made good common roads; and in winter time sledges were used upon the frozen water. The result of these natural advantages untramelled by restrictive laws was that the whole trade of the civilized world found its way to the Baltic. After the year 1630, when the Low Countries were divided into Holland and Belgium by the independence of the former, under the name of the Seven United Provinces, this commercial prosperity was increased. Liberty afforded security; security invited capital; capital carried on commerce; and the ships which carried on this commerce ruled the seas. Von Tromp scoured the Channel with a broom at his mast-head and De Ruyter sailed defiantly up the Thames and blockaded the port of London.

But now a great change occurred. England by resolutely taking ground against the tyranny of the crown, succeeded in establishing constitutional government. With the head of Charles I. fell hundreds of odious enactments which had hitherto restricted the growth of the country, and for the first time in history she was enabled to avail herself of the natural advantages for commerce which her insular position afforded her. The Habeas Corpus Act was passed in 1679. WILLIAM brought over many valuable customs from Holland, among them that of passing promissory notes by endorsement, an invention which in England before that time was unknown. The Bank of England was established. The government for the first time paid its debts. Ministerial responsibility was recognised. The Act of Grace was passed. The press was declared free. The coinage was purified. The independence of the judiciary was established. These reforms begat security; security begat capital; and capital begat commerce. England rose to be the first nation in the world, Holland remaining for a long time but just behind her. At the beginning of the present century, England by means of her railways shot far ahead of Holland, and has remained so ever since.

Among those laws of restriction which England failed to throw off when the Long Parliament purified the country, were some which related to navigation; indeed that Parliament actually through mistaken zeal strengthened them, for it combined a code of regulations, which, under the name of Navigation Laws, continued to exist until a late period.

After the foundation of constitutional government in England, such was her great superiority over all other nations (except Holland) that her commerce prospered in spite of these laws; and to such an extent, too, that when the United States government was formed in 1790, our legislators erroneously imputing the prosperity of England to her Navigation Laws copied them literally, and put them in force by the acts of 1792-3. The freedom of our institutions in other respects, and the wars which followed between England and France soon gave to this country a very large share of the world's commerce; which as in England's case, instead of being ascribed to its true cause was again erroneously attributed to these very Navigation Laws, which all the while formed almost the only obstacle to a much greater commerce.

Prominent among these laws was one which forbids the employment or purchase of foreign vessels by native merchants, and was enforced by means either of discriminating charges or forfeiture. To-day an American merchant cannot purchase a foreign vessel and sail her under the United States flag. The object of the law was to protect American shipbuilders. So long as the latter could build ships cheaper than other people the law was effective enough; but the same results would have followed had no law existed at all. As soon as other people could build ships cheaper than we could, and this occurred when the value of iron in the construction of ships was generally recognised, the law became inoperative.

We have now arrived at a period when the position of affairs loudly demands the repeal of these obnoxious statutes. Our foreign carrying trade, once the most profitable source of income to us, is at zero. Our ports are filled with foreign flags, and our own waves only from the peaks of coasting schooners.

Prohibited from purchasing the cheap and enduring iron ships built in England and Scotland, and incapable of competing with them for freight with the expensive and perishable wooden ships of this country, our merchants have been obliged to retire from this profitable occupation and take up some other, less remunerative. The law as it stands actually gives a preference to foreigners over Americans; for a Bremen merchant can send to the Clyde, purchase an iron ship, send it to the United States and employ it in her carrying trade, and thereby exclude American merchants from trading, and this is actually the case. The Grinnell line of wooden ships unable to earn remunerative profits in the Liverpool trade was sent to Antwerp. From Antwerp it was again driven off by the cheap iron ships purchased in England, and the vessels were eventually sold, and the business abandoned. Nothing could be worse than laws which conduce to such a state of things, and the sooner they are repealed the better.

The discount market has experienced a sharp stringency through the influence of the fifty million conversion loan noticed under the head of Financial. The banks being drawn upon for interest-bearing legal tenders found themselves short of cash resources and were compelled to refuse commercial accommodation to a large extent. Meanwhile the state of commercial credit having gradually expanded, and considerable paper being made, an increased demand for money was coupled with a decreased supply. The consequence is seen in the following rise in the rates of discount during the month.

	1st week.	2d week.	3d week.	4th week.
Prime paper, short.....	6½@ 7	@ 7	7 @ 8	8 @ 9
Jobbing paper	7 @ 9	8 @ 9	8 @10	10 @15
Produce Commission.....	8 @10	10 @12	10 @15	10 @15

Money, on call, rules nominally at the end of the month at 7 per cent, and gold is lent without interest.

The following comparative table of the prices of several leading articles of general merchandise will exhibit the present state of the markets as compared with the two previous months:

	Aug. 26.	Sept. 30.	October 27.
Ashes, pots, 1st sort.....	$7 50 @ 7 62½	$7 75 @ ..	$8 12½@ ..
Coffee, Rio, prime.	21 @ 21½	18 @ 22	.. @ 22½
Cotton, N. O, mid.....	.. @ 45	.. @ 45	.. @ 59
Flour, State, superfine.....	6 70 @ 7 40	7 60 @ 7 95	7 70 @ 8 10
Hay, N. R. shipping.....	80 @ 85	70 @ 80	60 @ 65
Nails, cut.....	5 50 @ ..	.. @ 8 00	.. @ 8 00
Petroleum,crude 40@47 grav	31½@ 32	38½@ 39½	0 36 @ ..
Pork, mess, new	31 50 @32 00	34 50 @34 75	33 62½@ ..
Tobacco, Kentucky lugs....	7 @ ..	7 @ ..	05½@ 09
Leather, oak (Sl.) light.....	34 @ 38	34 @ 38	35 @ 40
Lumber, spruce, Eastern....	18 @ 22	19 @ 22	21 @ 24
Corn, yellow Western	.. @ ..	.. @ ..	.. @ 92
Sheetings, brown, standard..	30 @ 3 39	35 @ 37½	.. @ 36

The changes which appear are to be ascribed more to circumstances of supply and demand than to any effect of the currency, or the conversion loan. Many articles of produce always advance at this season of the year in view of the approaching close of canal navigation.

The following table shows the imports of dry goods at this port for the past month, reckoned at their foreign gold value, duty and freight unpaid:

VALUE OF DRY GOODS ENTERED FOR CONSUMPTION IN OCTOBER, 1864 AND 1865.

	1864.	1865.
Oct. 5	$441,496	$2,043,931
" 12	163,961	2,884,685
" 19	427,142	2,557,676
" 26	223,465	2,807,703
Total	$1,256,084	$10,293,995

WITHDRAWN FROM WAREHOUSE.

	1864.	1865.
Oct. 5	$623,313	$189,670
" 12	737,085	199,845
" 19	803,427	328,467
" 26	884,371	215,988
Total	$3,048,196	$833,970

ENTERED FOR WAREHOUSING.

	1864.	1865.
Oct. 5	$293,683	$236,005
" 12	588,612	481,833
" 19	359,369	845,976
" 26	498,352	329,523
Total	$1,740,016	$1,892,337

	1864.	1865.
Total entered for consumption	$1,256,084	$10,293,995
Add withdrawn from warehouse	3,048,196	833,970
Total thrown on the market	$4,304,280	$11,127,965
Total entered for warehousing	$1,740,016	$1,892,337
Add entered for consumption	1,256,084	10,293,995
Total entered at the port	$2,996,100	$12,186,332

Notwithstanding the high tariff which now exists upon imported goods, such is the negligence encouraged among manufacturers when the sharp incentive of competition is withdrawn from them, that foreign goods can still be brought into market to compete with them. The great import movement which commenced some two months ago is still in full operation, the imports for the past month in dry goods alone having been six times as much as during the corresponding month in 1864; while the amount thrown on the market was nearly thrice as much. This activity in trade is very encouraging, and would be still more so if the profits derived from freighting the goods were earned by American houses.

The statistics of specie movements for the city of New York are as follows:

SPECIE RECEIPTS, SHIPMENTS, &c.

	1864.		1865.		
	Received.	Exported.	Received.	Exported.	Gold in Bank.
July 1	.....	560,677	5,012	156,578	15,854,990
" 8	301,207	486,339	793,175	15,408	19,100,544
" 15	.....	301,244	.....	261,846	20,500,441
" 22	249,095	556,464	299,629	132,115	22,232,903
" 29	.....	.....	248,629	180,715	20,773,155
Aug. 5	.....	90,111	.....	21,108	19,460,340
" 12	.....	341,883	710,319	324,018	20,163,292
" 19	571,281	48,009	147,930	245,365	19,604,636
" 26	.....	206,398	1,000,900	743,164	16,023,615
Sept 2	387,281	444,503	955,142	340,377	14,443,837
" 9	.....	486,451	.....	422,202	13,755,824
" 16	369,592	669,733	.....	358,656	14,604,159

	1864.		1865.		
	Received.	Exported.	Received	Exported.	Gold in Bank.
" 23,.....	.....	1,288,659	.....	648,012	14,222,062
" 30,.....	.....	.....	2,027,144	967,971	13,648,182
Oct. 7,.....	275,131	287,758	.....	316,092	13,470,134
" 14,.....	191,781	739,491	1,362,175	812,120	15,890,775
" 21,.....	.....	616,426	785,820	449,229	15,581,540
" 28.....	279,121	932,648	1,118,312	930,914	14,910,561

The following is a statement showing the supply of specie from California, foreign countries and hoards, for the first nine months of 1865, and the corresponding period in 1864 and 1863; also the amount exported, and the amount remaining in the banks and Sub-Treasury at the end of each month, and of the periods compared:

Months, &c	Sources of Supply				Exports	Treasure
	Rec'd f'm California	Foreign imports	Dom'tic hoards	Tot'l new to market	to for'n countries	in b'ks & Sub-Treas
January, 1865	$2,643,457	$52,268	$1,376,938	$3,472,653	$3,184,853	$30,892,250
February, "	914,735	106,704	4,181,853	5,203,292	1,023,201	34,522,340
March, "	1,668,975	342,232	799,350	2,710,567	381,913	36,851,995
April, "	2,307,025	286,492	1,372,824	3,916,341	871,249	39,897,087
May, "	1,257,651	177,065	8,682,448	10,317,164	7,245,071	42,969,200
June, "	750,469	249,732	5,529,172	6,329,373	5,190,472	44,099,101
July, "	1,092,805	253,640	4,710,940	6,357,385	723,986	49,732,500
August, "	1,676,177	182,072	2,668,542	4,526,393	1,554,398	52,404,895
September "	2,040,446	194,224	.....	2,234,679	2,494,973	46,595,974
Jan—Sept. 1865	13,751,740	1,695,459	23,783,441	*39,230,641	†22,689,116	46,595,974
" " 1864	8,965,530	1,859,144	18,163,268	28,987,942	34,935,862	31,944,614
" " 1863	9,603,712	1,228,121	20,190,118	31,021 951	32,846,494	39,146,451

The actual sum of the column marked * is $29,332,077, and marked † $14,779,346; but during September $5,548,616 was returned to hoards, leaving the net totals as represented.

The amounts of treasure and specie in the banks and Sub-treasury on the 1st of January and 1st of October compare as follows:

	1865	1864	1863
January 1.....	$30,054,450	$37,992,534	$40,970,994
October 1.....	46,595,974	31,944,614	39,146,451
Increase.....	$16,541,524	... .	.....
Decrease.....	.....	$5,947,920	$1,824,543

The decrease in 1863 and 1864 was wholly due to the excess of exports over imports and new supplies, and the increase in 1865, chiefly to the increase of the California supply and decreased exports.

The rates of exchange have ruled as follows:

RATES OF EXCHANGE IN GOLD.

	London, 60 days.	Paris, 60 days.	Amsterdam.	Frankfort.	Hamburg.	Berlin.
July 7	108 @108¾	5.22½@5.16¼	40¼@41	40¼@40⅞	35⅞@36⅛	71 @71⅛
" 14	109 @109¼	5.16¼@....	40¼@40⅜	40¼@40⅜	35⅛@36	71 @71⅛
" 21	108¾@109	5.18¾@ ...	40¼@40⅜	40¼@40⅜	35⅜@35⅞	70⅝@71⅛
" 28	108¾@109	5.18¾@5.17½	40¼@40⅜	40¼@40⅜	35⅛@37	70⅝@71⅜
Aug. 5	108½@108¾	5.22½@5.21¼	40 @40⅜	40 @40⅜	35¼@35⅜	70¼@71
" 12	108¾@109¼	5.17½@5.16¼	40¼@40¼	40¼@40¼	35¼@35⅞	70¼@71
" 19	109¼@109¾	5.15 @5.13¾	40⅜@40⅞	40¼@40⅜	35¾@36¼	71 @71⅜
" 26	109¼@109¾	5.16¼@5.15	40¼@41	40¼@40⅞	35⅛@36¼	71 @71⅜
Sept. 2	109¼@109¾	5.17½@5.16¼	40¼@40⅜	40⅜@40⅜	35⅛@36¼	71 @71⅛
" 9	109⅜@109⅜	5.17½@5.16¼	40¼@40⅞	40⅜@40⅜	35⅞@36¼	70⅞@71⅜
" 16	109¼@109¼	5.17¼@5.16¼	40⅜@40⅞	40⅜@40⅜	35⅞@36¼	70⅜@71⅜
" 23	109¼@110	5.15 @5.13¾	40⅜@41	40⅜@40⅞	35⅜@36¼	71¼@71⅜
" 30	109¼@110	5.18¾@5.15	40⅜@41¼	40⅜@41	35⅞@36¼	71⅜@71⅜
Oct. 7....	109¼@110	5.16¼@5.15	40⅜@41	40⅜@41	35⅞@36¼	71¼@71⅜
" 14 ...	108¾@109¼	5.18¾@5.17½	40¼@41	40⅜@41¼	35¼@36¼	70⅜@71⅜
" 21	109¼@109¼	5.18¼@5.17½	40¼@40⅞	40¼@40⅜	35⅞@36¼	70⅜@71¼
" 28....	108¾@109	5.21¼@5.17½	40⅜@40½	40¼@40⅜	35¼@36⅛	70⅜@71⅛

The rates for foreign exchange have lately been tending downward. This is due to the prospect of an ample supply of cotton and breadstuffs bills, which superadded to the present supply seem destined to maintain low rates for some time to come.

Government bonds and gold have ruled as follows :

PRICES OF UNITED STATES PAPER AND GOLD.

	6's, 1881.		5-20's, new iss.				
	Reg.	Coup.	Reg.	Coup.	10-40's.	1 year certif.	Gold price.
July 5,....	110¼	110¼	104	105	97⅛	99⅛	139⅛ a 140⅛
" 12,....	107⅛	107⅛	105	105⅛	97⅛	99⅛	140⅛ a 142⅛
" 19,....	107⅛	107⅛	104⅛	105	97	99⅛	142⅛ a 143
" 26,....	107	107⅛	105	105⅛	97	98	143⅛ a 143⅛
Aug. 5,....	107	107⅛	104⅞	105⅛	97⅛	97⅛	143⅛ a 143⅛
" 12,....	106⅛	106⅛	104⅛	104⅛	97⅛	97⅛	141⅛ a 142
" 19,....	106⅛	106⅛	104⅛	104⅞	97⅛	98⅛	143⅛ a 144⅛
" 26,....	106⅛	106⅞	104⅛	104⅞	98⅛	98⅛	144 a 144⅛
Sept. 2,....	107⅛	107⅛	104⅛	104⅞	94⅛	98⅛	144⅛ a 144⅛
" 9,....	107⅛	107⅞	105⅛	105⅛	94⅛	98⅞	144⅛ a 144⅛
" 16,....	107⅛	107⅞	105⅛	105⅛	94	98⅛	142⅛ a 143⅛
" 23,....	107⅛	108	106⅛	106⅛	94⅛	98⅛	143⅛ a 143⅛
" 30,....	107⅛	107⅛	106	107⅛	94⅛	98⅛	144 a 144⅛
Oct. 7,....	107⅛	107⅛	101⅛	101⅛	93⅛	98⅛	146 a 146⅛
" 14,....	107⅛	107⅞	102	102⅞	93⅛	98⅛	144⅛ a 144⅞
" 21,....	106⅛	106⅞	101⅛	101⅛	93	97⅛	145⅛ a 146⅛
" 28,....	106⅛	106⅞	101	101⅛	92⅞	98	145⅛ a 145⅞

The fall in five and six per cents is to be attributed partly to their increase, through the Conversion loan, and partly to censation rumors of complications with Great Britain, growing out of the depredations of the Confederate privateers, for which we have demanded, but she has refused, compensation. The prices of the last week of the month are for ex-November coupons. The one year certificates having been reduced in quantity by the late conversion, advanced during the last week of the month, having previously fallen a fraction. Gold was steady up to the 4th day of the month, when the prices rapidly advanced from 144¼ to 149 on the 6th. On this day the Sub-Treasury, alarmed at the turn affairs had taken, sold, through three or four brokers, some $6,000,000 gold at "sellers three." These lots were eagerly bought up, and the entire sale only depreciated the market to 146¼ a 146⅛. This was on a Friday. A few minutes after these sales, much to the consternation of the purchasers, who did not expect to be called upon to take the gold before the following Monday, the sellers took advantage of their options, and demanded checks for the amount of their contracts. The operation was completely successful in checking speculation. Its effects on stocks are detailed below, while the fears it created have tamed the gold market, and combined with the influence of the Conversion loan, have kept it lower ever since.

The following table exhibits the price of railway shares :

PRICES OF RAILWAY SHARES.

	June 29.	July 24.	Aug. 25.	Sept. 22.	Oct. 23.
New York Central.....	93¼	95¼	92⅞	94	97¼
Hudson River.....	108	...	109¼	109¼	106¼
Erie.....	77	95	87¼	88	92¼
Reading.....	95¼	106	105⅛	109¼	114¼
Mich. So. and N. I.....	60¼	66⅛	64	68	73⅛
[illegible].....	128	...	122	129	137⅛

	June 29.	July 24.	Aug. 25.	Sept 23.	Oct. 28.
Cleveland and Pittsburg	67½	71	71½	71½	82⅝
Chicago and N. W.	25	27½	27½	28	30
Chicago and R. I.	98½	108½	109½	112⅝	107½
Fort Wayne	96	96½	96½	98½	99½

The month has witnessed an active speculation in stocks, so active that the Treasury, in order to save its one hundred millions of temporary deposits at four per cent from being withdrawn, attempted to check the market by the gold *ruse* already mentioned. This produced a sudden rush for funds, and temporarily put a check to stock speculations. Combined with other causes, so great a scarcity of money was occasioned on Thursday and Friday the 5th and 6th, and Thursday and Friday the 12th and 13th, that the market was twice imminently threatened with a serious panic. The treasury, seeing the position of affairs, rapidly let out its four per cent deposits, waiving notice of call, and the market was relieved. Nothing daunted by its check, and not ignorant of its triumph, the Stock Market has gone up again, and prices generally rule five per cent higher than at the beginning of the month. As we anticipated in our October number there is a genuine demand for dividend paying stocks, and nothing can stop them from increasing in price so long as the demand continues. How long this will be it is hard to say: but so long as it does, it is mere folly on the part of the Treasury to attempt to stop it.

The result of this new "interference," like that of the many others which have been tried at Washington, fully illustrates their futility and pernicious influence.

JOURNAL OF BANKING, CURRENCY, AND FINANCE.

Contracting Currency—Taxation of National Banks—New York and Philadelphia Bank Returns—Banks of England and France—European Finances, etc.

An experiment has been tried this month, by the Treasury, which gives us a foretaste of what we are to expect should any further attempt be made to bring our currency to a specie basis. We have time and again remonstrated in these columns against the whole system of finance inaugurated by Mr. Chase, and compelled to be followed by his successor in office. We have repeatedly shown that the issue of legal tender notes by the Government was a mistake; that there was no necessity for it; that the war could have been conducted, armies paid and supplies purchased without recourse to paper money, and at much less expense; and, that while expansion was very easy, contraction was next to impossible. Events have, over and over again, confirmed the truth and soundness of these views; and future events will, we doubt not, still further confirm them.

In the early part of the month the Secretary of the Treasury announced a Fifty Million Conversion Loan. This amount of Five-Twenty bonds was offered for an equal amount either of Certificates of Indebtedness or Interest Bearing Legal Tenders at the rate of 103 of the latter for 100 of the Five-Twenties. Immediately the banks were drawn upon for interest-bearing notes, and as these were largely held by them for the redemption of their issues as

required by law, they had to be replaced by Greenbacks as fast as they were withdrawn. This in turn compelled the banks to refuse to loan money. A sharp stringency therefore ensued, so sharp, indeed, that but a little more pressure was required to precipitate the whole money market into a ruinous panic. By dint of paying usurious rates of interest, and resorting to every known shift for raising money, the crisis was passed, but not without a keen sense of the difficulties with which it was fraught.

To give the reader an idea of the troubles incident to a return to specie payments, let us suppose that the government determines to return to specie payment in one year from now. Let us see what it would have to do. For simplicity's sake we will say that its expenses and receipts from taxes, &c., are equal; and we leave out of the question what amount of contraction would ensue in other portions of the currency (National and State bank notes, promissory notes, credits, &c). The amount of government currency afloat now is about $650,000,000. In order to fund this sum in one year, subscriptions to the amount of *over two millions per day* throughout the entire year would have to be made. Every moment of this time would be marked by the curses and execrations of perhaps one-third of our population; for while expansion floats upon the bosom of the smooth ebb, contraction surges back against the angry flow.* It is evident, therefore, that the process of returning to specie payments will be a long and unpleasant one.

In the Court of Appeals of the State of New York, Judge DENIO has decided that the shares of the stockholders in a National Bank may be taxed by State authority. The decision is a very important one, and will probably not be overruled with that ease which it is expected the late decisions will be which hold that the Legal Tender Act is unconstitutional.

The rates for call loans during the month have fluctuated violently; commencing at 5 to 6 per cent, they reached as high as 11 or 12 yer cent, during the "tight" days of the late spasm, seven per cent *in gold* having been paid during that time by first class houses for call loans in paper. The rates during the latter portion of the month have become more steady, but still the market is anything but easy. We quote call loans to first class houses or stock collaterals at 7 per cent.

The following are the returns of the New York City Banks:

NEW YORK CITY BANKS.

(*Capital, Jan.*, 1864, $69,494,577; *Jan.*, 1865, $69,658,737; *April*, $76,658,737)

Date.	Loans.	Specie.	Legal tender.	Circulation.	Net Deposits.	Clearings.
July 1,	216,585,421	15,554,990	60,904,454	5,818,445	191,656,773	473,720,318
" 8,	218,541,975	19,100,590	62,519,708	9,001,774	198,199,005	875,5[illegible],141
" 15,	221,285,052	20,400,441	60,054,646	6,250,945	200,420,283	550,959,313
July 22,	222,960,205	22,332,903	52,756,229	6,589,766	193,790,096	517,174,950
" 29,	222,341,766	20,773,115	46,956,782	7,085,454	186,766,671	494,854,139
Aug. 5,	219,102,793	19,400,380	43,561,973	7,656,870	178,247,674	576,961,525
" 12,	215,409,342	20,163,292	43,006,428	8,050,361	175,738,185	463,483,275
" 19,	210,827,581	19,604,636	45,583,980	7,639,575	174,593,016	492,697,762
" 26,	209,423,305	16,923,615	54,249,806	7,932,414	179,083,676	372,124,309

* Those who may desire to further examine the effects of contraction, should examine *Hume's Political Essays*, vol. iii, p. 351; *Tooke's History of Prices*, vol. iv.; *Report of William H. Crawford, Secretary U. S. Treasury*, 1820.

Date.	Loans.	Specie.	Legal tender.	Circulation.	Net Deposits.	Clearings.
Sept. 2,	211,394,370	14,448,827	57,241,739	8,509,175	160,316,658	395,963,678
" 9,	214,189,842	13,755,824	56,320,734	8,814,142	179,353,511	434,257,378
" 16,	215,552,381	14,604,159	53,153,285	9,104,550	177,501,785	427,195,276
" 23,	215,879,454	14,222,062	54.018,475	9,294,805	177,320,789	393,503,366
" 30,	221,818,640	13,643,182	57,665,674	10,645,697	183,330,716	463,352,113
Oct. 7,	228,520,727	14,470,134	58,511,752	10,970,397	188,504,466	572,703,232
" 14,	227,541,884	15,890,775	50.459,195	11,722,847	192,364,156	699,348,496
" 21,	224,080.679	15,587,540	46,169,855	12,338,441	174,192,110	559,166,848
" 28,	219,965,689	14,910,561	46,427,027	12,823,725	173,624,751	575,945,581

These figures exhibit the severe stringency, the particulars of which we have already related. A large falling off in loans, a still larger decrease in legal tenders, an increase of circulation and specie reserve, and a heavy decline in deposits are observable. The latter feature was largely owing to the withdrawals by Western banks of funds left with the New York banks on call at four per cent, a practice which our bankers will find it to their interest to honor more in the breach than in the observance, so fraught is it with danger.

The following statement shows the operations of the Bank Clearing House for the weeks corresponding with those for which the above bank averages are given:

	Clearings		Balances	
Weeks ending	Total of week.	Daily averages.	Total of week.	Daily averages.
July 1.....	$478,720,318	$75,953,386	$17,883,010	$2,980,501
" 8.....	375,504,141	62.581,023	18,234,585	3,039,091
" 15.....	550,959,312	91,826,552	20,150,787	3,358,464
" 22.....	517,174,956	86,395,826	22,396,080	3,732,680
" 29.....	494,854,139	82,475,622	18,577,262	3,096,210
Aug. 5.....	576,961,325	96,161,221	21,707,926	3,617,987
" 12.....	463,483,276	77,247,212	19,374,247	2,229,041
" 19.....	492,697,783	82,116,297	19,132,977	3,188,829
" 26.....	372 124,310	62,020,728	19,720,131	3,287.688
Sept. 2.....	395,963,697	65,993,946	18,944,140	3,157,256
" 9.....	434,251,378	72,208,563	17,976,061	2,996,010
" 16.....	427,195,277	71,199,213	17,562,813	2,927,135
" 23.....	393,503,666	65,583,944	18,554,060	3,092,243
" 30.....	463,352,113	77,225,352	19,484,342	3.247,390
Oct. 7.....	572,703,232	95,450,539	19,488,250	3,248,041
" 14.....	669,348,497	111,558,083	25,466,909	4,244,485
" 21.....	554,166,848	92,361,141	21,851,249	3,641,858
" 28.....	575,945,581	95,990,930	19,662,938	3,277,156

The following are the returns of the Philadelphia Banks:

PHILADELPHIA BANKS.

(*Capital, Jan.*, 1863, $11,740,080; 1865, $13,315,720; *Feb.*, 1865, $14,485,450.)

Date. 1856.	Loans.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Legal tenders.
July 3,...	$50,449,649	$1,216.243	$6,888,488	$39,127,801	.....
" 10,...	50,188,778	1,187,700	6,758,585	41,344,056	....
" 17,...	50,221,528	1,152,911	6,821.938	43,966,927	....
" 24,...	52,454,760	1,154,587	6,886,449	46,166,928	$19,413,864
" 31,...	53,877,799	1,158,070	6,941,625	49.121,554	21,328,422
Aug. 7,...	54,357,695	1,154,005	6,986,662	47,762,160	21,219,466
" 14,...	54,529,718	1,153,931	6,989,217	44,561,749	20,845,048
" 22, ..	51,920,580	1,160,222	7,076,537	41,348,178	20,561,963
" 29,...	50,577,243	1,155,197	6,988,523	38,864,910	19,640,768
Sept. 4,...	50,096,499	1,100,242	6,980,826	38,417,473	19,038,164
" 11,...	49,693,065	1,079,685	7,007,727	37,082,478	17,695,755
" 18,...	49,931,573	.....	7,014,580	37,461,269	.....
" 25,...	49,603,233	1,089,880	7,038,403	37,405,333	.....

Date. 1865.	Loans.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Legal tenders.
Oct. 8,...	49,924,281	1,092,755	7,056,984	38,347,232	17,267,021
" 10,...	49,742,036	1,087,705	7,082,197	37,238,078	16,403,360
" 17,...	49,682,319	1,060,579	7,084,667	36,252,038	16,201,787
" 24,...	48,959,072	1,052,357	7,074,066	35,404,524	15,975,105

The changes are so slight as scarcely to deserve notice. They, however, show towards the latter part of the month some animation. A falling off in loans, deposits and legal tenders is observable, the same being a faint reflection of the far greater movements which simultaneously occurred in New York.

The following table exhibits the condition of the national banks of Chicago for the quarters ending July 1st and October 2d respectively:

CHICAGO NATIONAL BANKS.

	Oct. 2, 1865.	July 1, 1865.
Capital	$5,110,000 00	$5,054,750 00
Discounts	6,220,124 31	4,986,356 04
Deposits	10,417,185 38	12,946,539 42
Circulation	3,738,450 00	3,345,630 00
Currency on hand	4,764,073 28	6,423,978 18
Specie on hand	34,736 58	64,739 61

It will be seen that there is an increase in discounts since the 1st of July of $1,243,768.27, and a decrease of currency on hand of $1,659,904 92. The deposits have decreased about $2 500,000

The following is an abstract of the returns of the banks of Rhode Island, made to the State Auditors on the 2d inst:

	In Providence.	Out of Providence.
Capital	$2,637,800	$1,435,500
Circulation	909,410	575,039
Deposits	1,072,988	596,439
Loans	4,147,553	2,216,031
Specie	33,676	15,825

The following table exhibits the number, capital, and circulation of the National Banks:

NATIONAL BANKS.

Date.	Banks.	Capital.	Circulation
July 1,	$1,378	$340,938,000	$146,927,975
" 8,	1,410	356,230,986	149,093,605
" 15,	1,447	364,020,756	154,120,015
" 22,	1,481	372,636,756	157,907,665
Aug. 5,	1,504	377,574,281	165,794,440
" 12,	1,523	379,731,701	169,596,560
" 19,	1,530	390,000,000	172,664,460
" 26,	1,534	392,614,333	175,265,690
Sept. 2,	1,549	394,104,333	177,457,220
" 9,	1,556	394,960,333	179,981,520
" 16,	1,560	395,310,333	183,402,870
" 23	1,567	397,066,701	186,081,720
Oct. 7,	1,578	399,344,212	194,182,650
" 14,	1,592	401,406,013	197,798,360
" 21,	1,597	402,071,130	200,925,730

The transactions for last week of the month at the Custom-house and Sub-treasury were as follows:

	Custom-House.	Sub-Treasury	
	Receipts.	Payments.	Receipts.
Oct. 16	$485,685 40	$3,419,321 78	$2,142,443 45
Oct. 17	372,457 66	1,969,318 63	3,101,581 94
Oct. 18	237,195 89	9,605,512 89	5,012,569 94

Oct. 19	552,961 56	1,096,070 34	1,724,370 22
Oct. 20	346,575 85	2,430,617 34	2,148,247 60
Oct. 21	566,703 23	3,009,647 46	4,661,724 56
Total	$2,561,580 59	$21,530,488 44	$18,790,937 71
Balance in Sub-treasury morning of Oct. 16			$67,713,079 30
			$86,504,017 01
Deduct payments during the week			21,530,488 44
Balance at Saturday evening			$64,973,528 57
Decrease during the week			2,739,550 73

The following are the returns of the Bank of England:

THE BANK OF ENGLAND RETURNS (IN POUNDS STERLING).

Date.	1865.	Circulation.	Public Deposits.	Private Deposits.	Securities.	Coin and Bullion.	Rate of Discount.
July	5,...	42,717,616	9,348,667	14,443,335	33,629,456	15,099,943	3 "
"	12,...	22,943,563	4,590,233	16,229,345	31,559,914	14,561,150	3 "
"	19,...	22,789,406	4,932,103	14,894,217	30,992,455	15,083,867	3 "
"	26,...	22,590,254	4,770,902	15,939,813	32,181,100	13,603,050	3½ "
Aug.	2,...	23,203,757	5,214,377	14,681,727	31,054,027	13,603,815	3½ "
"	9,...	23,831,857	5,264,739	14,688,181	31,726,066	13,345,060	4 "
"	16,...	23,887,419	5,326,453	14,962,787	32,071,253	13,242,850	4 "
"	23,...	23,677,930	5,582,243	14,714,585	31,798,133	13,270,775	4 "
"	30,...	22,132,681	6,094,785	14,492,034	31,737,925	14,489,612	4 "
Sept.	6,...	22,236,008	5,985,710	14,207,995	31,846,545	14,322,275	4 "
"	13,...	21,949,755	6,321,640	13,860,979	31,724,718	14 155 579	4 "
"	20,...	21,843,863	6,880,869	13,567,577	34,813,687	14,219,842	4½ "
"	27,...	22,033,528	7,330,010	13,789,628	33,703,525	13,960,819	5 "
Oct.	4,...	23,821,786	6,891,910	13,798,588	34,651,489	13,183,837	6 "

The successive advances in the bank rates of interest from 4½ to 7 per cent on Saturday, October 7, created considerable surprise. The advance, in part, had been looked for, but it nevertheless produced a sudden and depressing influence. The rate is still less than it was last year at this time, when the charge for discount was 9 per cent, although the specie reserve is now half a million less.

The present successive advances are understood to have been caused by the large amounts absorbed by recent foreign loans, the recovery and immense activity of the cotton trade, the extensive operations of private and joint stock concerns, which required large sums to carry them on, without any prospect of immediate returns; the probability of heavy losses in the agricultural districts from the cattle disease, and the manifestations of the potato blight, which are becoming more apparent. The combination of all these causes sufficiently accounts for the action of the Bank, which has inspired confidence rather than alarm from its conservative character.

The rise, however, on the rate during the last week in the quarter, when many merchants have unusually large payments to make, would scarcely fail to produce a depressing result. Consols and securities of nearly all kinds receded in price, but they subsequently rallied. The discount houses and joint bank raised their rates to a corresponding extent with the prices established by the Bank of England.

The following are the returns of the Bank of France:

BANK OF FRANCE.

		Loans.	Cash and Bullion.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Interest
July	6	591,852,987	521,352,745	859,170,675	221,419,287	3½
"	13	594,467,935	498,688,812	884,890,025	188,481,698	3½
"	20	601,711,488	493,997,271	899,347,175	179,473,477	3½
"	27	610,976,748	494,212,341	898,722,075	199,182,020	3½
August	3	629,185,610	493,250,442	898,333,075	219,233,136	3½
"	10	619,750,846	486,367,696	897,359,923	200,211,070	3½
"	17	623,258,456	488,170,183	877,349,725	202,153,615	3½
"	24	591,746,248	500,449,290	879,828,825	189,888,513	3½
"	31	637,672,453	498,958,920	916,501,325	192 331,850	3½
September	7	585,602,649	503,716,344	849,749,975	217,738,826	3½
"	14	579,090,374	499,224,478	850,146,625	209,987,979	3
"	21	578,177,257	499,913,894	841,097,725	194,689,060	3
"	28	589,891,292	492,638,492	834,850,575	220,888,613	3
October	5	658,011,120	470,917,716	883,268,625	217,360,539	4

The latest bank return shows a decline of 21.766 000f in the coin and bullion, and an increase of 68,120,000f in the discounts, of 48 418,000f in the circulation of notes, and 36,473.000f in the private deposits. In spite of this decline, the bullion and coin of the Bank amount to 470.917 716f, whilst the liabilities that could be immediately exacted are 883.268.625f of notes and 217.360.539f of deposits. In presence of such a situation, the Bank was evidently under no direct obligation to increase its rate of interest; but in consequence of the augmentation at London, and in certain markets of the Continent, joined to the fact that bankers had begun to demand heavy discounts, in order to profit by the difference between the price of money in other countries and France, the directors of the Bank in their weekly meeting raised their rate from 3 to 4 per cent for bills, and 4 to 5 for advances. As usual, the Bank will be attacked for this measure, by all these persons who believe or affect to believe that the value of money can be kept low in France when it is high in other centres of capital, and when the *encaisse* declines. But the general opinion will no doubt be that the Bank has acted prudently.

COURSE OF GOLD, OCTOBER, 1865.

The following table shows the fluctuations of gold daily during the month of October, and monthly since January 1, 1865:

DATE	Open'ng	Highest	Lowest	Closing	DATE	Open'ng	Highest	Lowest	Closing
Oct. 2	144⅛	144⅛	144⅛	144⅛	Oct. 18	146	146⅛	146	146⅛
" 3	144⅛	14 ⅜	144⅛	144⅜	" 19	146⅜	147	146⅜	146⅝
" 4	144⅜	146⅜	144⅜	14 ⅜	" 20	146⅛	146⅛	146	146⅛
" 5	14 ⅜	147⅛	14 ⅜	14 ⅜	" 21	146⅛	146⅜	145⅜	146⅛
" 6	147⅜	149	146⅛	146⅜	" 23	146⅜	146⅜	14	146
" 7	146	14 ⅞	146	146⅜	" 24	146⅜	146⅜	146	146⅛
" 9	146⅜	146⅜	145⅜	145¾	" 25	146⅛	14 ⅜	14 ⅜	145⅜
" 10	145⅞	145⅞	144⅜	14 ⅜	" 26	14 ⅝	14 ⅝	144⅜	145⅛
" 11	144⅜	14 ⅜	144⅜	145⅜	" 27	14 ⅝	14 ⅞	14 ⅜	145⅝
" 12	145⅛	145⅜	145	145	" 28	14 ⅜	14 ⅜	14 ⅜	145⅝
" 13	144⅜	1 47⅛	144⅛	144⅜	" 30	145⅜	14 ⅜	145⅜	145⅝
" 14	144⅞	144⅞	144⅛	144⅝	" 31	146	146⅜	145⅞	146⅛
" 16	145	14 ⅜	145	145⅜					
" 17	145⅝	146⅜	14 ⅝	14 ⅞	Month	144⅜	149	144⅜	146⅛

The monthly fluctuations since the commencement of the year have been as follows:

January	2.6	234⅜	197⅛	204⅜	July	141	146⅜	138⅛	144
Feb. uary	202⅜	216⅜	198⅜	202	August	144⅜	145⅜	140⅜	144⅝
March	200⅜	201	148⅜	157⅜	September	144⅜	145	142⅝	44⅛
April	151	154⅜	143⅜	146⅜	October	144⅜	149	144⅜	146⅛
May	145⅜	145⅜	128⅜	137⅜					
June	137⅜	147⅜	135⅜	141⅜	Ten months	296	234⅜	128⅜	146⅛

THE UNITED STATES DEBT.

We give below the statement of the Public Debt, prepared from the reports of the Secretary of the Treasury, for August, September, and October, 1865.

Denominations.	August 31.	September 30.	October 31.
DEBT BEARING INTEREST IN COIN.			
6 per cent, due December 31, 1867	$9,415,250	$9,415,250	$9,415,250
6 do July 1, 1868	8,908,332	8,908,342	8,908,341
5 do January 1, 1874	20,000,000	20,000,000	20,000,000
5 do January 1, 1871	7,022,000	7,022,000	7,022,000
6 do December 31, 1880	18,415,000	18,415,000	18,415,000
6 do June 30, 1881	50,000,000	50,000,000	50,000,000
6 do June 30, 1861, exch'ed for 7.30s	139,194,000	139,331,000	139,331,400
6 do May 1, 1867–82 (5.20 years)	514,880,500	514,780,500	514,780,500
6 do November 1, 1869–84 (5.20 years)	91,789,000	100,000,000	100,000 000
6 do November 1, 1870–85 (5.20 years)	.....	.....	44,479,100
5 do March 1, 1874–1904 (10.40s)	172,770,100	172,770,100	172,770,100
6 do July 1, '81 (Oregon war)	1,016,000	1,016,000	1,016,000
6 do June 30, 1881	75,000,000	75,000,000	75,000,000
Aggregate of debt bearing coin interest	$1,108,310,192	$1,116,658,192	$1,161,197,691
DEBT BEARING INTEREST IN LAWFUL MONEY.			
4 per cent Temporary Loan (10 days' notice.)	$618,128	$618,126	$612,728
6 do do do	35,429,398	36,249,660	21,309,710
5 do do do	71,101,187	79,017,961	67,185,807
6 do Certificates (one year)	85,093,000	62,899,000	55,905,000
5 do One and two-years' notes	32,954,230	32,954,230	32,536,901
6 do Three years' comp. interest notes	217,624,160	217,012,141	173,012,141
6 do Thirty-year bonds, (Union Pacific R.)	1,258,000	1,258,000	1,258 000
7.20 do Three years' treasury notes, 1st series	300,000,000	300,000,000	300,000,000
7.30 do do do 2d series	300,000,000	300,000,000	300,000,000
7.30 do do do 3d series	230,000,000	230,000,000	230,000,000
Aggregate of debt bearing lawful money int	$1,274,478,103	$1,260,009,120	$1,191,819,787
DEBT ON WHICH INTEREST HAS CEASED.			
7.30 per cent Three years' notes	$334,450	$322,250	$308,150
do Texas indemnity bonds	839,000	760,000	760,000
Other bonds and notes	329,570	307,070	305,770
Aggregate of debt on which int. has ceased	$1,503,020	$1,389,320	$1,373,920
DEBT BEARING NO INTEREST.			
United States Notes	$400,000,000	$400,000,000	$400,000,000
do do (in redemp. of the temp loan)	33,160,569	28,160,569	28,160,569
Fractional currency	26,344,742	26,487,755	26,057,469
Currency	$459,505,311	$454,648,324	$454,218,038
Uncalled for pay requisitions	2,111,000	1,220,000	660,900
Aggregate of debt bearing no interest	$461,646,601	$455,868,324	$454,878,938
Amount in Treasury—			
Coin	$45,435,771	$32,740,789	$34,554,967
Currency	42,782,284	56,236,441	33,800,591
Total in Treasury	$88,218,055	$88,977,230	$68,355,578
RECAPITULATION.			
Debt bearing interest in coin	$1,108,310.192	$1,116,658,192	$1,161,197,691
Debt bearing interest in lawful money	1,274,488,103	1,260,008,120	1,191,819.787
Debt on which interest has ceased	1,503,020	1,389,320	1,373,920
Debt bearing no interest (currency)	459,505,311	454,648,324	454,218,038
Uncalled for requisitions	2.111,000	1,220,000	660,900
Aggregate debts of all kinds	$2,845,907,656	$2,833,924,956	$2,809.210,336
Cash in treasury	88,218,025	88,977,230	68,355,578
ANNUAL INTEREST PAYABLE ON DEBT.			
Payable in gold	$64,500,500	$65,001,579	$67,670,340
Payable in lawful money	73,531,088	72,527,646	71,267,738
Aggregate amount of int. payable annually—not including int. on the 3 years' comp. int. notes, which is payable only at maturity.	$138,031,628	$137,529,216	$138,938,078
LEGAL TENDER NOTES IN CIRCULATION.			
One and two years' 5 per cent notes	$33,954,230	$32,954,230	$32,536,901
United States notes (currency)	433,160,569	428,160,569	428,160,569
Three years' 6 per cent compound int. notes	217,024,160	217,012,141	217,012,141
Aggregate legal tender notes in circulation	$684,138,059	$678,126,940	$633,126,940

COMMERCIAL AND INDUSTRIAL STATISTICS.

ZINC MANUFACTURE IN ILLINOIS.

The existence of rich zinc ores in various parts of the country has long been known, and numerous attempts have been made to turn them to account. As far back as the Revolution we find these experiments beginning to be made and continuing till some 12 years since without success. The first remunerative results were realized in New Jersey by converting the zinc ore known as Franklinite into the white oxide of zinc for paint. Similar works were erected in Pennsylvania at Bethlehem, using the calamine or carbonate and silicate of zinc. The market was soon stocked with the zinc white now so extensively used as a pigment, instead of white lead.

Practical men having thus turned their attention to the ores of zinc, several attempts were made to reduce them to a metallic state, in New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Wisconsin. These attempts were generally failures, and the belief was confirmed that metallic zinc could not be successfully manufactured here. One exception is found in the Bethlehem works of Pennsylvania, and another in the subject of this article, the zinc works of La Salle, 90 miles west of Chicago.

The country is indebted to Messrs. Mathieson and Hegehler, two highly intelligent Germans, and graduates of the Mining Academy of Freiburg, for the first success in this direction. These gentlemen came to America in 1857, and began their experiments at the Lehigh zinc works, in Pennsylvania, where they produced, as it is believed, the first metallic zinc of American make. Learning of the superior richness of the Wisconsin ores, they went West in 1858, and examined the zinc ores of the lead region, which had been described in the geological reports of Wisconsin in 1853. Satisfied of their value and abundance, they looked for fuel and facilities of manufacture and transportation. La Salle, with its rich deposits of coal, building material, and unequaled means of land and water transportation, presented these conditions in the highest degree, and they at once decided to make it the location of their works. At first they rented a small temporary furnace, and, in a quiet and unpretending way, began experiments upon the ores, coal, and fire-clays within their reach.

The fire-clay for their first retorts was brought from Germany, all American fire-clays then known failing to stand the intense heat required. Great difficulty also was experienced in adjusting the old machinery and processes of Europe to the new materials. For nearly five years these men labored with a patience worthy of all praise, overcoming one obstacle after another by a rare combination of scientific knowledge and practical skill. So numerous have been their changes in the old methods of treating the ores of zinc, that they may justly claim to be the inventors as well as builders of their present furnaces. They have at last achieved a most triumphant success. Their new works are being constructed in the most permanent manner, and when completed will be the most extensive and perfect in the world. They consist, first, of a powerful mill, in which the ore and fine clay are ground; second, of an extensive pottery, in which the re-

torts, pipes, and fire brick used in constructing the furnaces are made; third, of the reducing furnaces, each capable of holding 160 retorts. The materials used in building are brick and stone, the latter being obtained from a fine quarry on the grounds of the company. The works are situated about one mile north of La Salle, near the line of the Central Railroad, and opposite the Kentucky coal mine, from which they obtain their coal.

The reducing furnaces are large square structures built up of fire-brick, with a frame-work of iron bars on either side to sustain the retorts. These retorts are from three to five feet in length, and vary in size and shape, from round to oval, and from six inches to one foot in diameter. They are placed horizontally in rows, one above the other, slightly inclining forward to facilitate the separation of the zinc. The ore, after being roasted at the mine, ground, mixed with fine coal and moistened with water, is placed in the retorts by means of a semi-cylindrical shovel. Conical earthen pipes are inserted into the open ends of the retorts and luted in with fire-clay. The fires below are then increased until a white heat pervades the interior of the furnace. At first the openings in the tubes emit light blue flames, caused by the carbonic acid evolved; later the flames become whiter, with tints of green, and of great brilliancy, forming at night a pyrotechnical display of wonderful beauty. Sheet-iron tubes fitting the pipes, furnished with handles and closed at one end, are then applied to catch the oxide of zinc or "blue powder" which begins to escape with the flame. These are taken off at short intervals, and the blue powder removed to be mixed with the ore and returned and returned to the retorts again. When the zinc is ready to draw, a large iron ladle is held under the beak of each retort, and the molten zinc is drawn out with an iron scraper. It is then poured into moulds which give it the form of flat rectangular ingots, weighing 25 pounds each. The tubes are then applied again, the firing continued, and after two or three hours more a fresh supply of zinc is obtained. These operations are continued all day and night, when the retorts are cleaned out and refiled. In this way a charge is worked off every 24 hours.

The daily yield of the three furnaces is about four tons. The coal used is mostly slack or waste of the mines, of which about six tons are required to produce a ton of zinc. The amount of ore consumed is about five tons, or 2,400 pounds to each ton of metal produced. The zinc made here is said to be the best in the world. Telegraph zincs are already extensively manufactured for Western consumption.

The ore used is obtained from the iron region of Wisconsin, 100 miles north of La Salle. It is found in great quantities among the rubbish of the old lead mines, where it has been thrown aside by the miners under the name of "dry bone." It often attends the lead ore as the matrix, or vein stone, and is in bad repute from the tendency of such veins to give out. The miners say the dry bone eats out the galena. The ore resembles a dirty limestone, and in its natural state gives no indication of the brilliant metal which it holds. Heavy deposits of it have been opened in mining for lead, but the surface supply is adequate for present purposes.

The ore is roasted at the mines, and parts with carbonic acid and water, which form 33 per cent of its weight. It is then put on the cars and transported

to La Salle, the Illinois Central Railroad, with commendable liberality, charging only a nominal price for transportation, to encourage the development of the manufacture. The price of zinc in the pig is now about $200 per ton. The product of the La Salle furnaces is mostly sold in New York, where it is rolled and manufactured. The proprietors intend erecting rolling mills next season for the manufacture of sheet zinc. One of them is now in Germany securing the means and skilled labor for a still further expansion of the enterprise.

AMERICAN COAL AND IRON.

The following tables, compiled from the Report of the Internal Revenue for 1863–64 shows the extent and value of the iron and coal business in the Northern States for that year :

COAL PRODUCT OF THE LOYAL STATES.

Rhode Island	3,656	Indiana	146,787
Pennsylvania	12,691,219	Illinois	925,293
Maryland	787,269	Michigan	16,296
*District of Columbia	743	Minnesota	50,205
West Virginia	398,915	Kansas	236
Kentucky	91,136	California	44,959
Missouri	66,187	Washington	7,753
Ohio	1,824,695		
		Total tons	16,355,329

—which, valued at $2 50 per ton at the mines, makes a total value of $41,181,025.

PRODUCTION AND MANUFACTURE OF IRON.

	Tons.	Value.
Rails re-rolled	159,000	$7,155,000
Rails, new	117,224	9,964,040
Band, hoop and plate	153,936	15,393,600
Bars and blooms	179,292	17,929,200
Rivets and cut nails	127,381	25,476,200
Heavy castings	172,182	15,396,380
Hollow ware and stoves	81,955	16,391,200
Total	990,971	$107,805,620
Marine engines	....	2,181,137
Steel, unwrought	10,880	3,536,000
Steel manufactures N. O. P	....	9,979,061
Iron manufactures N. O. P	....	62,964,920
Aggregate value		186,466,738

TRADE WITH THE SOUTH—ORDERS FROM SECRETARY McCULLOCH.

The following important circular, relative to southern trade, has just been issued by the Secretary of the Treasury :—

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, Sept. 18, 1865.

In the circular issued by this Department, on June 21, 1865, reference was made to the provision contained in section 46, of the Internal Revenue act of June 30, 1864, conferring upon the Secretary of the Treasury discretionary power in regard to the assessment, levy, time, and manner of collection of taxes in the States lately in insurrection.

Under the authority given by that section it was then stated that the department, without waiving in any degree the rights of the Government in regard to taxes here-

tofore accruing, would not insist at present upon their payment, so far as they were payable prior to the establishment of a collection district embracing the territory in which the tax payer resided.

It was further provided that manufactured articles found in the hands of a purchaser, which were satisfactorily shown to have passed from the manufacturer before the establishment of the district, should not be subject to tax, unless transported beyond the limits of the State lately in insurrection. No exception was then made in favor of articles which had remained in the possession of the manufacturers, and thus become liable to the tax imposed by the existing law.

The Department, preferring to test the practical workings of the regulation before exercising its power of modification in this important particular, representations since made relative to the hardship of this discrimination between manufacturer and purchaser have been corroborated by careful inquiry, and induce the conviction that a further exemption is justifiable and advisable.

It is found that considerable quantities of manufactured products have been retained by the manufacturer in his own hands as the safest mode of investing his property until the return of peace; that this retention was determined on, and carried out without the knowledge or opportunity of knowledge of the law subjecting this property to heavy taxation on sale, and that a large part of the manufactures so retained having been much deteriorated in value by the lapse of time and want of proper attention would not now sell for a sum equal to the tax.

A state of things so destructive to the usefulness of property, and to the prosperity of the manufacturing classes, is as adverse to the integrity of the government as to those of the community. For these reasons, it is hereby ordered that all articles, in whatsoever hands found, which can be shown to the satisfaction of the assessor to have been manufactured before the establishment of the district, shall be held free from the present assessment or collection of tax, unless transported beyond the limits of the States late in insurrection.

Manufacturers of articles liable to seizure for want of inspection marks will present to the assessor evidence that such articles were manufactured prior to the establishment of the district; and the assessor, if satisfied, will cause such articles to be so marked as to be identified and sold without liability to seizure.

All articles transported beyond the limits of the States lately in insurrection will be subject to the tax due under the law in force at the time they were manufactured.

Signed, H. McCulloch,
Secretary of the Treasury.

JOURNAL OF INSURANCE.

FIRES IN THE UNITED KINGDOM.

The following alphabetical list of the fires which took place in the chief places in the United Kingdom in 1864, although we pass over many, may not be uninteresting. There occurred at Aberdeen 32 fires; at Belfast 36, Birmingham 132, Brighton 26, Bristol 59, Carlisle 3, Chester 12, Clifton 7, Cork 18, Dover 7, Dublin 68, Dundee 55, Edinburgh 87, Enfield 5, Exeter 17, Gasgow 308, Hull 44, Inverness 5, Ipswich 3, Kidderminster 8, Leeds 50, Leicester 36, Limerick 7, Liverpool 206, London 1,847, Manchester 291, Newport (Monmouth), 15, Northampton 24, Norwich 15, Nottingham 35, Oxford 2, Plymouth 14, Portsmouth 28, Preston 31, Rochdale 10, Salford 31, Shffield 40, Southampton 20, Stockport 19, Stoke on Trent 1, Sunderland 32, Swansea 10, Torquay 3, Warrington 15, Waterford 1, Windsor 1, Wolverhampton, 10, Worcester 12, Yarmouth 1, and York 15. There were 568 fires last year at Berlin, 150 at Hamburg, 776 at Paris, and 152 at St. Petersburg. The approximate average yearly of fires in other places abroad is as follows: Adelaide

2, Amsterdam 28, Antigua 1, Antwerp 3, Bombay 33, Boston 172, Buenos Ayres 5, Cape Town 12, Charlestown 31, Christiania 4, Constantinople 3, Copenhagen 60, Demerara 1, Hankow 2, Havre 43, Hobart Town 20, Hong Kong 3, Honolulu 3, Manila 1, Marseilles 30, Melbourne 52, Montreal 104, Montevideo, 1, New York 350, Philadelphia 363, Port Louis (Mauritius) 50, St. John's, New Foundland 20, St. Louis 150, San Francisco 72, Shanghae 1, Stockholm 3, Tientsin 23, Warsaw 30, and Yokohama 4. It should be stated that bona fide fires only are noticed in the annual London reports, whereas chimneys and other minor alarms are generally included in the returns of foreign countries.

BENEFITS OF LIFE INSURANCE.

The importance of Life Insurance, and the variety of purposes to which it may be advantageously applied, it is scarcely possible to overstate. No better criterion of the progress of a nation can be furnished than that of the extent to which the practice of Life Insurance obtains among the various classes of the community. Here the wealthy merchant finds the security he desires against the derangement, by death, of his well-planned schemes. Here the clergyman, the lawyer and the physician find a much needed provision for their families, whenever death may deprive them of the income their services, learning and talents now procure. In short, here the professional, the tradesman, the official, the clerk and the artisan, those with fixed incomes, and those of uncertain means, alike find a certain present provision for the dark and uncertain future.

The superiority of life insurance over annual savings is frequently overlooked. A man with a moderate income may feel that in a few years he may save sufficient to leave a competence for his family; but he feels likewise that at any moment he may be snatched from them, before the proposed sum is amassed: he therefore has recourse to an insurance on his life, and so renders that certain which Nature has made uncertain.

Any statement of the advantages of life insurance must be defective which omits mention of its influence in the formation and development of character. Actions having self for their object and end, exercise and strengthen selfishness, and, often repeated, form a purely selfish character. In life insurance present good is sacrificed to purchase a future advantage for others—an advantage the insured cannot share—and which is only realized after death. It is difficult to conceive of anything more calculated than such sacrifices to elevate the tone of a man's moral being, refine his nature, and render him more beneficent to men, more generous to friends, more affectionate to kindred. We have no doubt that it will be found on examination that life insurres are, in a moral point of view, the very best class of the community.

DANGER TO COTTON ON SIDE WALKS.

There is a subject of much importance to our insurance underwriters, and also of considerable moment to New York pedestrians, in the matter of preparing cotton for storing, and the result consequent upon such preparation. The storage stores are mostly located in our busiest streets and most crowded mercantile resorts. In front of many of these bales of cotton completely cover the

sidewalks, occasioning the passer-by either to display his muscular agility in vaulting over them, or to take to the muddy street. This matter, considered apart, does not amount to much, as the people of this city are accustomed to this sort of thing, but it is the circumstances attendant upon all this which makes the subject of paramount importance to the insurance company. The majority of this Southern cotton is in a condition which necessitates its being picked over to make its appearance in bales of the first class, and the most of this picking is done on the sidewalks immediately in front of the warehouses. Among the throngs that are continually passing, hundreds are smokers of cigars, which are thrown away in a partially consumed state, generally into the streets, frequently upon the sidewalks, and cases have been known where these remnants have been thrown into a lot of pickings. In our storage warehouses smoking is always strictly prohibited, but this requirement does not, of course, extend to but those who are engaged in and around the premises, and does not reach the many who are continually passing between or around the cotton on the walk. Ashes and sparks can easily fall by accident among the loose pickings or upon the uncovered bales. These are soon removed into the warehouse, and sometimes the sparks are smothered, and possibly they are not, and then results follow which are not always the happiest to contemplate. The manipulation of cotton in this way is practiced so constantly, and to such an extent as to occasion wonder that more fires do not occur, having their origin in cotton thus handled and exposed to such great risk. The remedy for this lies in the hands of our underwriters, that of refusing to insure cotton in warehouses where picking takes place outside of the store, and until this remedy is applied we may reasonably expect a continuance of our fortnightly fires in warehouses where cotton is stored. Then, too, pedestrians would have a little more of the sidewalk to themselves without the hazard in running between the horses and carts in the effort to proceed. Two immense fires from this cause have recently occurred in New Orleans.

FEDERAL, STATE, AND MUNICIPAL FINANCES.

NEW LOAN—IMPORTANT TREASURY CIRCULAR.

Secretary McCulloch has issued the following circular, announcing a new loan of fifty millions of five-twenties in exchange for certificates of indebtedness and compound interest notes:

TREASURY DEPARTMENT,
WASHINGTON, D. C., Sept. 29, 1865.

By virtue of the authority contained in the first section of an act ofCongress entitled "An Act to provide ways and means to support the Government," approved March 3, 1865, which provides, among other things, that any Treasury notes, or other obligations bearing interest, issued under any act of Congress, may, at the discretion of the Secretary of the Treasury, and with the consent of the holder, be converted into any description of bonds authorized by said act, notice is hereby given to the holders of certificates of indebtedness which mature before the first day of January next, of compound interest notes, and of one and two year Treasury notes, of the readiness of this Department to give in exchange for them, to the extent of fifty millions of dollars, six per cent, five-twenty year bonds at three per cent premium; that is to say,

one hundred dollars of bonds for each one hundred and three dollars in certificates and notes; provided the conversion is made prior to the first day of November next.

The bonds issued in exchange for such certificates and notes will bear an interest of six per cent per annum, payable semi-annually in coin, upon the first days of May and November, and will be redeemable at the pleasure of the Government after five years, and payable in twenty years from the 1st day of November, 1865.

The coupon and registered bonds issued under this proposal will be of the denominations of one hundred, five hundred, and one thousand dollars. Registered bonds of five thousand and ten thousand dollars will be issued if desired.

Holders of certificates, compound interest or Treasury notes, who desire to make such conversions, will deliver them to the Treasurer, the Assistant Treasurers or the designated depositaries of the United States, or to any national depositary bank which may consent to transact the business without charge.

Interest will be allowed on certificates of indebtedness and one and two year Treasury notes matured or maturing prior to the 1st of November, 1865, up to the date of maturity, and when maturing after the 1st of November interest will be allowed to that day.

Upon the compound interest notes the interest will be computed to November 1, 1865, upon the amount of principal and interest compounded on the back of said notes, from the period next prior to that date.

The principal and interest of such Treasury notes and obligations will be considered together as an offer for conversion; but when, after deducting the principal of the bonds and three per cent premium, there re-maine a fractional part of one hundred dollars, this fractional part will be paid to the depositor.

The Secretary reserves to himself the right of withdrawing this proposal at any time prior to said first day of November, provided fifty millions of dollars shall, prior to that date, be offered for conversion as aforesaid.

Circulars of instructions will be transmitted to the various officers authorized to receive certificates and notes, to which attention is invited.

H. McCulloch, Secretary of the Treasury.

REDEMPTION OF NATIONAL BANK NOTES.

We find in the Philadelphia *Enquirer* a letter written by a bank officer of that city, proposing a plan for redemption, and also a reply to it from Mr. McCulloch. The continued agitation of this subject, and the suggestion of different plans is a very favorable indication; for we can only hope to reach the best system after a full discussion. The following is the Philadelphia letter referred to:

Philadelphia, Pa., September 22, 1865.

Hon. Hugh McCulloch, Secretary of the Treasury, Washington, D C.—Sir:—I have received from L. S. Norris, Esq., Cashier of the First National Bank of Baltimore, a proposition to establish a National Redemption Bank in the city of New York, which he says was submitted to you, and at your suggestion is now presented to other bankers for their approval.

Certainly, whether the proposition is approved or not, every one wishing this question of redemption rightly settled will thank you and Cashier Norris for having done a very good thing in opening the subject for discussion. For if every one having a plan will now but imitate Mr. Norris in submitting it to you, and then to the bankers and the people, the true system may be found.

Acting upon this idea, I beg leave to respectfully submit for the common stock a plan so naturally suggested in my mind that I feel confident that it has frequently occurred to yourself and others.

Admitting, with Mr. Norris, that New York is "the centre of our monetary affairs," the sun of our system, if you please, I think that the commercial cities named in the Currency act may also be regarded as the suns of smaller systems, revolving around the principal sun, but equally necessary to the harmony and perfection of the whole. Therefore, whilst seeking to have New York become the grand central point for the redemption of all the National currency, I would not destroy the system of local centres provided for the interior banks in the act, but would still require them to redeem

at their local centres as well as at the grand centre sought to be created at New York.

I would, however, take the business of redemption entirely out of the hands of the banks at the grand central point of redemption, and place it with the Government, where I think it properly belongs under the national system, and will ultimately go.

I would, therefore, by an amendment of the Currency act, establish an office of the Currency Bureau at the Sub-Treasury in New York for the redemption of all national currency, charging office expenses to the Bureau, and the cost of transportation to the banks, pro rata according to the amount of circulation of each. For the redemption of their notes banks would be required to make a permanent deposit at the sub-treasury of a portion of their lawful money reserve, say five per cent of the amount of their circulation.

Each bank would be advised daily of the amount of its notes redeemed, and as the notes amounted to a certain proportion of its permanent deposit, they would be forwarded to the bank, or if an interior bank, to its local centre of redemption, when desired. In return for its redeemed notes, each bank would be required to forward to the Sub-Treasury lawful money, or the currency of the New York City or other National Banks, in such proportions and under such rules as might be found necessary to secure at all times a healthy state of the currency throughout the country.

It appears to me that with some such plan as I have briefly sketched, the Treasury Department would be better able to meet the requirements of the Government, the bankers and the people, than any organization of the banks for the purpose, whilst it would at the same time be daily fulfilling its pledge for the redemption of the National currency in a manner that would retain for the National banking system the entire confidence of the American people.

This letter sent to Mr. McCulloch elicited the following reply. Although the Secretary fails to give it his approval, still the suggestions are important, and with modifications may be found less objectionable.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, Sept. 26, 1865.

Dear Sir:—Your favor of the 22nd inst. is received.

I have been desirous that an amicable arrangement should be made for the redemption by the Interior Banks of their notes at the seaboard cities, but I have not undertaken to suggest the manner in which this arrangement should be carried out.

There are some good points in Mr. Norris' plan, but there are likewise some serious objections to it. It is important that the whole matter should be thoroughly canvassed before the next meeting of Congress; and if, under existing law, no satisfactory plan can be agreed upon, it might be advisable to obtain an amendment of the National Currency Act, by which the object contemplated may be secured.

My present impression, is that it would not be advisable to connect the Government in any way with the redemption of the national curren-cy at New York, and I am hopeful that everything that is desirable in the way of satisfactory redemptions may be effected without the intervention of Congress.

I am very truly, yours.

H. McCULLOCH.

MR. McCULLOCH'S LATE SPEECH.

The following extract from Mr. McCulloch's late speech contains all that he said with regard to our finances:

And now a word in regard to our finances: You know that I did not seek, as I did not expect to be, Secretary of the Treasury. To this fact I attribute in a great degree, the good feeling and indulgence that have been manifested toward me in the very trying and responsible position I occupy. I accepted the office of Sectetary of the Treasury with great distrust of my ability to meet the public expectation, but with a sincere desire to so conduct the affairs of this great department as to aid in restoring the credit of the government which had been damaged by the greatness of the public debt, and the uncertainty in regard to the duration, if not to the result of the war, and in bringing up the obligations of the government to the specie standard.

IRREDEEMABLE CURRENCY AN EVIL.

I am not one of those who seem disposed to repudiate coin as a measure of value,

and to make a secured paper currency the standard. On the contrary, I belong to that class of persons, who, regarding an exclusive metallic currency as an impracticable thing among an enterprising and commercial people, nevertheless look upon an irredeemable currency as an evil which circumstances may for a time render a necessity, but is never to be sustained as a policy. By common consent of the nations, gold and silver are the only true measure of value. They are the necessary regulators of trade. I have myself no more doubt that these metals were prepared by the Almighty, for this very purpose, than I have that iron and coal were prepared for the purpose for which they are being used. I favor a well-secured convertible paper currency. No other can to any extent be a proper substitute for coin. Of course it is not expected that there shall be a dollar in coin to reserve for every dollar of paper in circulation. This is not necessary. For all ordinary home transactions a paper currency is sufficient, but there are constantly occurring periods when balances between countries, and in the United States between its different sections, must be settled by coin. These balances are insignificant in amount, in comparison with the transactions out of which they arise, and when a vicious system of credits does not too long postpone settlements, they are arranged without disturbing movements of coin. Whenever specie is needed for such a purpose, or for any other purpose, the paper currency of the country should be convertible into it, and a circulation which is not so convertible will not be, and ought not long to be, tolerated by the people. The present inconvertible currency of the United States was a necessity of the war, but now that the war has ceased, and the government ought not to be longer a borrower, the currency should be brought up to the specie standard, and I see no way of doing this but by withdrawing a portion of it from circulation.

THE BUSINESS OF THE COUNTRY IN AN UNHEALTHY STATE.

I have no faith, sir, in a prosperity which is the effect of a depreciated currency, nor can I see any safe path for us to tread but that which leads to specie payment. The extreme high prices which now prevail in the United States is an unerring indication that the business of the country is in an unhealthy condition. We are measuring values by a false standard. We have a circulating medium altogether larger than is needed for legitimate business—the excess is used on speculations. The United States are to-day the best market in the world for foreigners to sell in, and among the poorest to buy in. The consequence is, that Europe is selling us more than she buys of us (including our securities, which ought not to go abroad,) and there is a debt rolling up against us that must be settled, in part at least, with coin. The longer the inflation continues the more difficult will it be for us to get back to the solid ground of specie payments, to which we must return sooner or later. If Congress shall, early in the approaching session authorize the funding of legal tenders, and the work of a reduction is commenced and carried on resolutely but carefully and prudently, we will reach it probably without serious embarrassment to legitimate business; if not we shall have a brief period of hollow and seductive prosperity, resulting in widespread bankruptcy and disaster. There are other objections to the present inflation. It is, I fear, corrupting the public morals. It is converting the business of the country into gambling, and seriously diminishing the labor of the country. This is always the effect of excessive circulation. The kind of gambling which it produces is not confined to the stock and produce boards, where the very terms which are used by the operators indicate the nature of the transactions, but it is spreading through our towns and into the rural districts. Men are apparently getting rich while morality languishes and the productive industry of the country is being diminished. Good morals in business, and sober, persevering industry, if not at a discount, are considered too old fogyish for the present times. But I feel that this is not the occasion for croaking, and perhaps I ought to apologize for the train of remarks into which I have been led. Whatever financial troubles may be before us, Fort Wayne will suffer as little from them as any other city in the country. Good financial seed was sown here at an early day. If property is high, there are no incumbrances upon it. If expensive buildings are being erected, the owners are not indebted for them. Business is done here on the cash principle. Our merchants generally buy for cash and sell for cash. We shall doubtless wake up some fine morning and find our property worth apparently a good deal less than at present, but if we have no debts to pay in a dearer currency than that in which they were contracted, we shall have little to fear from any crisis that may occur.

WISE LEGISLATION NECESSARY.

But, while I feel anxious about the present inflation, and its effects upon the business and morals of the country, I am hopeful that, by wise legislation, we shall escape a financial collapse, and I am confident that a grand future is before the United States. I am hopeful that the currency may be brought up to the specie standard without those financial troubles which have in all countries followed protracted and expensive wars. By the experience of the past four years we are led to the conclusion that our people have a latent power that always manifests itself when required, and is equal to any emergency. I have faith, sir, that as we have, to the astonishment of the world, raised immense armies, larger, I apprehend, than any single nation ever brought into the field, and met the enormous expenses of the war without borrowing from other nations, we shall also be able, without a financial crisis, to fund our surplus in currency andterest bearing notes, bring back the business to a specie standard, and place the credit of the country on the most stable and satisfactory basis. If we do this, we shall accomplish what the soundest thinkers in Europe have considered an impossibility, and what no other people but the free and enterprising people of the United States, occupying the grandest country in the world, could accomplish. But should we be disappointed in these hopeful expectations, should no early check be put upon the issues of paper money, should prices still further advance, and speculation be still further stimulated, and the result thereof be extensive bankruptcy, depression, and hard times, the grand destiny of this country and this government will not be affected. The United States occupy the best portion of the temperate zone of a continent, stretching out his arms to Europe on the one side, and Asia on the other, and producing all articles necessary for the subsistence and comfort of the race. If cotton be king, he is, thank God, enthroned again; if bread be king, where should his capital be but in this great valley of the Mississippi? This nation has within itself everything that is needed to make it the greatest among the family of nations. Coal and iron in juxtaposition and inexhaustable supply. Mountains and valleys rich enough in gold and silver to furnish the world, for all time, with what may be needed for circulation and other uses. Copper and lead and other minerals in no less abundance. A soil of wonderful fertility, a climate salubrious and diversified, and, above all republican institutions, and an energetic and again united people.

CAPITAL AND LABOR IN THE SOUTH.

We have, it is true, sir, difficult questions growing out of the war, yet to be settled, but I have an abiding confidence that they will be settled as they come up for settlement, in such manner as will strengthen the Union and add to our national renown. The labor question of the South is one of these questions; but if there be no outside interference, it will not, I apprehend, be a very difficult one. On the contrary, it is quite likely to be a self-adjusting one. The planter needs the labor of his former slaves, and the high price which Southern products will command for years to come will enable him to pay liberally for it. The colored people will soon learn that freedom from slavery does not mean freedom from work. The interests of the two races will not long be antagonistic. The whites will need the labor of the blacks, and the blacks will need employment. There is as much danger to be apprehended from the unwillingness of the latter to labor for a support, as from an indisposition on the part of the former to pay fair wages. Like all other economical questions, it will be settled by the necessities and interests of the parties. Fortunately for the solution of this question, and the well-being of laboring men generally, capital is not supreme in the United States. It does not, as in most other countries, hold labor under its control, and dole out to it just such remuneration only as will make it most productive. Labor is a power in this free country, with its cheap lands, which are within the reach of all industrious men, and dictates terms to capital. There is no part of the world where labor is more needed than in the Southern States, nor where it will soon command better prices. This labor question at the South will, I doubt not, be satisfactorily arranged in due time, for the best interests of all concerned. But I have trespassed too long upon your time. Accept, again, my thanks for your courtesy, and for the attention you have given to my desultory remarks.

RECEIPTS AND EXPENDITURES OF GOVERNMENT FOR LAST QUARTER.

The following is a statement of the receipts and expenditures of the United States for the quarter ending June 30, 1865, exclusive of trust funds:—

TREASURY DEPARTMENT,
REGISTER'S OFFICE, Oct. 10, 1865.

RECEIPTS.

From customs	$30,140,397
Sales of public lands	204,521
Direct tax	283,396
Internal revenue	42,946,436
Incidental and miscellaneous sources	6,710,044
Total receipts, exclusive of loans, &c.	$80,289,786
From fractional currency, per act of March 3, 1863	4,155,291
Sixes, twenty years bonds, per act of July 17, 1861	46,270
Temporary loans, per acts of February 25 and March 17, 1862	58,536,129
Certificates of indebtedness per acts of March 1 and 17, 1862	8,769,000
Sixes, 1881 bonds, per act of March 3, 1863	142,750
Sixes, compound interest notes, per acts of March 3, 1863, and June 30, 1864	65,900,000
Seven three-tenths 3 years' Treasury notes, per act of June 30, 1864	363,975,767
Sixes, five-twenty year bonds, per act of June 30, 1864	17,639,000
Seven three-tenths 3 year Treasury notes, per act of March 3, 1865	15,655,895
Gold coin purchased per act of March 17, 1862	3,355,000
Total	$538,175,034
Grand total	618,464,820

EXPENDITURES.

Civil—Foreign intercourse and miscellaneous	$12,271,896
Interior—Pension and Indian	1,625,433
War	414,196,277
Navy	32,985,664
Interest on public debt, including interest notes	36,700,812
Total	$497,780,103
Redemption of Texan indemnity stock	1,221,969
Reimbursements of Treasury notes, per acts prior to Dec. 23, 1857	250
Payment of Treasury notes, per act of March 2, 1861	24,400
Redemption of United States notes, per act of July 17, 1861	19,500
Redemption of 7 3-10 3 years coupon bonds, per act of July 17, 1861	29,321,750
Redemption of Treasury notes, per act of February 25, 1862	911,153
Redemption of postage and other stamps, per act of July 17, 1862	979,216
Reimbursement of Treas. loans, per acts of Feb. 25 and March 17, '62	18,668,888
Redemption of certificates indebtedness, per acts of March 1 and 17, '62	65,076,000
Redemption of fractional currency, per act of March 3, 1863	1,992,670
Redemption of one year five per cent Treasury notes, peract of March 3, 1863	24,272,910
Redemption of two years five per cent Treasury notes, per act of March 3, 1863	20,846,700
Redemption of three years six per cent compound interest notes, per acts of March 3, 1863, and June 30, 1864	76,900
Purchase of gold coin, per act of March 17, 1862	5,072,900
Total	$177,987,208
Grand total of expenditures	675,767,411

S. B. COLBY, Register.

RAILWAY, CANAL, AND TELEGRAPH STATISTICS.

RAILROADS IN INDIA.

Mr. Juland Danvers, the government director of the Indian railway companies, states, in his annual report, just issued, that the present system of guaranteed railways comprises a length of 4,917 miles, of which 3,186 are now open for traffic. The net profits in the year ending the 30th of June, 1863, on 2,151 miles of railway, amounted to 690,834*l*, and to 975,077*l* in the year ending 30th June, 1864, on 2,489 miles. The number of passengers conveyed in the latter year was 11,781,683, compared with 9,242,540 in the former. The total expenditures of capital on the lines which are now open, or in course of construction, amounted, on the 1st of May, 1865, to 54,942,029*l*. The expenditure this year, it is estimated, will amount to rather more than 5,000,000*l*—about 1 800,000*l* to be expended in England, and 3,350,000*l* in India. The total amount estimated to be required for the undertakings, as now sanctioned, will reach 77,500,000*l*. The number of shareholders at the end of the year 1864 was 29,303 in England, and 877 in India—the latter number consisting of 384 Europeans and 393 natives. There were also 6 453 debenture holders. Up to the end of 1864 the government had advanced 13,160,539*l* to the railway companies for guaranteed interest, but about 3,500,000*l* had been paid back out of the earnings of the railways, leaving 10,000,000*l* still due to the government. The charge upon the government was 2,567,743*l* in the past year, and by the 1st of January next it will probably have indreased to 2,700,000*l*; but the receipts from traffic, which go in diminution of this, and which in the year 1863–'64 amounted to 1,000,000*l*, will in 1864–'65 probably reach 1,300,000*l*. Year by year the revenue will approach nearer and nearer to the amount of guaranteed interest, and at last the government will not only be relieved of the annual payment altogether, but the railways will begin to earn more than the guaranteed rate, and to discharge their debt for previous advances out of half the excess profits above five per cent. Although it will be some time before the government will receive back the large sum due to them, there is enough in the present condition of the lines to encourage the hope that ultimately it will be paid, and in the mean time the State obtains advantages which fully compensate for the liability it has incurred. Mr. Danvers holds that no country in the world will derive greater advantages from railways than India; that the traffic on the main line may be expected to be enormous; and when they earn six, eight, or ten per cent, the difficulty which now exists in inducing capitalists to promote public works in India will be removed.

RAILROADS IN TEXAS.

The railroads already constructed and now in running order in this State are the Houston and Texas Central Railroad, from Houston to Millican, distance 80 miles. Washington County Railroad, from Hempstead to Brenham, distance 30 miles. Buffalo Bayou, Brazos and Colorado Railroad from Harrisburg to Alleyton, distance 80 miles. Houston Tap and Brazoria Railroad from Hous-

ton to Columbia distance 45 miles. Galveston, Houston and Henderson Railroad, from Galveston to Houston, distance 50 miles. Texas and New Orleans Railroad, from Houston to Beaumont, distance 65 miles. Besides these, there is a railroad in running order from Shreveport, La., to Marshall, Texas, distance 40 miles. A railroad is now being built from Brazos Santiago to Brownville, distance about 30 miles, and one from Indianola to Victoria, distance 40 miles.

VIRGINIA AND TENNESSEE RAILROAD.

The annual report of the Board of Directors of the Virginia and Tennessee Railroad, for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1865, exhibits the following facts:

The gross earnings of operating were.....	$3,291,907 37
The expenses of operating were.....	2,990,504 76
Net earnings above operating expenses.....	$301,402 61

The net earnings are 9.16 per cent, and the expenses of operating 90.84 per cent of the gross earnings.

There have been six different raids during the year by the armies of the United States, and the road destroyed each time for long distances. Much property was also destroyed by the soldiers of the Confederate States, and to such an extent were these injuries committed, that there is now upon the road only three bridges, original structures, left standing, and but three depots.

The road was open for its entire length one hundred and forty-three days during the year; for ninety-one days was closed nearly its whole length, and for one hundred and thirty-one days closed the entire distance. The depots are yet unbuilt, but the bridges were repaired as speedily as possible, and the entire amount, 7,729 feet, replaced with new structures (trestle work), which will, in a majority of cases, last four or five years. One or two are in danger from high water, and will be replaced by truss bridges, similar to the original structures, as quickly as possible. The wood sheds, water stations, etc., were destroyed the same time with the depots, but are now repaired, and freight cars are now used for the reception and distribution of freight until new depots can be built. There were destroyed at the same time seventy-two passenger and freight cars and three locomotives.

INDIAN RAILROADS.

The through line from Lahore to Mooltan on the Indus is now in operation. The Branch Line of the Great Bombay and Calcutta which pierces the cotton country to Nagpore is making great progress; and the contractors who have this line from Lahore or Umritsir to Meerut and Delhi in hand, are hard at work. The only break which remains to be considered is that along the desert side of the Indus from Mooltan to Kotree, the terminus of the line from Kurrachee; and this will soon have to be connected by iron links. Then Calcutta will be in direct communication by rail with Kurrachee, 2,000 miles off, with Bombay, 1,600 miles off, and with Nagpore, 1,100 miles off. Whether we look at the magnitude and solidity of these works, or at the distance which they traverse, the railroads of India will far surpass any like works in Europe, and closely compete with the greatest projected works in America. They will cover 5,000 miles, and cost £70,000,000 sterling (350,000,000 dollars.)

FEEDING ON THE ROAD.

A gentleman travelling on the continent sends to the London *Times* a note regarding a plan adopted at Vesoui, a railway station in France, which he recommends to the restaurants at British stations, and which might, perhaps, be copied with advantage in this country. Trains do not stop long at Vesoui, but "M. M. the travellers" are informed by plentiful advertisements that if they wish either to breakfast or dine they will find hot meals in baskets at the buffet. The meals are composed of three dishes, half a bottle of wine, bread, and desert. The passengers leave the empty basket and dishes half an hour later at the next station, and pay two francs fifty centimes, or about fifty cents in American currency, for their leisurely and comfortable repast. The number of cases of dyspepsia which would be avoided by the adoption of some such plan in this country can scarcely be computed. On through trains on a few of our railroads there are refreshment cars, which enable travellers to satisfy their appetites without frantic haste, but such institutions cannot always be made to "pay." On a few great lines, such as the Pennsylvania Central Railroad, ample time is given for meals, and every traveller who has stopped at Altoona remembers the fact with gratitude, but as a general thing the eating arrangements on most of our great routes of travel are wofully deficient.

ALBANY BRIDGE.

The bridging of the Hudson River between Albany and Greenbush is now a fixed fact. All the piers are completed, and the work on the superstructure is progressing rapidly. Its eastern approach is located about a quarter of a mile up the river from the Western Railroad Depot, and its western end is in the New York Central Railroad yard in Albany. When completed, cars of the Western, Hudson River and Harlem railroads will be enabled to form a direct connection with those of the Centraltrains, and those loaded with freight (and eventually passenger cars) will continue on to Buffalo and the Great West without breaking bulk.

SUEZ CANAL.

The Suez Canal was opened for traffic on the 17th August, and a vessel laden with coal passed from the Mediterranean to the Red Sea. May this be the precursor of a vast commerce, the re-awakening of the isthmus to civilization.

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

ADULTERATION OF WINES.

Sherry is probably the wine most in demand in England; but any dealer who knows his trade, and who is reasonably disposed to be honest, must frankly allow that we are far more indebted to Africa than to Spain for the wine that passes under the name of sherry. According to tolerably trustworthy authority, it is in proof that fully three fourths of the article sold in the country as sherry is really nothing more than common Cape wine, cleverly concocted to suit all tastes. The cost of Cape wine is low enough, as any one may easily ascertain,

but cheap as Cape wine is, we have heard of even a cheaper basis for the manufacture of a good saleable sherry. Cider, which sells sometimes at as low a price as sixpence a gallon, when the orchard produce has been very plentiful, has been found to answer admirably, in skillful hands, as a liquid out of which sherry may be made. To deprive the Cape wines and the cider of acidity, gray salt, potash and lime are used, and to clarify them, white of eggs, isinglass, or bullock's blood fresh from the slaughter house; indeed, for the very common sorts of wine, horses' blood is more frequently used. Body is given to the article by the use of Foster's neutral spirit—a perfectly colorless and strong spirit of wine. For the basis of port wine, the common red wine of Spain is extensively used; though latterly, since French wines have been admitted at a low duty, the commoner sorts of claret have been brought into use in the manufacturing process, clearness and body being attained by the same methods as are applied to the perfecting of sherry. Apparently, port wine is an article of consumption that must be doctored to suit the British palate, for even the very best, as imported direct from Portugal, has to be largely adulterated with brandy to make it saleable in English markets.

But it is in the flavoring and coloring of the different sorts of port and sherry that the greatest taste and skill are shown. Here, however, chemistry steps in to aid the wine merchant, and not only relieves him of the trouble of research, but takes all the drudgery of preparation off his hands. The initiated in London are aware of the visits of an individual at certain establishments, whose sole stock in trade consists of sundry not very large bottles, containing liquids of various colors. Morning or early forenoon is his time for doing business, and the transactions are generally for ready money, with few questions asked or answered. This is the dealer in essences, and the essences play an all important part in wine making. Essence of sloe-juice gives a dryness and color contained. Essence of black currants produces both body and richness of flavor—much esteemed in good port wines—and expressed juice of Orleans plums is found to answer the same purpose. A solution of tannin in spirits gives the requisite astringency and the true sherry flavor to inferior Cape wines, such as Capt. Wegg proposed to introduce into common use as "a good dinner sherry, at twelve shillings a dozen, bottles included." For the costlier brown sherries a very superior wine called Color, worth perhaps about a hundred pounds per butt, is sparingly used for the purpose of giving color; and in the commoner sorts, caramel, or burnt sugar effects the same object. Palm oil dissolved in spirits gives a rich golden color to sherry; and almond paste produces a fine nutty flavor, which flavor can also be obtained by the use of nitro-benzole—the latter article being largely used in flavoring cheap sherries. We will not pretend to say that we can name all the ingredients used in the "doctoring" of our drinks, for there may be mysteries within mysteries; but we know that in addition to the articles just mentioned, salt, common sugar, capsicums, grains of Paradise, sulphuric acid, cream of tartar, and glycerine play their parts in adding flavor, and in producing oiliness, crustiness and beads in the liquids we are asked to consume as port and sherry.

There could be no greater mistake than to suppose that adulteration is con-

fined to the wines most commonly consumed in England. We are not sure indeed but that the adulteration of champagne is carried to even a greater extent than the adulteration of port and sherry. It is only a short time since that a suit in the Court of Queen's Bench, arising out of a dispute in connection with some dock warrants, disclosed the fact that champagne that will fetch a guinea a bottle on the race-course, need not cost the retailer more than thirteen shillings a dozen. We are not in any great degree a champagne drinking people, yet a learned counsel, on the trial just alluded to, maintained that there is more of this particular wine consumed in England in one day, than is produced in all France in the course of twenty years. This is only another mode of telling us that we don't get the real article, but of course we all know that; yet it is made a point of honor in some countries to stand up for the genuineness of the champagne they consume. In the Pall Mall clubs it would be rank heresy to hint a doubt of the sparkling vintage. Russians will swear that out of the capital of the Czars on the Neva, you have but very little chance of ever tasting the genuine product of the champagne vineyards. In California, they are quite convinced that they have the very best of undoubted Moet and Chandon; while the New Yorkers would think a man mad who could dream of questioning the fact, that only real Veuve Clicquot is to be had at Delmonico's. All cannot be right in asserting that they alone have a monopoly of the drink so much in repute, though we think there can be no doubt that the Russian has the best chance of tasting the genuine article. It is stated on good authority that, with the exception of what is retained by the French court for its own use and for sending as presents to crowned heads, there is a standing agreement that all that is left of the celebrated Clicquot vintage shall be sent to the Russian Government. How the rest of the world is supplied with its champagne, only a small portion of the world really knows. Germany supplies a large portion of what is sold as the best champagne; and Moselle wine deprived of the peculiar flavor of the muscatel grape, from which it is made, constitutes an excellent sparkling drink, such as may very well satisfy those who have no chance of ever seeing a bottle of unimpeachable champagne decanted. But champagne may be made of almost any beverage that will ferment and effervesce, and, in fact, we rather fear it is made of any and every liquid that can be got to bubble and sparkle for the period demanded in the drinking of it. Sugar-candy, carbonate of soda, and the requisite colorings and flavorings, play their part in the sophisticating of the desiderated drink. From gooseberry, from mangel-wurtzel, and from rhubarb good champagne may be concocted; cider, perry, mead, maple syrup, and even spruce beer, have been used, and used largely in the manufacture. There is no occasion for the rhubard used in the making of champagne being fresh, for excellent judges have owned that they have been deceived with a wine of this description made from a very stale rhubard. If proper skill is displayed in the flavoring, and needful care bestowed upon the racking, we really do not see how the general public can be expected to judge accurately of what they are drinking, when connoisseurs are compelled to own that they are deceived. That tin-foil, pink tissue paper, and neat but showy labels, have much to do in recommending champagne, is a fact the dealer knows very well, if he does not acknowledge it. Let

an honest man try to vend race course champagne in ginger-beer bottles at a moderate profit on his outlay, and it is very doubtful indeed if he could persuade the public to give him more than the price of ginger-beer for it.

It is comforting to know, amid so many proofs of the false character of the wines in common consumption, that a really sound, true and wholesome wine may be had at prices far below the costly adulterations now patronized by the public. The best medical testimony concurs in telling us that no better beverage can be consumed than the light clarets of France, and France is prepared to supply us with an unlimited quantity of sound claret, at a price that almost precludes adulteration. The British public, it is true, has to reacquire its taste for this wine, but, judging by the rapid increase in the quantity imported since the treaty of commerce, we are not without hope that we shall one day change wine as as it is for wine as it ought to be.— *Chambers' Journal.*

OYSTERS.

It is apparently impossible to estimate the consumption of oysters in New York, many hundred thousands are eaten every week. The trade in this city of not only immense but exceedingly profitable to those engaged in it. The finest flavored bivalves are found here, and from this point are furnished a large proportion of those used in the Western States. A large part of the oysters consumed by our citizens are caught in Tappan bay, in the Hudson River, distance some thirty miles. These are caught when they are small and sold by the bushel. They are then planted in the numerous bayous in the neighborhood of this city and along the sound, left to grow and get fat for a year or two, when they are brought to market. The freshness or saltness of the oyster depends entirely upon the water in which it is planted, and any of the dealers can furnish a fresh or salt bivaly as required. Two objects are in view in transplanting the oyster; to have the different transplanting depots convenient to the local trade, and to improve the oysters planted in various waters which differ in form and regularity For instance, the East River oysters differ essentially from those grown in Tappan Bay, and the same is true of other varieties. The best oyster that comes to market are the Saddle Rocks. Years ago the supplies from this quarter were extensive, but now one large dealer could sell double what are brought to the city. Thousands of bushels are, however, planted in the neighborhood, where they grow hearty and fat. The Blue Point oysters is next best, and hardly inferior to the Saddle Rock. The locality from which these oysters are obtained is on the south coast of Long Island, and the trade is conducted by a fleet of thirty or more vessels. The Shrewsbury oyster is caught in Newark Bay, and transplanted in Shrewsbury River. There are very few natural growth oysters found now in that river, although the water is admirably adapted to the health of the bivalves. Then there is the Mill Pond, the Oyster Bay, and Lloyd's Harbor, the Norfolk, and Cold Springs, and an endless variety of other oysters daily brought to the market in this city. The trade in the Virginia business is constantly increasing, some seventy-five to one hundred vessels being employed in it. These vessels carry from 2,000 to 5,000 baskets, each containing 200 oysters. Unless the State of Virginia does something to prohibit people living

outside of that from gathering oysters, the business the coming season will be large, and prices materially cheapened. The Virginia oysters are brought to this city of various growths, and sold without transplanting. They are generally fresh oysters, and not to be compared in richness of flavor to those gathered and planted in this locality. The sea star, a fish in the shape of a star, gets its entire living by destroying the oyster, setting on the shell and sucking out the life. Latterly there have been attempts to ship oysters to Europe, and the plan is feasible, if oysters are carefully packed, say in November.

The business is this city is very profitable, both to the dealers, and their employes, the latter receiving from $15 to $30 per week for their labor. The price of oysters has been increasing for many months past, but if the supplies coming to hand do not fall off prices must decline.

SHIPOWNERS' CONVENTION—MEMORIAL TO SECRETARY McCULLOCH.

At a meeting of the Shipowners' Association of this city, Wednesday, Oct. 19th, among other business which came up was the question of the collection of freights upon goods in bond. The following memorial to the Secretary of the Treasury upon this subject was unanimously adopted:

To Hon. Hugh McCulloch, Secretary of the Treasury of the United States:

The memorial of the Shipowners' Association of New York respectfully shows: That your memorialists represent to a very large extent the shipowners of the port of New York, in reference to all matters affecting the general interests of commerce, and in their behalf respectfully solicit the aid of the Secretary of the Treasury in securing relief from the hardship caused by the operation of the existing revenue law and regulations, whereby the lien of the shipowners for freight upon goods imported into port is rendered ineffectual, and in many instances, is practically destroyed. The facts to which we invite the Secretary's attention are as follows: The lien of the shipowners for the freight carried on the voyage of importation—a lien recognized in every civilized community—necessarily depends for its validity upon his retaining possession of the goods. This he has a right to do until the lien is discharged by the payment of the freight. But the United States Government, through its revenue officers, for the purpose of securing the payment of duties on the same goods, sends them under "general orders" to the bonded warehouse, where they are held and delivered up to consignees on payment of duties and storage, irrespective of any question of freight. The goods are thus taken out of the possession of the shipowner by the supreme power before his lien is satisfied, and placed entirely beyond his control, and the possession being lost, the lien is also lost. It is true that the great majority of the consignees promptly pay their freight, without reference to the lien; but it is also true that in many instances irresponsible consignees avail themselves of the opportunity afforded by the law of getting their goods out of the public stores on payment of duties and charges only, and thereby evade paying the freight, which is thus wholly lost to the shipowner. The fact that the time when the goods may be withdrawn is uncertain, and the rapidity with which business is transacted, make it impracticable for shipowners to watch the delivery at the Bonded Warehouse, so as to intercept the goods, even if the lien could legally be reinstated by such a process.

Your memorialists submit that, inasmuch as the actual carriage from foreign countries to our own ports is the first step toward the raising of revenue by duties or imports, it is manifestly just and equitable that the carrier's lien for his freight, instead of being embarrassed and defeated by the Government, should rather receive its protection and aid.

In this view, and relying upon the justice and liberality which characterize the present administration of the Treasury Department, your memorialists request that the Hon. Secretary will, either by regulation, or by such recommendation or representation as may properly be made by him to Congress in aid of the passage of a law for this purpose, extend to the shipowners the much-needed relief which they require

as above set forth. An effectual remedy would be afforded if the freight due could be paid by the storekeeper on receipt of the goods in store, and added to his charges on the goods, to be collected before or on delivery. Or if notice were required to be given to the shipowner before the withdrawal of the goods by the consignee, so that his claim could be enforced, it being understood and declared that the act of Government in placing goods in store is not to affect the lien for freight. The object, in either case, being simply as a check upon dishonest or irresponsible consignees, and not an interruption to the ordinary course of trade, your memorialists believe that a Treasury regulation or act of Congress securing this result would be cheerfully acquiesced in by the entire commercial community.

NATIONAL LIFE AND TRAVELERS' INSURANCE COMPANY.

The business of insuring against accident has rapidly grown in favor the past few months. Many companies have sprung up during that time, making this kind of insurance a speciality; and if disasters on railroads and steamboats continue to increase, as during the year, there will, we doubt not, be enough for all of them to do. The National Life and Travelers' Insurance Company, of 243 Broadway, is one of these new organizations uniting, however, the ordinary life business. Its officers and board of directors are among our best men, and a sure guarantee of its thorough reliability. We see it issues general accident policies covering accidents of all description, as well as travelers insurance tickets, special marine risks, etc.

THE BOOK TRADE.

Report of the Council of Hygiene and Public Health of the Citizens' Association of New York, upon the Sanitary Condition of the City. Published with an Introductory Statement by order of the Council of the Citizens' Association. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 443 and 445 Broadway, 1865. p. p. 504.

This volume has received from the sanitary authorities of England and France, the most flattering notice. At the present moment, when the great pestilence of India, which for four years has been steadily advancing from the East to the western shores of Europe with more than former severity, threatens us with its visitation, a document purporting to give information of the unwholesome condition of large precincts in our largest city, must attract more than a cursory notice.

The Council of Hygiene, whose report is embraced in the volume before us, is constituted of sixteen regular allopathic physicians of acknowledged responsibility. It was organized in April, 1864, and in July instituted a rigid inspection of the sanitary condition of the city of New York. The island was divided into twenty nine districts, and a physician employed to each to examine the drainage, cleanliness of the streets, character of the houses, and their wholesomeness. On the 1st of December these inspectors presented a report of their observations, which is here given. We are not prepared to accept the conclusions of the Council that the rate of mortality in New York exceeds that of other great cities in this country and Europe; nor do we believe that it can be substantiated. But we know that there exists in many districts an extraordinary density of population, hundreds of persons inhabiting a single house, where "there exists an almost universal neglect of sanitary regulations; the streets, courts, and alleys

generally filthy, the gutters obstructed, and the sewerage faulty; while in the tenant-houses of such localities we found numerous cases of typhus, small-pox, and all varieties of pulmonary and infantile maladies, which can be perpetuated and rendered fatal by overcrowding, domestic uncleanness, and lack of ventilation. In such localities, however great the advantages of natural salubrity may have been, sickness is always very prevalent and diseases very fatal."

At the time that this report was made, small pox existed as an epidemic, and over 1,500 cases were discovered in a few days. Yet the city authorities took little notice of the fact; although it was made the subject of legislative inquiry. It has since almost disappeared.

The districts abounding with tenant-houses are noticed in detail. In December, 1864, there were 495,592 persons in New York residing in tenant-houses and cellars; the total number of tenant-houses was 15,309, and the average number of families to each of these houses exceeded seven, including the poor families that take boarders, keep lodgers, etc. These places are the chosen abodes of poverty and disease; and here, should the epidemic come, the population would be swept away as by a conflagration, leaving their corpses and disease as a heritage for their less impoverished fellow citizens. These houses have been built upon about 850 acres of land, making no account of streets; and including these, the total area allotted to these 15,309 tenant-houses, 111,000 families, and 480,368 persons composing them, is about two square miles. This is herding human beings together with a vengeance.

Many localities are witnessed where the drainage is fearfully defective, the filthiness indescribeable, and the general wretchedness almost surpassing belief. What remedy our civilization possesses adequate to these evils, what power or dispensation of reform exists with our municipal and other authorities, what hope there is that any attempt at amelioration will be made worthy of acknowledgement, we do not perceive. The Citizens' Association has labored efficiently to disclose the frightful state of facts; and for that should be gratefully regarded. Fortunately the human constitution is facile to accommodate itself to depressing conditions, and the breezes of the ocean quickly remove noxious emanations. But an examination of General Viele's map accompanying this report, and a perusal of its exciting statements, show beyond a quibble, that in the event of a visitation, the path of the cholera up and down the city of New York is indicated beyond the chance of mistake.

The Oil Regions of Pennsylvania. Showing where Petroleum is found; How it is obtained, and at what cost. With hints for whom it may concern. By WILLIAM WRIGHT. New York; HARPER & BROTHERS, 1865.

AN excursion to the Oil Regions of Pennsylvania will be taken next week by about two hundred capitalists and leading men of business from all the principal Northern cities. The party rendezvous at Meadville on Tuesday evening, the 17th inst., and the next morning begin their visit at the principal cities and towns now "flowing with rivers of oil,"—Corry, Titusville, Shafton, Pit HoleCity, Oil City, Reno, and Franklin, employing Wednesday and Thursday in the survey. The Committee of Arrangements are Messrs. Charles Vernon Culvert, of Franklin, J. T. Briggs, of Titusville, Joshua Douglas, of Meadville, J. J. Woodworth, of Plumer, J. J. Vandergrift, of Oil City. They promise to arrange everything

to afford a full and thorough view of the wonderful phenomena of the oil regions.

In connection with this excursion the book of Mr. Wright will be found valuable, proposing as it modestly does, to have given "Petrolia" a searching examination and a scathing review. The following are the contents of the work.

Chapter I. Physical Features of Geology of the Country.
" II. Appearance of the Country, the Character, Characteristics of the People.
" III. Hoisting and Sinking the Wells.
" IV. "Struck Oil,"—The Law of Lawlessness.
" V. Obstacles in the way—the Means used to overcome them.
" VI. Statistics of Production.
" VII. Oil Refining and Refineries.
" VIII. How Strangers are Taken In.
" IX. Ought I to invest in Petroleum, and How?
" X. Practical Considerations.

From this table it will be seen that the author has essayed to "do up" oil as it was never "done" before. Coming from several weeks of explorations amid the unctuous mud of Oil Creek he assures us with a somewhat unfortunate mode of using the English vernacular that "underneath a system of falsehood and fraud that might almost be termed *magnificent*, there is a great basis of fact, which needs to be presented in its true light, needs to be protected from the misrepresentations of its own pretended friends who would have ruined it long since, if it had not possessed genuine worth of a high order."

The oil region of Pennsylvania covers an area of about twenty miles square; being limited almost exclusively to the valley of the Alleghany river, and on a section of its northwestern slope. Mr. Wright is very full in his descriptions and explorations, giving an outline of the oil business, how it is carried on, its deceptiveness, etc., occasionally stating matters which excite some doubt. For example he remarks that the gas that is discharged at the well, which he calls "carbonetted hydrogen," upon being passed through a tube of paper surrounded with ice, has condensed into paraffine.

Again, after giving extensive statistics of production he sums them up in a recapitulation, of which the following is the aggregate: Number of wells in operation 322, average yield per day 27½ barrels; annual yield 3 900,000 barrels and over. This may be so, but if it is, the consumption in the country must be greater than we supposed. For instance, the total amount taken for consumption at New York, and exported from New York, Boston, etc., during 1863 and 1864 was as follows:

	1863.	1864.
Exported from New York, ...bbls.	488,690	533,394
" " Boston, ... "	51,235	42,307
" " Philadelphia..... "	134,893	194,003
" " Baltimore ..... "	22,896	23,248
" " Portland..... ..... "	8,552	1,769
Total exported bbls.....	706,266	794,722
Taken for consumption at New York.....	314,481	242,189
Total,.....	1,020,747	1,036,909

Thus we see that if the production is over four million bbls., as Mr. Wright has it, there are three million bbls. unaccounted for.

The modes of "taking in" strangers are pretty fully explained, but many of our readers, we apprehend, are already familiar with them. Our author advises

those proposing to invest, that they first obtain full and accurate information, that their investments be divided between several interests, and the stock be associated rather than "watered." This advice cannot be followed too closely.

Charter of the Northern Pacific Railroad Company. Organization Proceedings, By-Laws and Appendix, 1865.

The charter of the Northern Pacific Railroad, Public Act No. 186, was approved by President Lincoln, July 2d, 1864. It empowered the corporation to construct and maintain a continuous railroad and telegraph from Lake Superior to Puget Sound in the territory of Washington, with a branch to Portland in the State of Oregon; and granted for the purpose the right of way to a hundred feet on each side, and patents of land on the route to the amount of twenty sections per mile in the territories, and ten sections per mile in the states,—an aggregate of 47,360,000 acres.

The proposed line is known as General Stevens' Route, having been first suggested by the late General Isaac L. Stevens, when Governor of the territory of Washington. It possesses the advantage of being the shortest and the most central line for a Pacific Railroad. From the head of Lake Superior to Puget Sound its distance is about 1.760 miles. The mountain ranges are depressed and easily overcome. But little heavy grading or tunnelling, or trestle-work, is required: water, timber and stone are in ample quantities. The soil is fertile, and the mineral wealth,—gold, silver, platinum, quicksilver, copper and lead,—abundant. The county of the Red and Saskatchewan rivers, British Columbia and the Hudson Bay Company would find in this Road the outlet of their trade. The cost of construction is estimated at $120,000,000.

The Northern Pacific Railroad Company, organized in Boston, in September, 1864, and its directors are promoting the necessary work of obtaining subscriptions; two years being the limit specified for this purpose. The pamphlet before us contains the transactions; also, in the appendix, the report made by Hon. Mr. Aldrich of Minnesota to the House of Representatives in April 1860, in favor of this route. This document shows this line to be the shortest of any proposed to the Pacific coast; affording at once "greater proximity to Asia, shortest distance between water lines, greater proximity to Europe, it is the shortest and most direct route between Asia and Europe." It has the easiest gradients. "The sum of ascents and descents from St. Paul to Seattle (or Vancouver) is 21.787 feet against 29,387 on the Central, 48.791 on the 35th parallel, and 38 350 on the 32d parallel route." It touches Missouri river at the mouth of the Yellowstone, and near the Great Falls; and the Columbia at the head of steamboat navigation.

The objections on account of the severity of the climate, and the depth of the snow are utterly untenable. It is much colder on the Russian and Canada roads. The report says: "The snow is absolutely less on the northern than on the central route. It is notorious that it is small through the prairie region from Minnesota to the base of the Rocky Mountains; and the explorations (of Governor Stevens and others) have furnished significant and reliable information, removing entirely all doubt as to it being a serious difficulty in crossing either of the mountain ranges. In the Flathead country, and on the great plain of the Columbia there is less snow than in the prairie region east of the Rocky Mountains.

Indeed throughout the entire extent of the route, cattle and stock keep in good condition without fodder. The quantity of stock in the interior of Washington and Oregon, and east of the mountains which thrive and live solely upon the winter grass is very large."

The importance of this route for commercial purposes is argued with great force and cogency. It is not probable that a continental communication will be established through British America for a long series of years, if the United States provide for a railroad on this line. On the Pacific side, Oregon, Washington, Vancouver's Island and British Columbia are tributary to this route; and on the eastern side of the Rocky mountains, the basins of the St Lawrence, the upper Mississippi, upper Missouri, and the Red River of the North. More than half of the railroad capital of the country is directly concerned in its recognition.

The effect of this route on the commerce of the Pacific can hardly be exaggerated. Puget Sound is marked out by nature for a great commercial entrepot, and is the only point ever likely to rival San Francisco. This route will give it to the United States with all its grand elements of naval strength. Otherwise it will be occupied by Great Britain, which has a rapidly increasing commerce and a large naval station in those waters.

This route is the shortest between Asia and our interior, our Atlantic ports and Europe. This is shown by the following table on page 42d :

	To Seattle.	To S. Franc'co.	Diff'nce.
From Amoo	3,850	4,110	260
From Shanghae	5,140	5,480	340
From Canton	5,900	6,140	240
From Calcutta	8,730	8,970	240

The distance from St. Paul to Seattle, on Puget Sound, is 1,764 miles; whereas from St. Louis to Benicia it is 2,482 miles, and Memphis to San Francisco 2,366 miles. This is all important in the matter of securing the East India commerce.

The reader must determine for himself to what extent these arguments for the northern route are conclusive. They certainly assure the importance of securing the Asiatic commerce, amounting to hundreds of millions of dollars, to this country, whether we make Seattle, San Francisco, or even Panama our western entrepot for that purpose. Our own steamship lines ought to perform the carrying trade of the Pacific, and our railroads do the business of the continent.

CONTENTS OF NOVEMBER NUMBER.

ART.		PAGE
1.	Missouri Iron Region	389
2.	Mr. McCulloch on Our Finances	395
3.	Brazil—Its Population, Products, Commerce, etc	397
4.	Analyses of Railroad Reports. No. 2	749
5.	Statistics of English Life	359
6.	Finances of Minnesota	361
7.	Census of Chicago and Cook County, Illinois	364
8.	Commercial Law.—No. 27. Marine Insurance	366
9.	Commercial Chronicle and Review	373
10	Journal of Banking, Currency, and Finance	379
11.	Course of Gold, October, 1865	379
12.	The United States Debt	385
13.	Commercial and Industrial Statistics	388
14.	Journal of Insurance	389
15.	Federal, State and Municipal Finances	391
16.	Railway, Canal, and Telegraph Statistics	397
17.	Mercantile Miscellanies	399
18.	The Book Trade	404

THE

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE

AND

COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

DECEMBER, 1865.

WILL THE OLD STATE DEBTS OF THE SOUTH BE PAID?

A meeting has lately been held at London of the holders of Southern State bonds, and a committee has been appointed to look after their interests and take such action with regard to the matter as may be necessary.

It is not to be inferred from this action that the European holders anticipate repudiation. In fact it is difficult to conceive any reasonable grounds for doubting that the Southern States will ultimately keep good faith with their creditors. Were it simply a question of honor, there would certainly be no mistrust of the payment of the principal and interest upon all their obligations; for the Southern people have never, as a section, rendered themselves open to the charge of deliberate dishonesty toward their creditors: on the contrary, they have established an unquestioned reputation for financial integrity. The question then must be considered as centering simply in the ability of the States to maintain their burthens.

In the absence of any statistics showing the amount of debt owing by the respective states at the close of the war, it is impossible to ascertain what is the precise amount of their obligations. The only possible method of attaining a proximate estimate is to take the published returns for the periods next previous to the rebellion; from which it would appear that the aggregate obligations, absolute and contingent, for ten Southern States, including Tennessee, amounted then to $112,000,000. Since that period there has probably been no material change; for although small debts may have been paid off, yet new obligations have probably been incurred to an equal amount. President Johnson's formal announcement that State obligations created for the support of the insurrection cannot be recognized, leaves no question that the entire war debts of the Southern States must be repudiated. The debts contracted previous to the rebellion are, therefore, alone to be taken into account. It appears, from the latest reports previous to the war, that the indebtedness of the respective States was then as follows:

Date.			Amount.
1861—Alabama	Foreign	$3,445,000	
	Domestic	2,582,178	$6,027,178
1860—Arkansas	Principal and int		3,092,622
1858—Florida			383,000
1860—Georgia			2,670,750
1859—Louisiana	Absolute debt	7,000,000	
	Liab's for B'ks	10,023,903	17,023,903
1860—Mississippi	[Repudiated]		7,000,000
1860—N. Carolina			9,978,505
1860—S. Carolina	Absolute debt	3,691,574	
	Conting't "	3,000,000	
	U. S. Surplus Revenue	1,051,422	7,742,996
1860—Tennessee	Absolute debt	3,844,667	
	Conting't "	12,799,000	16,643,667
1859—Virginia	Absolute debt	30,190,316	
	Conting't "	11,280,000	41,470,316
Total debt			$112,032,937

To this aggregate must be added am unknown amount of arrears of interest, accumulted during the rebellion. Few of the States have been able to pay their interest during that time, so that it would not, perhaps, be far from the truth to estimate that $35,000,000 must be added to the above total on account of arrearages; which would make the present liabilities really about $145,000,000. To provide for the payment of this back interest, the States would have to borrow the amount, or issue bonds or scrip therefore; as it is not supposable that they are now in a condition to raise that sum by taxation, and at the same time to provide for the accruing interest. Nor is this all. Each State will find it necessary to borrow a considerable amount in order to repair damages to public property, and other losses incident to the war. Probably not less than $50,000,000 will be required for these purposes.

The question then really is, will these States be able to support an aggregate debt of $200.0000,000? It must be taken into account that they have to sustain their share of the federal burthens, amounting probably to an annual charge of $60,000,000. Estimating the average rate of interest upon the State debts at 6½ per cent, the annual interest charge would aggregate $13,000,000. This, added to the federal burthens, would make the annual total debt charges upon the ten States, say $73,000,000 per annum. Can these States support this enormous liability, equal to the whole expenditure of the United States before the war? The question is a serious one, yet we think there is no reason to doubt their ability to do so.

A majority of these states hold valuable assets, available as security for the payment of their debts. Immediately before war, six of the States above specified held assets as follows, consisting of stocks, bonds, school funds, and real property, viz:

Date.				Assets.
1860	Georgia			$5 527,057
1859	Louisiana			9,804,918
1860	North Carolina			7 663 140
1860	South Carolina			6,000 000
1860	Tennessee			3,744,847
1859	Virginia.	Producing property	10,057 540	
		Non-Producing property	25,299,930	35,357,470
Total assets				$68,167,452

Thus it appears that, before the war, about sixty per cent of the State debts was covered by assets. The value of these assets has doubtless been materially impaired by the war; but it is, perhaps, not unreasonable to assume that their depreciation will be but temporary.

It appears from the United States census, that in 1860 the aggregate value of real and personal essate in the ten States was $4,836,000,000. If, after a moderate period, the property represented by these figures will yield a product equal in value to that of 1860, then the basis of revenue in the South cannot be considered to have been permanently reduced. The collection of $73,000,000 of revenue as above estimated, would amount to an assessment of about 1½ per cent upon the wealth of the States specified, as it stood before the war, and as it may be estimated say two years hence, when recuperation will have made large progress.

In paying this the South has peculiar means for re-imbursing itself. It has a monopoly of its chief staples; so that no competition can prevent it from adding its taxes to the price of its cotton, naval stores, rice and tobacco. The Southern States are, therefore, in a position to throw their burthens upon the world-wide consumers of their export table products. This is no fanciful advantage: it is one which, from the natural laws of trade, must be realised in the future history of the South.

The ability of the South to sustain its burthens may be further judged by a comparison with the resources and liabilities of the other States. Assuming federal taxes of the remaining States to average $190,000,000 per annum, and the interest upon their State debts to be $18,000,000, we should have, as their total federal and State burdens, an aggregate of say $200,000,000. The census of 1860 gives the total wealth of these States at $11,322,000,000. Supposing the losses attending the war to have equalled the gains since 1860, and not reckoning as wealth the Federal and State debts created for war purposes, inasmuch as they represent so much wealth destroyed, it may be assumed that the present wealth of these States stands at about the same point as in 1860. The annual burden of $200,000,000, as above estimated, would amount to a fraction over 1¾ per cent upon the entire wealth of the country, exclusive of the ten States alluded to above. So that it appears that the Southern liabilities are less, in proportion to their resources, than those of the other States. Considering the richness of the agricultural resources of the South, and how indispensable its products are to the commerce of the world, it would appear that whatever proportion of burdens the other sections can carry, the Southern States can bear also.

Until the labor system of the South is recognized, and its banking and transportation facilities are recuperated, the Federal and State taxes will press upon them with much greater severity than upon the North; and, during that period, there may be considerable embarrassment and irregularity in the management of their State finances, so that forebearance on the part of all holding their obligations should be shown them. But these obstacles will be only of temporary duration. It will be a matter of much regret, if Southern statesmen, from taking a narrow view of their situation and prospects, exhibit any disposition to favor repudiaton of legal State obligations. It is only by showing an inflexible determination to meet existing liabilities that they will be enable to negotiate the further loans required for repairing the public losses through the war, and for placing

the State institutions in a condition of efficiency. Honesty toward public lic creditors; a firm faith in the commercial destiny of the South; a cheerful acceptance of the existing public situation; and a wise encouragement of negro labor, are the essential features of a policy which would enable the South ultimately to fulfill all its obligations, and to contract any new ones that may be deemed necessary to the public welfare.

ADVANTAGES OF THE LAKE SUPERIOR REGION FOR PRODUCING CHARCOAL IRON.

BY ROBERT H. LAMBORN, ESQ., M. D.

The proper development of the iron industry of the United States demands a steady and abundant supply of first-class charcoal metal, suitable for working into car-wheels, cannon, tires for locomotives, boiler-plate, and for the vast present and prospective requirements of the steel maker in the departments of cast steel, puddle steel, and, above all, for use in the Bessemer or Pneumatic converter. The relative quantity of charcoal to mineral coal iron produced in the United States has decreased with the increasing production of the vast anthracite furnaces of Eastern Pennsylvania, and with the discovery of pure bituminous coal in Ohio, while scores of charcoal furnaces, scattered through the Eastern States, have gone out of blast through the appreciation in value of timber lands, caused by the demand which has sprung up for fuel for other purposes through the building of ways of internal communication, and the demand for surface for agricultural use. These causes are, year by year, making the Eastern States less suitable for a large charcoal iron production. Where, therefore, are our manufacturers in the early future to look for their supply of this necessary raw material? England sends to Sweden, Norway, Russia and Nova Scotia for her best brands.

If we follow around the same northern isothermal zone in which these countries are located, we reach, upon our great lakes, a region designated by nature in the most extraordinary manner as our future domestic source of a vast amount of excellent charcoal iron; and it is with no desire to disparage the importance and value of the charcoal district of Northern New York, Connecticut, Northern New Jersey, and Central and Western Pennsylvania; that this article is written but rather with the hope of drawing the attention of the skillful iron-masters of those districts to a most promising field for enterprise, and for the exercise of their peculiar knowledge—a field already inviting development, and which must continue to increase in importance as long as the iron and steel industry of the United States continues to enlarge. The belt of country along the southern shore of Lake Superior, extending 40 to 60 miles into the States of Michigan and Wisconsin, is one of the richest mineral regions on the globe. A district producing copper on the north already sends to market annually some 16,000 tons of the metal; a region producing—with argentiferous galena and sulphide of copper—silver and gold, is in process of development southward of this copper belt; while from Lake Monistique in Schoolcraft county, to a point as far west, at least, as the Penokee iron range, 100 miles west of Ontanagon, are found immense deposits of iron ore of all varieties common in igneous rocks, magnetic oxide, red hæmatite,

brown hæmatite, as well as the water-formed bog ores. These first mentioned ores, where developed, occur in vast beds adjoining hornblendic dykes, and in chloritic slates, and they exist in such quantities that they may be considered as practically inexhaustible.

One-eighth of all the iron now made in the entire United States is dug from the mines of Marquette county, and yet, ten years ago, a piece of Lake Superior ore was a curiosity to most of our practical metallurgists. With the completion of the Sault Ste. Marie Canal, which was opened ten years ago, the projects for developing the iron ore trade assumed a definite shape. The few tons of mineral that had been carted around the portage at the mouth of the lake had proven its value, and the first year saw its 1,445 tons sent below for smelting.

The enlargement of the trade has been steady and rapid, as the following statement will show :

In 1855	1,445	tons were	exported.
" 1856	11,594	"	"
" 1857	26,184	"	"
" 1858	31,135	"	"
" 1859	65,679	"	"
" 1860	116,948	"	"
" 1861	45,430	"	"
" 1862	115,720	"	"
" 1863	185,275	"	"
" 1864	235,123	"	"

Making a total of 834,534 tons, which, assuming the ore to yield an average of sixty per cent. (the standard desired by the shippers is a yield of 66 2 3 per cent. in the furnace,) would give 500,750 tons cast iron. The development of the manufacture of pig from charcoal, in the county of Marquette, has been even more remarkable, as the difficulties to be encountered in building large structures, erecting new machinery, and collecting necessary labor in a dissant and hyperborean region, are numerous and serious.

The earliest iron made was produced directly from the ore in what is known as the Catalan Forge. This manufacture was commenced in 1847 by Everett & Jackson, at the Jackson Forge. After it followed the Marquette Forge, then the Collinsville Forge, and lastly the Forestville Forge, all in the same vicinity, near Marquette. They made iron with more or less success for a few years, but are now in ruins, or so greatly dilapidated that much time would be required to repair them.

The production of pig iron from charcoal commenced at the Pioneer Works, near the Jackson Mine, in 1858; 1,627 tons were sent to market that year. This manufacture has increased by the erection of new furnaces, until at present the Pioneer, the Collinsville, the Forestville, the Morgan, the Northern, and the Greenwood Furnaces are in activity. The progress of the trade has been as follows :

In 1858	1,627	tons were	exported.
" 1859	7,258	"	"
" 1860	5,060	"	"
" 1861	7,970	"	"

In 1862	8,590	tons	were exported.
" 1863	8,908	"	"
" 1864	13,832	"	"

Up to the end of 1864, therefore, 53,845 tons of pig iron had been sent to market from Marquette County. By comparing the production of this region with that of other iron districts, it will be found that it produced in 1864 more pig metal than Connecticut or Massachussets in the same year, and sixty per cent. more than New York in 1850. Reckoning ore and metal together, the mines of Marquette threw into consumption in 1864, 154,905 tons of metal, or three-fifths as much as the total pig iron production of the United States, according to the census returns of 1850, and as above stated, one-eighth of all the pig iron produced by the United States in 1864.

Regarding the method and cost of mining and smelting in this new and isolated region, a few facts will, I am sure, be welcome to our Eastern makers as well as to that numerous class of Western iron masters who only know the district through the thousands of tons of rich and pure ore that reach their furnaces from within its limits. I shall not pause to discuss the interesting geological features of the country surrounding the iron beds, nor the no less interesting points connected with the genesis of the ore itself, but will proceed at once to a consideration of the economic features of the mining and export of the merchantable mineral. The Jackson Company which exported last year 70,937 tons; the Cleveland Company, which exported 53,838 tons, and the Lake Superior Company, which exported 83,848 tons, are the three principal companies now in operation. The Pittsburgh and Lake Angeline, the New York, the Parsons, and the Marquette Mines have sent more or less ore to market, while a dozen others are in process of development. They are all situated in what is known as the Azoic range, and those first mentioned are between fourteen and seventeen miles from the harbor of Marquette.

The total quantity of ore already extracted, chiefly from the three first mines, is not less than 925,000 tons, though nothing but "surface" or "patch work" has yet been done; all the mineral has been quarried from shallow openings in the sides of the iron hills; no pumping machinery has yet been erected, and only recently adits for drainage been begun. The surface rock indicates in many points that but a portion of the most easily obtainable ore has been quarried, and it is safe to estimate that several millions of tons are proven to exist in the three or four oldest mines, with every likelihood of vast quantities in the beds below water level. In addition to this are hundreds of localities where iron is known to exist in a belt of thirty miles in length, and at more than a dozen localities companies have been formed or mines commenced. Great skill is not necessary in working these quarries. The operation consists in blasting from a ledge of ore large masses, which are subsequently broken into fragments by other blasts, by the sledge or, sometimes, in the most refractory cases, by means of a fire of huge logs.

At the Jackson Mine, a hole 18 feet in depth an two inches in diameter, loaded with powder and exploaded last March, brought down 4,000 tons of ore. The holes are all bored with good steel drills, managed by two strikers and one turner. The fragments of ore are loaded into one horse carts, hauled a few hundred feet to the railroad, thrown into six ton

four-wheel cars, and carried to the wharfs at Marquette, where they are unloaded into pockets or hoppers. shoots, and thence into the vessels that transport them to the furnace on the lower lakes; or are transferred by wheelbarrow from the hoppers to the vessel or steamboats. The laborers at the mines receive $2 per day, work ten hours, and pay $20 per month for their board. The average product of each laborer—including all whose names are on the pay-roll—miners, drivers, trackmen, repairers, &c—is 2 to 2½ tons of ore per day per man. In some cases an average of five tons per day per man has been taken out by a small gang. Ninety one cents per ton freight is paid on the railroad to Marquette, and the price of ore on the vessels is now $5 per ton.

The mines are generally worked by the companies owning them. One exceptional company leases its mine for twenty years, paying 20 cents per ton royalty, and contracting to take out 10,000 tons per year. Two means of transport to water communication are now offered to the mines of this region—one 14 to 17 miles long to Marquette, by the Marquette and Bay des Nouquettes Railroad; the other from 62 to 65 miles long, by the way of the new Peninsula Road, which has just been completed for the purpose of carrying ore to Escanaba, on Little Bay de Nouquettes, an inlet at the head of Green Bay. The cost of freight on this route is $1.50 per ton from the mines to the vessel, and it reaches a harbor on the lakes, which is said to be open four weeks longer than that of Marquette, and is so much nearer the lower ports that ore may be shipped at, it is thought, $1 per ton cheaper than by the Marquette route, the saving being in time, in tolls, and in towage passing through the Sault St. Marie Canal.

No ore had yet been shipped by this route, but several hundred tons were, at the time of my visit, awaiting the arrival of a vessel.* The shipping arrangements here are of the most excellent character. Some 20,000 tons may be stored in the pockets, and it is claimed that a vessel may be loaded in one hour after reaching port. Ships drawing 14 feet of water may lay under the shoots, while the Sault Canal carries only 10 to 11 feet of water, which restricts the trade of Lake Superior to vessels below a certain tonnage, The freight from Marquette to Cleveland is $3 per ton; thence to Pittsburg $2 to $2.50; so that ore may be laid down at the great iron manufacturing city of the Union at from $10 to $11 per ton. The lowest rates which have prevailed, I am informed by my friend H. B. Tuttle, of Cleveland, were those of 1861, when ore could be placed in Pittsburg at $7 per ton, as follows: cost at Marquette $2.50; freight to Cleveland $2; freight thence to Pittsburg $2; insurance, commission, &c, 50 cents; total $7.

In the manufacture of pig iron, we find in Marquette County the metallurgic traditions and customs of New-England predominating. The iron workers have migrated westward as nearly as possible on the line of their own parallel of latitude. Pennsylvania has comparatively few representatives either among those who furnish capital, or those who furnish skill. The furnaces are all charcoal, driven in some cases by water, which is abundant, and can be used during the severest winter—and in some cases by steam—taking the gas from the furnace for fuel. The blast is driven

* A heavy business is now being done, the railroad having in operation upwards of 400 iron ore cars.

in at two pounds pressure per square inch, and at a temperature of 620 deg. Fah. The charcoal is made almost entirely in kilns 25 to 30 feet in diameter, and 25 feet to 30 feet high, shaped like a straw beehive, and capable of burning 30 to 40 cords in seventeen days. Twenty to twenty-five of these kilns are required for each furnace, and they are scattered through the forest in the neighborhood of the heavy timber. Maple and birch with some hemlock, are the woods charred—2¼ cords are found to produce 100 bushels.

The long winters, with their five consecutive months of snow, during which charring in pits is attended with many difficulties, render this plan the most expedient. Charcoal is now being delivered at the furnace at 11c. per bushel by contract. The flux used is a limestone found near the railroad, and which does not cost over 35c. per ton of iron. The ore produces from 55 to 65 per cent., a soft hæmatite from the Jackson mine being the favorite mineral of all the smelters. It requires 125 bushels of charcoal to reduce one ton of iron, and the furnaces produce from 10 to 18 tons in 24 hours. The cost of making iron is now about $30 per ton; but it is asserted that under the most favorable circumstances iron has been made at $14 per ton, and contracts have been entered upon for its manufacture by furnace owners with their managers at $16 50 per ton, delivered on board at Marquette. The foregoing facts will enable any one familiar with the iron business to judge the relative advantages of the region under discussion as a locality for the production of pig iron.

The future of the manufacturer is encouraging; and in case the internal revenue taxes, joined with an inadequate tariff, do not force the business across the Atlantic, it will develop even more rapidly in the future than in the past. Land, from which may be cut an average of 50 cords of wood per acre, may be bought at from $2 50 to $4 per acre in hundreds of places along the shores of the lakes. We have seen that there are already two competing lines of railway leading from the mines to the lakes. The lakes are free to all navigators who may desire to carry ore, and in five years there will be from 12 to 15 mining companies competing for the market. This combination of circumstances will secure the delivery of ores at any point on the shore of the lakes that may be selected, at rates most advantageous to the manufacturer, while the various increasing uses for charcoal iron will always cause an ample demand for the product of furnaces.

The iron trade is now oppressed by such a combination of imposts on metal of foreign and domestic production that the future seems glowing enough for every one connected with the business; but if we could hope from our government for one-half the care and protection given by England to her manufactures of iron and steel, during a period one-half as long as was necessary to develope her works properly, results of an extraordinary character would ensue. A careful study of the vast natural resources of Michigan, Wisconsin, Missouri, Indiana, Ohio and Pennsylvania, and a comparison with the iron-making facilities of Great Britain, show that we would be able to supply our home consumption at rates unprecedentedly low, and at the same time sell our iron and steel in all the markets of the world—even to the artisans of Birmingham, Wolverhampton and Sheffield.

FRANKLIN EXPEDITION.

HALL'S SEARCH FOR THE SURVIVORS.

FRANKLIN was a lieutenant in the first expedition sent out by the British Government, in 1818, with a view to discover a northwest passage. It was unsuccessful.

In 1823, four expeditions for the same purpose were fitted out. One of these was commanded by FRANKLIN. He descended Mackenzie river, and explored many miles of coast, but failed to form a junction with the other parties.

Then Capt. Ross sailed into Prince Regent's Inlet, explored considerable new coast, and discovered the magnetic pole in 1829.

SIR JOHN FRANKLIN, then the most experienced of the Arctic explorers, but far advanced in life, was put in command of the Erebus and Terror in the year 1845. They were last seen in July of that year about the centre of Baffin's Bay. From the last record made by the party returned to the Admiralty, we learn they ascended Wellington channel to 77° north, and returned by the west side of Cornwallis Island. In 1846–7 they wintered in the ice. The record contains the sad sentence, "SIR JOHN FRANKLIN died 11th June, 1847." Next year, one of the ships having been crushed in the ice, both were abandoned, and the crews, Capt. F. R. M. CROZIER in command, landed on King William's Land. In the attempt to walk to Montreal Island, more than 200 miles distant, they failed, and all traces of them vanished, until their boat, on a sledge, was discovered by Lieut. HOBSON, of Capt. MCCLINTOCK'S expedition, in April, 1858. In the boat were found the skeletons of several of these men, two guns, watches, clothing, ammunition, &c.

The latter expedition was fitted out by Lady Franklin, the British Government having sacrificed many valuable lives and more than 2,000,000*l* in the attempt to rescue the survivors of the unfortunate expedition, and having abandoned all hope of their rescue, struck their names from the Admiralty rolls. Further search seemed hopeless. But by the humanity, enterprise and energy of our citizens, another effort was to be made, which has been crowned with important results.

Mr. CHARLES T. HALL, of Cincinnati, a man of intelligence, sanguinary temperament and generous impulses, determined to solve the yet unsettled mystery connected with the lost FRANKLIN EXPEDITION. Aided by numerous friends at home and by MR. HENRY GRINNELL, of New York, and others, he sailed for the Arctic shores May 29, 1860, to ascertain, if practicable, whether a portion of FRANKLIN'S men, numbering 105 persons, known to have been living in April, 1848, were still alive, or if they had perished, to ascertain their fate.

He arrived late in September and found the temperature so much higher than he anticipated that he was eager to pursue his researches at once, but the Esquimaux advised him to remain until the following spring. He wisely took their counsel and occupied himself with acquiring the Innuit or Esquimaux language, which ultimately proved to be of the utmost importance to him. By adapting himself to their manners and customs he became a great favorite with them.

Frobisher's Straits, he ascertained, were no straits, but a deep bay, and

he passed entirely around it. The head of this bay he named Greenwood's Land, in honor of Mr. M. Greenwood, a fellow townsman. Notwithstanding the high latitude and hyperborean surroundings Mr. Hall calls it "a beautiful and fertile district." Here he found a large and interesting mountain of fossils which furnished him material for a long scientific article on that abstruse subject. That brave old navigator, Sir Martin Frobisher, discovered this bay during the reign of Queen Elizabeth. Mr. Hall found many relics left by Frobisher, nearly three hundred years since, such as iron, lead, sea coal, bricks, etc. An aged Innuit woman, Ockijoxy Ninoo by name, gave him a traditionary history of Sir Martin's three voyages thither. This greatly encouraged him to prosecute his search for the survivors of Franklin's men. He remarks: "The information thus obtained seemed so clearly to bear upon Frobisher's Expedition that I determined, as soon as I could, to visit Niountilike, and ascertain all about the matter. I thought to myself, if such facts concerning an expedition which had been made nearly three hundred years ago can be possessed by the natives, and evidence of these facts obtained, what may not be gleaned of Sir John Franklin's expedition *only sixteen years ago?* The singular fate of La Perouse and his expedition was unknown to the civilized world for thirty-eight years, and then brought to light only by the exertions of one individual Capt. Dillon, an English master of a merchant ship! Here too we have the first intimation of the fate of Frobisher's five men, after being shrowded in mystery for two hundred and eighty-five years—all but determined by personal inquiry among the natives! Why not, then, be able to ascertain from the same natives—that is, of the same Innuit race—all those particulars so interesting, and many of them so important to science, concerning the lost Polar expedition? I was now convinced more than I had ever been that the whole mystery of their fate could have been, and may yet be, easily determined, with even the smallest well directed aid. At all events, I felt that while life and health should be spared me, I would devote myself to the undertaking."

Mr. Hall now prosecuted his researches with great energy. During the winter with the natives, he had become acclimatized and fully prepared for the fatigues and hardships of further explorations which awaited him. A whaleboat was procured from the bark George Henry, and a crew of six native men and women engaged to accompany him. On these expeditions the Innuits take their families with them, and the females pull an oar with the males. Dogs accompanied them, and several native boats were taken with them, for the purpose of hunting and fishing.

In these high latitudes he found the preservation of life much less difficult than is generally supposed, the coarse animal food upon which the natives subsist being rendered palatable by the sharpness of appetite engendered by the keen atmosphere of that frigid climate, and the snow, and in houses of the natives being exceedingly light and comfortable. They are erected in an incredibly short time, as will be seen by the following extract from Mr. Hall's Arctic Researches: "We came to an igloo out on the ice, which had evidently been erected and occupied the night before by Ugarng and his party. Here we would have stopped, but as the igloo was too small for us we went on another mile, and there finding good material for building a snow house, we encamped at 5 P. M.

Ebierbing and Koodloo at once commenced sawing out snow blocks, while I carried them to a suitable spot for erecting the igloo, which it took us one hour to make. And a right good one it was, as I soon found. The door sealed up, and the cheerful lamp in full blaze, with a hot supper preparing, made me feel remarkably comfortable, though in a snow house, built so speedily upon the frozen surface of the treacherous ocean." These igloos look much like the ancient bake ovens which were common in the country forty or fifty years since. A village of these hemispherical structures has a very odd and monotonous appearance.

His outfit for a trip, with three natives in company, he describes as follows: "One and a half pounds preserved boiled mutton, in cans; 3 pounds raw salt pork; 15 cakes (4 pounds) sea bread; one-fourth of a pound of pepper; 2 pounds ground coffee; 1 quart molasses; 1 quart corn meal, and 3 pounds Cincinnati cracklings for soup. Then for bedding, 1 double wool blanket; 1 sleeping bag; 1 cloak; 1 shawl for bed covering. For clothing, beside my native dress, I took 1 extra under shirt, 1 woolen shirt, 2 pairs extra stockings, 1 pair extra pantaloons, 2 towels, 2 pairs mittens. My books were Bowdin's Navigator, Burrett's Geography and Atlas of the Heavens, Gillespie's Land Surveying, Nautical Almanac for 1861, a bible, "Daily Food." My instruments were one telescope, one pocket sextant, one self registering thermometer, two nautic compasses, one marine glass. I had also a rifle and ammunition, oil for lamp, and a hand saw, besides paper, ink, pens, memorandum, and journal book.

The race of people whom we denominate Esquimaux, are in their own language called *In-nu-it*, that is, "the people." *In-nu* in the singular number signifies man; in the plural Innuit people, the people, or (as they understand it) "our people," as contradistinguished from foreigners. The name Esquimaux is entirely foreign, and not to be interpreted from any elements hitherto found in their language.

After much hardship, toil, and suffering, Mr. HALL returned from that inhospitable climate September 13, 1862, having been absent two years three and a-half months. He devoted all his leisure hours to writing a most interesting volume entitled "Arctic Researches and Life amongst the Esquimaux," published by the Harpers, 1865, one large 8vo volume, 595 pages, and handsomely illustrated. It gives us the most reliable and exact picture of Esquimaux life and manners ever written, and is a work highly creditable to the writer, unskilled as he is in authorcraft.

But he felt he had a mission to fill, and before the book was through the press he had again embarked for the Arctic regions, and the preface of his book was written on board the bark Monticello, June 30, 1864.

Within a few days Mr GRINNELL has received a dispatch from him, in which he says, "Capt. CROZIER and three men have been seen. He was reduced to a skeleton and nearly starved to death, while the men were fat, they having lived on human flesh, the flesh of their companions who all deserted the two ships that were surrounded by mountains of ice. CROZIER would not eat human flesh. The natives finding the party, at once took them in charge, and catching a seal fed CROZIER sparingly day by day until his life was saved. They thus cared for the men through the winter, during which one of them died. The survivors were then taken to Neitheille, in Boothia Felix Peninsula, where there were many Innuits. Having guns and plenty of ammunition they were enabled to shoot ducks,

nowicers, &c. The natives treated them kindly. At length they started for the Kebunnas country, since which they have not been seen. All this was previous to 1854, but the Innuits insist that CROZIER and his companions are not dead."

In another recent dispatch he says:

"Although on the very threshold of that portion of the country where so much of interest transpired connected with Sir JOHN FRANKLIN'S expedition, you will find by my journals that I have acquired from the natives, among whom we have wintered, very much of most valuable information about that expedition and its termination. I think you will feel, as you read that information, as written down in my journal at the time it was communicated, that you and I are a hundred fold repaid for all our anxieties, trouble, and expense in accomplishing so much. I think I will succeed in doing all my work on King William's Land and Boothia Felix Peninsula by the end of the winter of 1866-67. I would like to have you secure an interview with Captain C, and see if he cannot be furnished with a schooner to come up after me and two companions next year to Repulse Bay, so as to return fall of 1867. A part of the next winter, the whole of the summer of 1866, and nearly all the winter of 1866-67 will (D. V.) be spent on King William's Land and Boothia Felix Peninsula, and in the spring of 1867 shall make our return to Repulse Bay.

In his perilous efforts to rescue his fellow men from a long absence from their homes, attended with untold privations and suffering, Mr. HALL has the good wishes and prayers of the civilized world. May he meet with success. He has deserved it.

BRITISH COAL AND IRON.

WE give below the official results of the British coal and iron year of 1864. They are truly wonderful. We see our product multiplied by five, for such is the proportion in which we sink second to our British competitors. Within the last five years they have increased their production of coal more than our present total product—from 71,979,765 tons in 1859, to 92,787,863 tons in 1864, or 20,808,098 tons. Our own product in the same year was only 16,355,316 tons. The same may be said of the iron products of the two countries. The tables give the full statistics of the coal and iron ore products, and the manufacture of pig iron.

COAL.—The total number of collieries in the United Kingdom is 3,268, being an increase of 108 as compared with the preceeding year. The quantity of coal raised in 1864 is stated to be 92,787,873 tons, which is an advance upon the quantity last year of nearly 5½ millions of tons. In 1861 Mr. Hunt estimated the quantity used and sold at 83,635,214 tons; in 1862, in consequence of the interruption to which some branches of manufactures had been subjected, it fell to 81,638,338 tons; in 1863 it again rose to 86,292,215 tons; and last year it reached 92,787,873 tons. The number of collieries and the quantity of coal raised during the eleven years ending December, 1863 are as follows:

Year.	No. of collieries.	Tons coal raised.	Year.	No. of collieries.	Tons coal raised.
1854.....	2,897	64,661,401	1860.....	3,009	84,042,698
1855.....	2,813	64,453,079	1861.....	3,952	83,635,214
1856.....	2,829	66,645,450	1862.....	3,088	81,638,338
1857.....	2,867	65,894,707	1863.....	3,160	86,262,315
1858	2,958	65,008,549	1864	3,268	92,787,863
1859.....	2,949	71,979,765			

The number of collieries and the quantity of coal raised in each of the several districts are given as follows:

District.	No. of collieries.	Tons coal raised.	District.	No of collieries.	Tons coal raised.
Durham and Northumberland	289	23,248,367	Lancashire..... ..	379	11,530,000
Cumberland.....	30	1,381,795	Cheshire	39	822,750
Yorkshire..... ..	422	8,809,600	Shropshire.....	66	1,150,000
Derbyshire.....	154	4,470,750	Gloucester, Somersetshire, & Devonshire.	133	1,950,000
Nottinghamshire	21	796,700	Monmouthshire.... ..	85	4,028,500
Leicestershire.....	10	890,500	South Wales.....	333	6,948,000
Warwickshire.....	16	754,000	North "	81	1,987,000
Staffordshire and Worcestershire.....	640	11,459,851	Scotland..... ...	497	12,400,000
			Ireland...	73	125,000
Total.....				3,268	92,787,878

The following table shows the increase in the number of collieries since 1861:

Counties.	1861.	'62.	'63.	'64.	Counties.	1861.	'62.	'63.	'64.
ENGLAND.					Pembrokeshire. ..	21	21	21	25
Durham & Northumberland.....	271	279	312	389	Caermarthenshire .	88	87	92	86
Cumberland.....	28	28	32	30	Glamorganshire ..	215	233	210	
Cheshire.....	39	39	39	39	di to & Monmouthshire	294	93	90	91
Lancashire.....	373	379	379	379	Flintshire.....	38	41	41	40
Yorkshire..	297	418	415	422	Denbighshire.....	35	31	36	36
Derbyshire.....	158	155	154	154	Anglesea	5	5	5	5
Leicestershire	11	10	10	10	SCOTLAND—				
Warwickshire . ..	16	16	17	16	Lanarkshire.....	169	184	190	202
Nottinghamshire..	22	21	20	21	Ayrshire.....	90	91	96	101
North Staffordshire	128	114	117	117	Fifeshire..	44	46	48	49
South Staffordshire and Worcestershire.....	452	457	465	523	Clackmannan.....	9	8	8	8
					Haddingtonshire...	12	13	14	14
Shropshire.....	66	65	66	66	Edinburghshire...	15	17	16	16
Gloucestershire and Somersetshire...	111	117	119	131	Linlithgrowshire..	17	17	28	20
					Stirlingshire	39	41	46	48
Devonshire..... ..	2	2	2	2	Dumbartonshire ..	14	13	16	17
WALES—					Other Counties. ..	15	18	18	22
					Ir land	46	46	40	73
Total						3025	3088	3180	3268

IRON ORE PRODUCE.—The following summary is as closely correct as it is possible to obtain it; and, together with the details which follow, represent very closely the value of the iron ores raised in the United Kingdom. It must be understood, however, that this summary gives the total returns received. It has not been possible in all cases to separate the calcined from the uncalcined ore. Could this have been done, the quantity of raw ore would have been somewhat increased:

	Quantities. Tons. Cwts.	Value. £ s. d.
Cornwall.....	84,210 06	12,863 10 9
Devonshire, ..	11,068 00	5,271 10 9
Devonshire, ..	52,925 04	26,668 12 0
Gloucest'rshire	141,843 00	63,830 8 0
Wiltshire,....	79,918 05	31,967 2 0
Hampshire, ..	5,100 00	2,335 0 0
Oxfordshire,..	6,666 00	2,666 8 0
Northamton-shire, ...	335,787 00	84,761 5 0
Lincolnshire,..	74,619 07	17,970 0 0
Shropshire....	254,590 00	64,209 0 0
Warwickshire.	15,750 00	2,937 10 0
Staffordshire, North.....	582,750 00	174,487 10 0
Staffordshire, South,.....	948,500 00	280,550 0 0
Derbyshire,...	325,600 00	81,400 0 0
Yorkshire, N. Riding. ..	2401,890 14	698,242 19 0
Yorkshire, W. Riding	555,000 00	113,750 0 0
Lancashire, ..	691,421 15	345,710 6 6
Cumberland, .	983,667 00	529,690 5 0
Northumberland & Dur.	175,500 00	52,650 0 0
Wales, North.	29,127 00	9,835 12 6
" South .	468,365 05	185,360 17 1
Scotland.....1	950,000 00	650,650 0 0
Ireland, ...	60,602 00	20,226 0 0
Total, ...10	064,890 16	3,367,144 16 1

Pig Iron Manufacture.—The total quantity of iron ore raised in the United Kingdom, as shown in the preceding returns, amounted to 10,064,890 tons; value, £3,367,144.

The number of furnaces in blast was 612¾. These produced of pig iron in England, 2,620,472; Wales, 988,729; Scotland, 1,158,750; total, 4,607,951.

This quantity, estimated at the mean average cost of production, would have the value of £11,919,877.

SUMMARY OF PIG IRON PRODUCED IN 1864.

	Iron Wks.	Furn. built.	Fur. in blast.	Tons Pig Iron.
ENGLAND.				
Northumberland.	8	17	7	55,467
Durham,... ...	19	62	42	466,980
Yorkshire, N. Rid.	13	47	41	409,106
" W. Rid.	12	35	25	112,098
Derbyshire, ...	17	43	31	174,743
Lancashire	4	15	13½	195,460
Cumberland.....	4	16	11	141,033
Shropshire	12	30	22¾	130,666
N. Staffordshire..	9	35	25	217,996
S. do. & Worcestershire	68	172	104½	628,793
Northamptonsh'e	2	4	3	22,823
Lincolnshire	2	11	6	
Gloucestershire..	4	9	6	
Wiltshire	1	3	3	65,312
Somersetshire ..	2	3	1	
Total.....178	502	340¼	2,620,472	
NORTH WALES.				
Denbighshire.....	9	14	8	51,108
SOUTH WALES.				
Anthracite distr't	8	29	9	26,365
Glamorganshire, Bitu's	17	82	62	461,822
Brecknockshire, Bitu's	4	17	10	34,260
Monmouthshire, Bitu's	15	69	50	415,174
Total	52	211	141	988,729
SCOTLAND.				
Ayrshire.....	8	43	34	
Lanarkshire.....	14	101	81	
Fifeshire.....	3	12	6	
Linlithgowshire..	1	4	3	
Stirlingshire.....	2	7	6	
Clackmannonsh'e	1	1	0	
Haddingtonshire.	1	1	1	
Argyleshire.....	1	1	0	
Total.....	31	170	131	1,158,750
Grand Total....261	883	612¾	4,607,951	

COMMERCIAL LAW.—NO. 28.

MARINE INSURANCE.

(Continued from page 373, vol. 53.)

REPRESENTATION AND CONCEALMENT.

If there be an affirmation or denial of any fact, or an allegation which would lead the mind to that conclusion, whether made orally or in writing or by exhibition of any written or printed paper, or by a mere inference from the words of the policy, or at the making, and the same be false, and tends to procure for him who makes it the bargain, or some advantage in the bargain, it is a *misrepresentation.* And it is the same thing, whether it refers to a subject concerning which some representations were necessary, or otherwise.

Concealment is the suppression of a fact not known to the other party, referring to the pending bargain, and material thereto; and the effect of it is not removed by a result which shows that the circumstances to which it refers do not enter into the risk.

A misrepresentation or a concealment discharges the insurers. To have this effect, it must continue until the risk begins, and then be material.

It is no defence, that it arose from inadvertence or misapprehension, because the legal obligation of a full and true statement is absolute; nor that the insurers were not influenced by it, if it were wilfully made with intention to deceive.

If it be in its nature temporary, and begins after the risk begins, and ends before a loss happens, the insurers are not discharged. And if it relate to an entirely several subject matter of insurance, as the goods only, and has no effect upon the risk as to the rest, as the ship, for example, it discharges the insurers only as to that part. Ignorance is never an excuse, if it be wilful and intentional. If one says only he believes so and so, the fact of his belief in good faith is sufficient for him. But if he says that is true of which he does not know whether it be true or false, and it is actually false, it is the same misrepresentation as if he knew it to be false. If a statement relate to the future, a future compliance or fulfilment is necessary.

Any statement in reply to a distinct inquiry will be deemed material; because the question implies that the insurer deems it material. On the other hand, the insured is not bound to communicate any mere expectation or hope or fear; but only all the facts material to the risk.

If the concealment or misrepresentation by the insured arose from the master's concealment from his owner, it seems to be the law in this country that the insurers are not discharged. If the insured state honestly that he is informed so and so, giving his authorities, this is no misrepresentation, although he is misinformed. But generally the insured who procures insurance through an agent is liable for that agent's concealment or misrepresentation, although unknown or unauthorized by him.

If one who is insured proposes to another insurer a second insurance on the same policy, on the same terms expressly or impliedly, and the first is founded on concealment or misrepresentation, this taint extends to and annuls the second.

A premium much lower than would be proper for a certain risk, if certain facts were disclosed, may be evidence tending to show that they were not disclosed.

WHAT THINGS SHOULD BE COMMUNICATED.

Not only ascertained facts should be stated by the insured, but intelligence and mere rumors, if of importance to the risk; and it has been held that intelligence known to his clerks would be generally presumed to be known to him; and it is no defence, that the things have been found to be false. It has been held that an agent was bound to state that his directions were sent him by express; because this indicated an emergency. If the voyage proposed would violate a foreign law not generally known, this should be stated.

It is impossible to give any other criterion to determine what should be communicased, than the rule that everything should be stated which might reasonably be considered in estimating the risk. And it is obvious that the season, or political events, or the character of the voyage, may make that material in a particular case, which is not so generally; as the national character of the ship or goods; whether contraband or not; the interest of the insured; the time of sailing; and the last news, as to weather and the like, from the part of the ocean in which the ship to be insured is supposed to be. And so every other thing of any kind which the insurer might reasonably wish to take into consideration in estimating the value of the risk which he is invited to assume.

The question, however, being one of concealment as it affects the estimation of the risk, it is obvious that the insured need not state to the insurer things which he already knows; and by the same reason, he is not bound to state things which the insurer ought so know, and might be supposed to know. These are, in general, all those things which the insured learns by means which are quite as open to the insurer as they are to him; as general facts widely published, and known by others long enough to justify the inference that all interested in such matters are acquainted with them. So things resting upon a general rumor, which is known to all alike. So facts of science; as the position of a port, the peculiar danger or liabilities of any well-known navigation, the prevalence of winds, currents, or weather of any particular description at a certain place or in a certain season. Whether the suppression of such a thing be a faulty concealment on the part of the insured, or only an innocent silence, must depend upon the standard above stated. If it be known to him in such a way that he ought as a reasonable man to doubt whether the insured knows it, then he ought as an honest man to put an end to the doubt by stating it; otherwise he may be silent. And so he may be about anything expressly provided for in the policy, unless he be expressly interrogated on the subject.

If either party says to the other so much as should put the other upon inquiry, in reference to a matter about which inquiry is easy and would lead to information, and the other party makes no inquiry, his ignorance is his own fault, and he must bear the consequences of it.

An intention, which, if carried into effect would discharge the insurers, as, for example, an intention to deviate, need not be stated, unless the intention itself can be shown to affect the risk. So a part damage to the

property need not be stated, unless it affects its present probability of safety.

A false statement that other insurers have taken the risk on such and such terms is a misrepresentation, but not a false statement by the insured that he thinks they would take it on such terms, for of this the insurers can judge for themselves.

Every statement or representation will be construed rationally, and so as to include all just and reasonable inferences. A substantial compliance with it will be sufficient; and a literal compliance which is not a substantial one, will not be sufficient.

THE PREMIUM.

This is undoubtedly due when the contract of insurance is completed; but in practice in this country, the premium in marine insurance is usually paid by a premium note on time, which is given at or soon after the delivery of the policy. If the policy acknowledge the receipt of the premium, and it is not paid, this receipt would be no bar to an action for it.

The premium is not due, if the risk is not incurred; whether this be caused by the non sailing of the ship; or by one insured on goods not having goods on board; or not so much cargo as he is insured for; or by any error or falsity in the description which prevents the policy from attaching.

If the premium be not earned, or not wholly earned, it must be returned in whole or in part by the insurers if it has been paid; and not charged in account with the insured, if it be unpaid.

The premium may be partially earned; and then there must be a part return only. As if the voyage consist of several passages, or of "out and home" passages, and these are not connected by the policy as one entire risk; or if the insured has some goods at risk, but not all which he intended to insure.

It is, however, an invariable rule, that if the whole risk attaches at all, that is, if there be a time, however short, during which the insurers might in case of loss from a sea peril, be called on for the whole amount they insure, there is to be no return of premium.

If there be simultaneous policies, and, taken together, they cover more than the whole amount at risk, the same rule applies as where one policy covers more than the amount at risk, and consequently there must be on each policy a proportionate return of premium.

If they are not simultaneous, and their earlier policies attached for their whole amount before the latter ones were made, the earlier ones earn their whole premium; and the later policies must return theirs, in whole if there is nothing left on which they attach, and in part if there be something left and they attach in part.

If the policy be effected by an agent who is responsible for the premium and the insurance is neither authorized nor confirmed by the principal, there is no return of premium for this cause, if the principal might have adopted the insurance, and made it obligatory on the insurers, at a time when the property insured was at risk.

If the note be signed by an agent, the insurers may look to a principal actually insured by it, whether known or unknown to them at the time.

Unless it can be inferred from the facts, or otherwise shown, that, with a knowledge of the principal, the insurers accepted the note of the agent or broker as that upon which they should exclusively rely.

There is no return of premium for avoidance of the contract by its illegality, if both parties knew this illegality and were equally in fault.

In this country, insurers usually retain one half of one per cent on a returnable policy. And our policies contain a clause permitting the insurers to set off the premium due against a loss, whether the note be signed by the insured or by another person.

THE DESCRIPTION OF THE PROPERTY INSURED.

The description must be such as will distinctly identify the property insured, as by quality, marks, and numbers, or a reference to the fact of shipment, or the time of shipment, or the voyage, or the consignee; or in some similar and satisfactory way; and no mere mistake in a name, or otherwise, vitiates the description if it leaves it sufficiently certain. If different shipments come within the policy, the insured may attach it to either by his declaration, which may be done after the loss, provided this appears to have been the intention of the parties. "Cargo," "goods on board," "merchandize," mean much the same thing; and do not attach to ornaments, clothing, or the like, owned by persons on board and not intended for commercial purposes. "Property" is the word of widest and almost unlimited meaning. "Ship" or "vessel" includes all that belongs to it at the time,—even sextants or chronometers belonging to the ship-owner, and by him appropriated to the navigation of the ship. So it includes all additions or repairs made during the insurance.

The phrase "a return cargo" will generally apply to a homeward cargo of the party insured in the same ship, however it be procured: but the phrases "proceeds" and "returns" are generally regarded as limited to a return cargo bought by means of the outward cargo. And neither of these, or any similar phrases, will apply to the same cargo brought back again, unless it can be shown, by the usage, or other admissible evidence, that this was the intention of the parties.

The nature of the interest of the insured need not be specified, unless peculiar circumstances, closely connecting this interest with the risk, make this necessary. But either a mortgagor or a mortgagee, a charterer, an assignee, a consignee, a trustee, or a carrier, may insure as on his own property, and without describing the exact nature of his interest.

It is common to cover the freight by a high valuation of the ship; but if there be an *open* dolicy on the ship, when its value comes to be inquired into, the freight is not included. An owner of both ship and cargo may cover by the word *freight* what his ship would earn by carrying that cargo for another person. Insurance on freight from one port to another covers the freight on goods taken in by agreement at ports intermediate to them. But if the insurance be on freight, and the goods are of such a kind that the insurance, had it been on goods, would not have attached, the insurance will not attach to the freight. Thus, in an American case, the insurance was on freight generally. The goods had not been put on board, but a specific contract had been entered into respecting them. Some were to be carried above, and some under deck. It was held that for the portion to be carried under deck the insured might recover his

freight, but not for that which was to have been carried on deck, because an insurance on the goods would not have been valid if they had been carried on deck.

Freight "to" a place is valid, although the cargo is to go farther, and the freight be paid only at the more distant port. But insurance on freight "at and from" a place does not cover freight "to" that place. If a charterer pays a certain price to the owner, and has agreed to carry a cargo for another at a higher price, he may insure the difference, which is his profit, under the name of freight.

THE PERILS COVERED BY THE POLICY.

The policy enumerates, as the causes of loss against which it insures, Perils of the Sea, Fire, Piracy, Theft, Barratry, Capture, Arrests, and Detentions; and "all other perils," by which is meant, by construction of law, all other perils of a like kind with those enumerated.

It is a universal rule, that the insurers are liable only for *extraordinary* risks. The very meaning of "seaworthiness," which the insured warrants is, that the ship is competent to encounter with safety all ordinary perils. If she be lost or injured, and the loss evidently arose from an ordinary peril, as from common weather, or the common force of the waves, the insurers are not liable, because the ship should be able to withstand these assaults. And if the loss be unexplained, and no extraordinary peril be shown or indicated, this fact would raise a very strong presumption of unseaworthiness. As, for example, if the vessel went down while sailing with favorable winds on a calm ocean.

The insurers are not liable for loss or injury by wear and tear, or natural decay, or the effect of age. The ship itself, and every part of it, and everything which belongs to it, must give out at some time; and when it is actually lost, the insurers are not held without sufficient evidence of a cause adequate to produce its loss, provided it had been in good condition and properly secured. For without this evidence it would be presumed to have been lost by its own defect.

It is, indeed, another universal rule, that the insurers are never liable for a loss which is caused by the quality of the thing lost. This rule applies, as above stated, to the ship, her rigging and appurtenances, when worn out by age or hard service. But its most frequent application is to perishable goods. The memorandum, already spoken of, provides for this in some degree. But the insurers are liable for the loss of no article of merchandise whatever, if the loss were caused by the inherent qualities or tendencies of the article, *unless* these qualities or tendencies were excited to action and made destructive by a peril insured against. Thus, if hemp rots from spontaneous fermentation, which cannot occur if it be dry, the insurers are not liable if the loss arose from the dampness which the hemp had when laden on board; but if the vessel were strained by tempest, and her seams opened, and the hemp was in this way wet, and then rotted, they are liable.

The insurers do not, of course, insure any man against his own acts. But when we consider whether they are liable for losses caused by the agents or servants of the insured, it is necessary to make a somewhat nice distinction. Beginning with the general principle, which should apply as well to the contract of insurance as to all others, we say that the owner,

as principal, is liable for the acts of his agents while they are acting as his agents, and only executing the work he gave them to do, in a manner which conforms with his instructions and authority. But for the consequences of the negligence or wilful misconduct of the master or crew, the insurers may be liable to the owner, because, *in this respect*, the master or crew are not the agents of the owner. They are his agents *only if* he directed the very negligence or wrongful act which destroys the property insured, and then the insurers are of course discharged, So they are if the misconduct be such as to prove the original unfitness of the master or crew, and therefore to show the unseaworthiness of the ship in this particular; or if they give the insurers the defence of deviation (to be spoken of presently), or the like.

The insurers may take upon themselves whatever risks they choose to assume. And express clauses in a policy, or the uniform and established usage and construction of policies, my throw upon them, as in fact it does, a very large liability to the owner or shipper for the effects of the misconduct—wilful or otherwise—of the master and crew. The clause relating to barratry, to be spoken of presently, is of this kind.

If the cargo is damaged through the fault of the master or crew, the shipper of the cargo has a remedy against the owner of the ship. But this does not necessarily discharge the insurers. If, however, he enforces his claim against them, he is bound to transfer to them his claim against the ship-owner. For the insurers of a cargo, by paying a loss thereon, put themselves, as it were, in the position of the shippers, and acquire their rights.

Generally, no loss will be attributed to the negligence or default of the master or crew, which can be with as good reason attributed to any of the perils insured against.

PERILS OF THE SEA.

By this phrase is meant all the perils incident to navigation, and especially those arising from the wind and weather, the state of the ocean and its rocks and shores. But it will be remembered that the insurers take upon themselves only so many of these as are "extraordinary." Hence, destruction by worms is not such a peril as the insurers are liable for, because it is not extraordinary. It is known to exist in all waters; and in certain waters, and at certain seasons, this danger is very great; and it is the duty of the insured to guard effectually against this. It is supposed that by coppering sufficiently, and other proper precautions, a vessel may be perfectly protected from any considerable damage by worms. And if this *can* be done, it is the duty of the ship-owners to do it. It seems now settled that *fire* is not included among "perils of the sea," or "perils of the river."

If the vessel, or the cargo—which is far more common,—be injured by rats, this has been regarded as so far a peril that cannot be certainly prevented, that, if the insured have taken reasonable precaution against them, the insurers are liable. There is now, however, a general disposition to put the danger from rats on the same footing as that from worms. Thus, in an English case, goods were insured on a voyage from London to Honduras, with leave to touch at Antigua. While at the last-named port her timbers were so damaged by rats that a survey was called, and the

vessel condemned. The court held that the underwriters were not liable.

In an action against a common carrier for damages caused by rats, the defence was that the captain had two cats on board. According to the writers on foreign maritime law, this would have been a good defence. But the English court held that it was no excuse. They said: "Now, whatever might have been the case when Roccus wrote, we cannot but think that rats might be banished from a ship by no very extraordinary degree of diligence on the part of the master; and we are further very strongly inclined to believe, that in the present mode of stowing cargoes cats would afford a very slight protection, if any, against rats. It is difficult to understand how, in a full ship, a cat could get at a rat in the hold at all, or at least with the slightest chance of catching it."

An American case supports the view that an insurer will be liable in such a case, if there be no fault on the part of the captain. Chancellor Kent says: "The better opinion would seem to be, that an insurer is not liable for damage done to a ship by rats, because it arises from the negligence of the carrier, and may be prevented by due care, and is within the control of human prudence and sagacity."

If a vessel reach a harbor in the course of its voyage, and is therein detained by stress of weather, or by being frozen in, or by any such cause, the expenses of the delay, which may be very considerable, are the loss of the owner, and not of the insurers. But those incurred for bearing away for repair fall, as will be more fully stated hereafter, upon the insurers.

If a vessel be not heard from, it will be supposed, after a reasonable interval, that she has perished; but the law has not determined the length of this interval with any exactness. The presumption of law will be, that she was lost by an extraordinary peril of the sea, and, of course, the insurers will be answerable for her. But this presumption may be rebutted by any sufficient evidence, as of unseaworthiness, or any other probable cause of loss.

ANALYSES OF RAILROAD REPORTS. NO. 8.

6.—CHICAGO, BURLINGTON AND QUINCY RAILROAD.

The Chicago, Burlington & Quincy Railroad is composed of the following divisions and branches:

Original line—junction (80 m. w. Chicago) to Galesburg	138 miles.
Chicago Extension—Aurora to Chicago	27 "
Old Peoria & Oquawka R. R.—Peoria to Burlington	95 "
Old Quincy & Chicago R. R.—Galesburg to Quincy	100 "
Lewiston Branch—Yates City to Lewiston	80 "
Total length owned and operated by Company	440 "

The Peoria & Oquawka and the Quincy & Chicago Railroads, and the Lewiston Branch have only recently come into the possession of this company. But the through line between Chicago and Burlington has always included the section of the Peoria & Oquawka Railroad (under lease) between Galesburg and Burlington, 42 miles. It also included that part of the Galena & Chicago Union Railroad between Chicago and

the junction 30 miles west of that city, the owners receiving 27 per cent of the earnings thereof as rent. The Chicago extension is a new line, and supersedes the necessity for the Galena & Chicago link.

The several roads as they now exist constitute by combination—

A line from Chicago to Burlington	204 miles
A line from Chicago to Quincy	282 "
A line from Peoria to Burlington	95 "

and two branches, one a part of the original line between Aurora and the Chicago Junction, 13 miles, and the other, the Lewiston Branch from Yates City, on the Peoria & Burlington line, to Lewiston. At Peoria the line connects with the Toledo, Peoria & Warsaw Railroad and through it with the Lake Shore and other eastern railroads.

Thus this great line has two termini on the Mississippi a hundred miles apart, and two eastern termini, the one at Chicago, on Lake Michigan, and the other at Peoria and indirectly at Toledo. At Burlington, on the Mississippi, it has direct connection with the Burlington and Missouri Railroad of Iowa, which is now open to Ottumwa and a connection with the Des Moines Valley Railroad. At Quincy it connects, by the Palmyra Railroad, with the Hannibal & St. Joseph Railroad of Missouri. By the first, passengers and freight are transported direct from Chicago to the capital of Iowa, about 320 miles, and by the latter from Chicago to St. Joseph on the Missouri River, 470 miles. These connections are already of immense advantage as feeders and promise a future of great prosperity to the Chicago, Burlington & Quincy road.

The country through which the Chicago, Burlington & Quincy Railroad passes is unexcelled as an agricultural region, and in many parts abounds with coal and other minerals. The counties which it traverses are named in the following table, which shows the population and improved lands (acres) of each in 1850 and 1860, with the amount (bushels) of wheat and Indian corn grown in 1859 and the value of live stock in 1860:

Counties.	Population. 1850.	Population. 1860.	Impr'd lands 1850.	Impr'd lands 1860.	Wheat.	Ind. Corn.	Value of live stock.
Cook	43,385	144,954	154,090	267,927	299,770	877,062	$1,250,694
Du Page	9,290	14,701	86,200	155,207	212,922	409,134	748,897
Kane	16,703	20,062	83,738	222,596	421,416	550,392	1,065,864
Kendall	7,730	13,074	79,257	186,107	195,078	909,828	827,336
La Salle	17,815	48,332	93,098	240,463	291,775	1,305,655	1,221,736
Lee	5,292	17,051	38,678	152,472	687,518	490,137	804,570
Bureau	8,841	26,426	62,170	283,433	883,706	1,522,501	1,294,258
Henry	2,807	20,660	22,983	200, 78	578,806	1,383,816	986,749
Knox	13,279	28,663	101,287	248,884	442,127	3,155,470	1,598,784
Peoria	17,547	36,901	83,718	173,557	323,990	2,465,162	1,227,958
Warren	8,176	18,396	75,334	188,161	282,407	3,205,202	1,127,231
Henderson	4,612	9,501	35,796	108,460	211,478	1,604,342	658,548
Fulton	22,508	33,538	124,817	223 198	318,883	3,195,192	1,415,646
McDonough	7,616	20.069	51,841	164,291	212,884	1,859,940	757,458
Hancock	14,652	29,061	80,163	214,326	218,970	2,056,177	1,105,378
Adams	26,508	41,323	147,27	205,106	382,624	2,654,197	1,302,857
Total 16 Counties	227,761	532,752	1,322,423	3,232,261	5,919,354	27,643,305	$17,312,295

From these and partly from the adjoining counties which are equally productive, the road draws its local business. Its through traffic is entirely foreign, coming on the one hand from the Mississippi and country beyond, and on the other, from the eastern States by lake and connecting railroads.

The Chicago, Burlington & Quincy Railroad is one of the few lines that has met with no serious embarrassment in its business and affairs. It has always been able, indeed, to lend a helping hand to its neighbors in distress. Its means were drawn upon both by the Peoria & Oquawka and the Quincy & Chicago companies. These roads have ultimately become the property of the Chicago, Burlington & Quincy Company by liquidation and purchase, and in connection with it, now form the great lines under review.

The rolling stock on the Chicago, Burlington & Quincy Railroad on the 1st July, 1856 and thereafter on 30th April of each year has been as follows:

	1856.	1857.	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.	1862.	1863.	1864.	1865.
Locomotives	46	54	58	62	62	62	62	86	98	105
Passenger cars	31	34	40	40	40	40	40	46	60	73
Freight cars	618	765	942	943	967	999	1,023	1,249	1,775	1,966
Total cars	649	799	982	983	1,007	1,039	1,063	1,295	1,835	2,039

—not including working and gravel cars.

The *business of the road* as exhibited by the statistics of engine mileage and of passengers and tonnage carried on trains is shown for the two years ending April 30, 1865, in the annexed tables:

MILEAGE OF ENGINES HAULING TRAINS.

Hauling passenger trains	522,123	Not given separately.
do Freight trains	982,145	
do Working trains	451,251	
Total	1,955,519	1,963,105

NUMBER OF PASSENGERS AND DIRECTION OF TRAVEL

Passengers.	1860–61.	1861–62.	1862–63.	1863–64.	1864–65.
Through—East	13,577	13,378	12,688	15,989	21,360
do West	13,724	15,621	15,127½	22,733	28,707
Way—East	126,324	96,806	188,863½	262,055	395,328
do West	124,192	98,780½	185,987	273,148	397,164
Total—East	139,901	110,178	201,551½	278,044	416,688
do West	137,916	114,401½	201,114½	295,881	425,871
Total—Through	27,301	28,994	27,815½	38,722	50,067
do Way	250,516	195,586½	374,850½	535,203	792,492
Total both ways	277,817	224,580½	402,666	573,925	842,559
Mileage	18,533,583	16,794,045	23,358,989	30,609,865	43,406,935

TONNAGE AND DIRECTION OF TRAFFIC.

Tonnage.	1860–61.	1861–62.	1862–63.	1863–64.	1864–65.
Carried East	526,433	618,146	580,278	523,594	456,835
do West	208,140	217,417	197,458	286,676	280,676
Total tonnage	734,573	835,563	777,736	809,674	737,511
Mileage East	55,065,971	58,717,591	81,298,033	78,624,460	66 494 144
do West	17,872,903	18,656 162	26,697,809	33,129,048	41,085 216
Total mileage	72,938,874	77,373,753	107,995,942	116,753,508	107,579,360

The tons of freight forwarded from and received at Chicago, and the mileage thereof in the same years, was as fol ows:

	1860–61.	1861–62.	1862 63.	1863–64.	1864–65
Received	.....	336,855	492 014	437 970	373,790
Forwarded	.....	90.277	131.907	1-7.882	210,769
Total tons	895,157	426 632	6 8,921	625,852	586.819
Mileage, East	.....	45,738,112	77.595.134	74 747.016	62.124,601
do West	.....	11.979.6 1	23.40-,685	31.491.299	37.381.582
Total mileage	.....	57,708,763	101,003,819	109,238,317	99,505,183

The *gross earnings of the Chicago, Burlington, and Quincy Line*, from Chicago to Burlington 210 miles for the six years 1856–62; the same including the Quincy and Chicago Railroad 363 miles for 1862–63, and the Lewiston Branch 393 miles for 1863–64, and the line as now existing, 400 miles, for 1864–65 were as follows:

Fiscal years.	Gross earnings of line. Passenger.	Freight.	Mails, &c.	Total.	Proportion to Chicago, B & Q. Co.
1856-57	$628,056	$1,367,369	$28,054	$2,023,481	$1,[illegible]
1857-58	552,951	1,272,025	25,363	1,850,339	1,[illegible]
1858-59	4[illegible],356	843,157	25,379	1,288,894	1,044,574
1859-60	392,944	983,456	88,257	1,383,957	1,[illegible]
186[illegible]-61	399,643	1,286,919	43,522	1,732,084	1,[illegible]
1861-62	347,693	1,421,418	56,019	1,825,130	1,551,227
1862-63	584,807	2,369,771	83,295	3,037,373	2,412,[illegible]
1863-64	956,475	2,979,016	104,432	4,039,923	3,080,211
1864-65	1,508,234	3,919,860	153,758	5,581,852	4,668,186

The following table shows the *mileage and earnings of the roads owned by the C. B. & Q. Company* (as distinguished from the C. B. & Q. Railroad line, but including the company's share of the gross earnings of the Galena and Chicago Company's road between the Junction and Chicago) for the same years, viz.: from July 1, 1856, to April 30, 1865:

Fiscal Years.	Miles of Road.	Gross Earnings. Pas'g'rs.	Freight	Mails, &c.	Total.	Operating Expenses	Net Earnings
1856-57	168	$409,381	$959 172	$20,890	$1,389,:92	$[illegible]16 260	$[illegible]73,[illegible]04
1857-58	168	480,881	1 058,118	21,163	1,505,167	694 400	810 767
1858-59	168	3[illegible]3,891	689,787	74,429	1,097,557	54 .006	5 6,551
1859-60	168	888,424	898,482	71 804	1,238,706	678,159	555 549
1860-61	168	385,363	1,134,354	44,711	1,5[illegible]4,428	752,[illegible]97	761,[illegible]31
1861-62	168	291 284	1 208,249	51,049	1 551,:27	731,080	[illegible]20,197
1862-63	263	423,418	1,997,945	72 785	2,427,148	1,072,998	1,354,150
1863-64	263	684,375	2,326 :63	79,478	3,090,211	1,575 395	1,514,816
1864-65	300	1,158,596	3,395,679	148,542	4,702,817	2,436,147	2,266,670

The net earnings were disposed of as follows:

Fiscal Years.	Taxes. State.	U. S.	Int'st on Bonds	Sink'g Fund.	Imp'v't Ac't.	Sundry Ac'ts.	Div's on Stock.	Surp. to Credit.
1856-57	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	$5[illegible]8 919	[illegible]	$1[illegible]4,935
1857-58	$20 654	[illegible]	$168,6[illegible]6	$66,[illegible]93	[illegible]	66,512	$231,465	[illegible]46,167
1858-59	21,819	[illegible]	230,2[illegible]9	27,568	$68,[illegible]25	79,656	[illegible]	[illegible]80 454
1859-60	31,1[illegible]7	[illegible]	227,740	29 927	3[illegible],165	71,230	[illegible]	156,210
1860-61	22 450	[illegible]	228,501	85,904	85,412	46,600	232,715	121,345
1861-62	20,821	[illegible]	278,[illegible]86	127,[illegible]17	44,627	74,[illegible]77	[illegible]	[illegible]75 169
1862-63	24,870	$15,100	324,635	151,515	87,149	57,175	472,658	[illegible]11,554
1863-64	45,619	88,101	359,140	109,437	67,414	14,783	49[illegible]88	857 284
1864-65	71,147	176,873	349,[illegible]35	102,665	47,455	28,418	1,023,190	466,[illegible]68

The dividend declared for November, 1865, being from the earnings for the first six months of the fiscal year 1865–66, is 5 per centum, or $418,825.50. At the same time 20 per cent in stock will be distributed to the shareholders.

Since the consolidation, in July, 1856, to the 1st November, 1865, there has been distributed from income, in cash, 46 per cent. on the stock as it existed at the the times of distribution, amounting in the aggregate to $2,839,235.

There has also been distributed, in stock, representing contributions to the sinking fund, and income otherwise diverted, 50 per cent on the stock existing at the times of distribution, and in detail as follows:

November, 1863	20 per cent.	9,469 shares, or	$946,900		
do 1864	10 do	7,456 do	745,600		
do 1865	20 do	16,7[illegible]3 do	1,67[illegible],300		
				$3,3[illegible]9 900	
Add cash dividends, 46 per cent			$2,839,235		
Total distribution, 96 per cent			—	6,195,[illegible]35	
Being upwards of 10 do per annum.					

The *financial condition* of the company, as shown in the General Account, on the 1st July, 1856, and annually thereafter on the 1st May, has been as follows:

Close of Year	Share Capital.	Funded Debt.	Op'rat'g Ac'ts	Sinking Fund.	Balance of Income	Total Debt.
July 1, 1856	$2 911.810	$3 114.000	$597 692	....	$1 6.457	$6.719 949
May 1, 1857	4.626.440	2.59 .000	768 071	..	184.985	8 119.496
do 1858	4.629.840	3.158 00	806.006	$66 898	3:2 571	8.4-2 810
do 18 9	4.6.9.240	3.158 0 0	383 425	92.961	452.275	8 666 001
do 1-60	4.629.240	3.158.0 0	179 060	121.988	611.235	8.6 9 623
do 1861	4.689.340	5.124.516	3 6 974	157 801	782.4-9	11.041.204
do 1862	4,791.540	6.0:4 7 0*	63 664	285.708	1 0'0.651	1:.176.115
do 1863	5.738 640	6,10 .594*	296.883	437.024	601 859	13 179. 00
do 1864	6 571.141	6,1:8.031*	766 118	546 461	1,0:6.093	14 8 7,888
do 1865	8,376.510	5,924,969*	525,258	649,126	988,401	16,464,.64

—against which are charged:

Close of Year.	Construction and Equipment— C. B. & Q. R. R.	P. & O. R. R.	Q. & C. R. R.	Total.	Truste's of Sinking Fund	Operating Accounts
July 1, 1856	$6.012.870	$39 .026	....	$6,434.896	$39.000	$:76.558
May 1, 1857	6 99 815	443 026	....	7,433.841	54 0 0	681.655
do 1858	7,168 926	466,500	$107 000	8,042.426	105 1 00	384 684
do 1859	7 468 926	45 .68	196 000	8.149.184	168.000	848 9.7
do 1860	7,468 926	575,389	196.000	8,180.:85	236.000	283 3:8
do 1861	7,468 926	1.751. 27	97 .0 8	10.145.256	810,000	535 9 9
do 1862	7.549 249	2.413.278	1.925 469	11 887 990	....	2-8.125
do 1-63	7.584,818†	2,.64.890	1.983.619	1 ,3 8 8:2	....	806,178
do 1864	9,176 877†	2 771.628	1,978 820	13,927. 25	....	910.518
do 1865	9,996,433	2,901,634	2,157,186	15,055 253	....	1,4 9,011

The *funded debt* of the company consists of the following described bonds, exclusive of those cancelled by the sinking fund:

Bonds assumed in consolidation, July 9, 1856, now outstanding, viz:	
—Chicago and Aurora, 1st mort., 7 per cent, due July 1, 1867	$95,000
—Cen. Mil. Tract, 2d mort., 8 per cent. due May 1, 1868	68,000
— do do convertible, 8 per cent, due March 1, 1876	6,000
Total old bonds outstanding	$169,000
C., B. & Q. Trust Mort. Conv. S. F. Bonds, 8 p. c., due Jan. 1, 1883	467,000
do do Inconv. S. F. Bonds, 8 p. c., due Jan. 1, 1883	3,167,000
do Trust Bonds, issued on acct. of P. & O. R. R., 7 p. c., due Sept. 20, 1890.	680,000
do 2d mort. bonds, issued on account of Northern Cross R.R., payable at Frankfort-on-the-Main, 4½ p. c. to July 1, 1875, and 4 p. c. from July 1, 1875, to July 1, 1890	941,000
Total interest bearing bonds	$5,424,000
C., B & Q. Scrip, of 25 semi-annual installments of $21,781 25 each, payable Jan. 1 and July 1, at Frankfort-on-the-Main, issued on account of Northern Cross R.R.	500,968
Total funded debt	$5,924,968

—bearing an average interest of 6.63 per centum.

The *cost of the roads of the Chicago, Burlington and Quincy Company per mile;* the *earnings and expenses of the same per mile;* the expenses to earnings per centum, and the rate of dividends on the company's stock for each fiscal year since the consolidation of July 1, 1856:

Fiscal year.	Cost of road, &c.	Gross earnings.	Operating expenses.	Net earn'gs.	Expenses to earn'gs.	Divid'ds Cash.	Divid'ds St'k
1856–57	$43,785	$8,270	$4,264	$4,0 6	51.56	..	..
1857–58	50,665	8,959	4,133	4.826	46.13	5	..
1858–59	54,122	6,533	3,220	3,313	49.29	..	..
1859–60	54,122	7,344	4.037	3,307	54.97	..	..
1860–61	54,122	9,019	4,480	4 539	49.71	5	..
1861–62	54,705	9,233	4,352	4,881	47.13	..	..
1862–63	56.644	9,280	4,079	5,151	44.19	9	20
1863–64	60,971	11,750	5,990	5,760	50.98	9	..
1864–65	52,439	15,676	8,120	7,556	51.80	13	10
	Dividend No. 10, Nov. 15, 1865					5	20

The above tables take the C., B. & Q. road proper (or that built by consolidated company, viz.: from Junction to Galesburg), 138 miles, in making up the cost per mile of road. The sum includes all the permanent

* Less, Sinking Fund. † Including—1863, $117,888, and 1864, $762,876 paid on Chicago Divis.

property of the company, much of which, especially the rolling stock, was for the use of the C. B. & Q. line. In 1864–65 the Chicago extension is included.

Taking all the roads owned by the company at the close of 1864–65, an aggregate length of 400 miles, their cost per mile was $37,638.

The earnings and expenses per mile, from 1856–57 to 1861–62, are those on the 168 miles from Chicago to Galesburg. For the two next years on the same (168 miles,) and the Peoria and Burlington road (95 miles), together, 263 miles; and in 1864–65 on the line then owned by the company, (but not including the road from Galesburg to Quincy, 100 miles), a length of 300 miles.

The *monthly range in the prices of the shares* of the company at the New York Stock Exchange Board for the five years ending with April, 1865, has been as follows:

Months.	1860–61.	1861–62.	1862–63.	1863–64.	1864–65.
May	68¼@79¼	54 @62	64¼@ 78	108 @120	126 @[illegible]
June	68¾@77	58 @55¼	75 @ 80	113 @116	126¼@[illegible]
July	73 @84	54 @63¼	74¼@ 78¼	114 @116¼	126 @[illegible]
August	84¼@91	57¼@60¼	78 @ 87	115 @126¼	127 @[illegible]
September	87 @92¾	59¼@63½	85½@ 96¼	120 @128	117 @[illegible]
October	79 @90	61¼@66¾	100 @119	122½@131	111 @[illegible]
November	61¾@85	58½@66	83 @116	116½@124¼	115 @[illegible]
December	60 @70	51 @60	86½@ 98	115 @117¼	116½@[illegible]
January	65¼@73¼	57 @62½	99 @111¼	118 @129	114 @[illegible]
February	65 @76	61 @65	105 @110	122 @133	114 @[illegible]
March	69¾@75	61½@65	106 @110	131½@146	100 @[illegible]
April	51 @74¼	61 @62	107¾@112¾	132 @149	103 @[illegible]
Years	51 @92¾	51 @66¾	64½@119	108 @149	100 @[illegible]

The mother road of this company was the Chicago and Aurora, extending from the Galena and Chicago Union Railroad, at a point thirty miles west from Chicago to Mendota and the Illinois Central Railroad, a length of 58 miles. This road was opened from the Junction to Aurora, 13 miles, in 1852, and completed throughout in 1854. The name of the Company was changed to that of Chicago, Burlington, and Quincy, under an act passed in the legislative session of 1855.

In July, 1856, a consolidation was effected between this Company and the Central Military Tract Railroad Company, whose railroad, just then completed, extended from Mendota to Galesburg, a distance of 80 miles.

The Peoria and Oquawda Railroad Company had also about this time opened the western division of their road between Galesburg and Burlington, 42 miles. To hasten the completion of this work so as to extend the Chicago, Burlington, and Quincy line to the Missi-sippi, the above Companies, in their separate capacities, had advanced largely of their means, in consideration of which they received a temporary lease of the division, and an agreement for the permanent use of the track. At subsequent periods the Consolidated Company made further advances, not only to this Company but also to the Quincy and Chicago Company, who constructed a railroad, chartered under the name of Northern Cross, extending from Galesburg, on the main line, to Quincy, a distance of 100 miles. The interests of the Chicago, Burlington, and Quincy Company in these two roads at length became paramount, and both having become unexpectedly involved in their financial affairs, were finally purchased by the Consolidated Company, and since 1863 have formed a part and parcel of their property.

At an early stage of the existence of the Company a contract was made with the Galena and Chicago Railroad Company, for the use of their track from the Junction into Chicago, this Company to pay for such accommodation 27 per cent. of the gross earnings from operations. A temporary agreement had previously existed. The arrangement was terminated after a two years' notice, as required by the agreement, at the end of the financial year 1863–64, this Company having constructed an independent line from Aurora to Chicago.

The Lewiston branch was partly constructed by the Jacksonville and Savannah Railroad Company, who, becoming involved, made over to the Chicago, Burlington, and Quincy Company the unfinished work, on the condition of their completing it. For this purpose the Company issued $125,000 in bonds secured by mortgage on the road, and opened it for traffic in 1863. Already nearly half these bonds have been redeemed from the earnings of the branch, and when fully taken up this thirty miles of road will have become the property of the Company without cost.

By the last annual statement the aggregate length of the roads owned by the Chicago, Burlington and Quincy Company, was 400 miles. The cost of these to the Company has been $15,055,252, or per mile, $37,638. The gross earnings in 1864–65 amounted to $4,688,186, or per mile, $11,720, and the earnings after operating expenses $2,252,040, or per mile, $5,630. The relation of the net earnings to the cost of the road was thus 14:95 per cent. The dividend paid on the Company's stock was 13 per cent from the year's earnings, and after paying this, together with interest on the funded debt ($349,035), instalment to the sinking fund ($102,665), taxes, State and National ($248,720), and other smaller items, in all amounting to $2,304,362, the Company had left to the credit of income account a balance of $988,401.

Included in the cost of the property is the rolling stock, which has been well kept up and increased liberally with the demands of business and the extension of the lines operated. The cost of extensive depot grounds in Chicago and Burlington, of the cattle yards near Chicago, and the Union track in that city, and other items involving large outlays of money are also included.

That the enterprise has been a magnificent success is too patent to need further illustration. Probably not another railroad company in the United States can show so prosperous a result from operations. Certainly no other can exceed this result; and if we appeal to the Stock Exchange Brokers their verdict is exhibited in the ruling price of the Company's shares.

7.—CHICAGO AND NORTH-WESTERN RAILWAY.

The Chicago and Northwestern Railway Company is a consolidation of the Company originally so called, and the Galena and Chicago Union, the Kenosha and Rockford, and the Peninsula Railroad Companies. This consolidation now owns the following lines:

1.	Chicago, Ill., to Fort Howard, Wisc.	242 miles
2.	Chicago, Ill., to Fulton, Ill.	127 "
2.	Junction (80m. W. Chicago) to Freeport, Ill.	91 "
4.	East Elgin (42m. N. W. Chicago) to Wis. State line.	35 "
5.	Belvidere (78m. N. W. Chicago) to Beloit, Wis.	21 "
6.	St Charles Branch	9 "
7.	Kenosha, Wis., to Rockford, Ill.	73 "
8.	Peninsula, (Mich.,) Division	70 "
	Total owned by Company	679 miles
	Chicago, Iowa and Nebraska R. R. (leased)	82 miles
	Cedar Rapids and Missouri R. R. "	122 "
	Beloit and Madison R. R. "	47 "
	Total owned and leased	930 miles

The longest continuous lines of railroad now operated by the Company are:

From Chicago to		Boonesboro, Iowa	342 miles
"	"	Green Bay, Wis.	242 "
"	"	Madison, Wis.	146 "
"	"	Freeport, Ill.	121 "
"	"	Richmond	77 "

The Peninsula Division, extending from Escanaba to the Iron mines, is connected with the Chicago and Green Bay Line by steamer, the intervening distance being about 110 miles. This arrangement will eventually be superseded by a railroad from Fort Howard to Escanaba, a like distance of 110 miles.

The company has also purchased 12,741½ of the 22,500 shares of the Chicago and Milwaukee Railroad Company and has consequently a controlling interest in their line of 85 miles.

The whole of Northern Illinois and a great part of Southern and Eastern Wisconsin are tributary to the lines of this company. These sections embrace the best populated and most developed portions of these States. They cover at least 12,000 square miles of territory, and contain not far from half a million inhabitants. Chicago, Kenosha, Fond du Lac and Green Bay are the chief lake ports at which the roads of the company have direct connection. On the Mississippi Dubuque, Galena and Fulton are the principal ports. The two former are reached over the Illinois Central Railroad. At Fulton commences the Iowa leased lines which are already completed to Boonesboro, 204 miles west, and are progressing to the Missouri River and a connection with the Union Pacific Railroad. Over these the company holds a perpetual lease. About 130 miles of road will bring the line to this point, making the whole distance from Chicago to the Missouri River about 472 miles. It is thus apparent that a large part of Iowa, say a section of 50 miles in width across the State, will also contribute to the resources of the company, and in time the same lines will constitute a section of the great Atlantic and Pacific overland route of travel and traffic.

The total number of passengers carried over the several lines during the year closing May 31, 1865, was 1,096,697, yielding $2,167,901 77.

The quantity of freight carried was 956,484½ tons, which yielded $4,448,598 57. The gross earnings are given as follows:

Passenger earnings	$2,167,901 77	
Freight earnings	4,448,598 57	
Express earnings	90,045 97	
Mail earnings	67,885 91	
Miscellaneous earnings	46,317 53	$6,820,749 75
Operating expenses (62.98 p. c.)	$4,295,472 86	
State, county, and town taxes	168,119 91	
Government tax, 2½ p. c. on gross	157,769 07	
Interest and sinking fund on bonds	750,470 00	
Dividend on preferred stock, Dec. 1, 1864	372,872 15	
Rents of leased roads	397,115 98	6,141,819 97
Earnings over expenditures		$678,929 78

—from which was paid the June interest on the preferred stock, amounting at 3½ per cent to $447,846, leaving a net balance of $231,083 78.

The gross earnings of the lines operated in 1863–64 and 1864–65 compare as follows:

Gross earnings 1864–65	$6,820,749 75
Gross earnings 1863–64	4,681,807 40
Increase in 1864–65	$2,138,942 35

The details of the gross earning for the two years were as follows:

	1863–64.	1864–65.	Increase.	Decrease.
Passenger	$1,321,819 32	$2,167,901 77	$846,082 45	.....
Freight	3,193,419 62	4,448,598 57	1,255,178 95	.....
Express	54,972 48	90,045 97	35,073 49	.....
Mail	62,551 94	67,885 91	5,333 97	.....
Miscellaneous	49,044 04	46,317 53	....	2,726 51
Total	$4,681,807 40	$6,820,749 75	$2,141,668 86	$2,726 51

—leaving a net increase equal to 45.69 per centum.

The earnings for the first four months of the fiscal year 1865–66 compare as follows:

	1864.	1865.	Increase.
Passenger	$634,275 34	$976,008 05	$341,732 71
Freight	1,538,501 68	2,088,229 84	549,728 16
Express	24,808 27	45,576 50	20,768 23
Mail	22,522 27	22,627 62	105 35
Miscellaneous	14,658 44	22,406 99	7,748 55
	$2,234,766 00	$3,164,849 00	$930,083 00

—the increase being equivalent to 41.62 per centum.

The Balance Sheet from the General Ledger shows the financial condition of the Company on May 31, 1865, one year after the consolidation:

PROPERTY AND ASSETS.

Cost of consolidated property			$34,870,931 98
Construction since June 1, 1864		$1,350,835 18	
Equipment, same time		1,102,024 40—	2,452,859 58
Construction and equipment, 31 May, 1865			$37,323,791 56
Stocks and bonds of other companies, &c			1,340,728 44
Materials on hand			1,015,932 06
Total			$39,680,452 06

STOCKS, BONDS AND DEBT, ETC.

Common stock		$13,160,921 18	
Preferred stock		12,994,719 79—	$26,155,640 97
Funded Debt			12,020,483 67
Bills payable, &c		858,710 57	
Operating Debts	$870,543 40		
Operating assets	489,196 68—	381,346 72	
		$1,240,057 29	
Cash on hand		414,658 85—	825,398 44
Balance of Income			678,929 78
Total			$39,680,452 06

The following are the details of the Company's Funded Debt:

Description of Securities.	Interest—Rate.	Interest—Payable.	Princip'l Amou't Payable.	Amou't Outst'g.
Flagg Trust Bonds (Chicago Depot)	8	Jan'ry & July	....	$245,000
Pref. Sinking Fund Bonds (1st Mort. C & N W R R, 198 m.)	7	Febr'y & Aug.	1885	1,250,000
Funded Coupons Bond (2d M do do)	7	May & Nov'er	1883	774,000
General 1st M. Bonds (3d M do do)	7	Febr'y & Aug.	1885	3,600,000
Appleton Extension Bonds (1st Mort. 23 m. and 76,000 acres)	7	Febr'y & Aug.	1885	184,000
Green Bay Extension Bonds (1st Mort. 26 m. and 76,000 acres)	7	Febr'y & Aug.	1885	300,000
Equipment Bonds (1st Mort. engines and cars purchased with said Bonds)	7	Jan'ry & July	1874	275,483
Gal. & Chicago Union R R, 1st Mortgage Bonds	7	Febr'y & Aug.	1893	1,953,000
Gal & Chicago Union R R, 2d Mortgage Bonds (The two last series are secured on the road and equipment contributed by the Galena and Chicago Railroad Co.)	7	May & Nov'er	1875	1,086,000
Mississippi River Bridge Bonds (G & C. U. R R)	7	Jan'ry & July	1884	200,000
Elgin & State Line R R purchase Bonds (The two last are secured by first and second liens on the net earnings of the Galena Division after satisfying 1st and 2d Mortgages.)	6	Jan'ry & July	1878	189,000
Peninsula R R 1st Mortgage B'ds $1,200,000 (Secured on 70 m of road, and the lands donated by the U. S in aid of road.)	7	Mar. & Sept'er	1898	1,029,000
Consolidated Sinking Fund Bonds	7	F. M. A. & N.	1915	949,000
Total amount of Funded Debt				$12,030,483

The consolidated Sinking Fund Bonds are secured by a mortgage covering all the different lines of the road and equipment in the States of Illinois and Wisconsin, subject only to prior liens. The mortgage provides for an issue of $2,000,000, with the right to increase by $500,000 for the purpose of equipment after February, 1866, and also provides that the Company may at any time make further issues of this class of funds for the purpose of exchanging them for any of the prior bonds of the company, dollar for dollar. The first $2,000,000 of these bonds are convertible into preferred stock, at par, at the option of the holder, at any time before May 1, 1870.

As an appendix to the first yearly statement of the consolidated Chicago and Northwestern Railway Company, it is pertinent to take a brief retrospect of the career of the companies which, in July 1864, and after, entered into partnership, and also to say a few words in relation to the railroads leased and operated by the company. The Galena and Chicago Union Railroad Company was the pioneer of the group, and indeed, with a single exception, was the earliest railroad in Illinois. The Chicago and Northwestern Railway Company originated in the Illinois and Wisconsin, which subsequently became the Chicago, St. Paul and Fond du Lac and then the Chicago and Northwestern, each change of name having been preceded by financial difficulties and liquidation. The Peninsula Railroad is yet isolated from the general system of lines owned by the company. Each of these is worthy of a distinct history, which we give briefly in the following outline statements, beginning with the

GALENA AND CHICAGO UNION RAILROAD.

The roads owned by the Galena Company at the time of consolidation with the Northwestern Company were the following:

1. The original "Galena and Chicago Line," extending from Chicago to Freeport		121 miles.
2. The "Dixon Air Line," extending from the Junction, 30 miles west of Chicago, via Geneva, Dixon, and Fulton, to the east end of the bridge below Fulton		180 "
3. The "Beloit Branch"		21 "
4. The "St. Charles Branch"		9 "
5. The "Fox River Valley Line" from Elgin, north to Richmond, near the Wisconsin boundary		35 "
Making in all		294 miles.
owned in full by the company, and the following lines held under perpetual lease:		
The Chicago, Iowa and Nebraska R. R.	82	
The Cedar Rapids and Missouri	98	
The Beloit and Madison	47—	227 miles.
Total owned and leased		521 "

The Galena and Chicago Union Railroad Company was chartered January 10, 1836; but, with the exception of making preliminary surveys, nothing was effected by the company for the subsequent ten years. An amended charter was granted Feb. 24, 1847, which provided for the reorganization of the company, and increasing the capital. Under this act the company organized on the following April.

For the purposes of construction the line was divided into three divisions. In March, 1848, the first division extending from Chicago to Elgin, 43 miles, was placed under contract, and completed to Desplaines River June 1, 1849, and to Rockford to Elgin, 50 miles, was commenced in the spring of 1850 and opened for business to Huntley Sept. 15, to Marengo Oct. 18, and to Belvidere, Dec. 3, 1851, and to Cherry Valley, March 10, and to Rockford Aug. 2, 1852. The third division from Rockford to Freeport, 28 miles, was commenced early in 1852 and completed by Sept. 1, 1852.

The Beloit Branch from Belvidere to Beloit, 21 miles, was opened Nov. 14, 1853.

The Chicago, Iowa and Dixon Air Line which commences at Junction (Turner), 30 miles west of Chicago and extends to Fulton, was authorized by an act passed Feb. 12, 1853. That portion of the line from Dixon to Fulton was constructed under the charter of the Mississippi and Rock River Junction Railroad Company which was consolidated into the Galena and Chicago Union Company. Construction was commenced in the May following and the road opened to traffic—to Lane, Jan. 10, and to Dixon Dec. 4, 1854, and thence to Sterling July 22, to Morrison Sept. 23, and to Fulton, Dec. 16, 1855. The extension to the bridge below Fulton was made in 1860. This bridge was built by the Chicago, Iowa and Nebraska Railroad Company. It extends over the eastern channel of the river from the new terminus to Little Rock Island, 2,800 feet. The western channel was crossed by a steam ferry.

The St. Charles Air Line Branch was opened from the South Branch Depot in Chicago to Harlem, 10½ miles, Jan. 1, 1856. This branch was constructed by the Chicago, St. Charles and Mississippi Air Rine Company, and purchased by the Galena Company. In the same purchase

were included the large depot grounds on the South Branch, which were connected by side tracks with all the railroads entering the city.

In July, 1862, the Galena Company obtained a perpetual lease of the franchises of the Albany Bridge Company, having the right to maintain a ferry or build a bridge across the Mississippi; also a lease of the Chicago, Iowa and Nebraska Railroad, from Clinton to Cedar Rapids, 82 miles, and also a lease of the Cedar Rapids and Missouri Railroad. The first named of these roads was in operation at this time, but of the latter only a small section was completed. The lessors have since extended the line to Boonesboro on the Des Moines River, 122 miles from Cedar Rapids, and about 130 miles from its future terminus at Omaha on the Missouri. The bridge over the western channel of the Mississippi was completed after the consolidation of June, 1864.

The Beloit and Madison Railroad was built by a distinct company, and has been operated, as far as opened, by this company. It was completed into Madison in September, 1864. This road, yet under lease, is virtually owned by the Northwestern Company, as successor to the Galena Company, nearly all the shares having been converted into Northwestern preferred stock. The Fox River Valley Railroad was also chiefly owned by the Galena Company and what little was not, was purchased by an issue of bonds.

The following table traces the principal features of the finance of the Galena and Chicago Union Railroad through the whole history of the company:

Fiscal Year.	Railroad— Miles.	Cost.	Gross earnings.	Operat'g exp'ses.	Net earn'gs.	Dividend— Rate.	Am't.
1849-50	40½	$433,429	$48,520	$18,526	$29,994	10½c	$23,363
1850-51	42½	695,507	427,696	48,964	78,732	15	47,711
1851-52	84½	1,326 706	211 310	87,362	123,948	15	62,914
185 -53	92½	2,330,189	473,538	187,.96	286,162	20	149,973
1853-54	187½	4,143,656	799,013	359,199	439,814	16	353,155
1854-55	211½	6,552,163	1,506.710	698,517	808,193	17	546,519
1855-56	249½	8,429,041	2,315,787	1,063,745	1,252,042	23	986,594
1856-57	249½	8,979,804	2,416,844	1,295,493	1,120,851	20	1,026,580
1857-58	259	9,435,721	1,640,807	921,.52	719,555	5	301,115
1858 (8 mos.)	259	9,339,390	1,547,561	927,233	620,328	4	241,094
1859	259	9,354,514	1,369,441	823,021	546,420	2	120,598
1860	261	9,352,481	1,462,752	810,491	652,261	3	180,834
1861	261	9,352,081	1,720,396	909,211	811,185	5	301,490
1862	261	9,35.,081	1,777.541	942,936	834.605	3	482,273
1863	294	9,407,152	2,193,295	1,277,726	915,569	6	361,704
Dividend January, 1864						3	180,852
Dividend July, 1864, on consolidation						3	180,852
Total dividend in 15 years						174½	$5,616,370

The following shows the cost of road and the earnings, expenses, &c., per mile for the same years:

Fiscal years.	Cost of road p. m.	Earnings. Per mile of road.	Expenses. Per mile of road.	Profits. Per mile of road.	Exp. per annum.
1849-50	$10,198	$1,198	$457	$741	38.15
1850-51	16,559	3,040	1,166	1,.74	38.35
1851-52	21,399	3,408	1,509	1,599	53.06
1852-53	24,780	5,261	2,081	3,180	39.56
1853-54	31,874	6,146	2,768	3,383	44.96
1854-55	38,259	8,179	3,678	4,669	42.91
1855-56	36,281	9,960	5,575	4,385	55.98
1856-57	35,658	9,704	4,501	5,203	57.46
1857 (8 months)	36,059	6,589	3,699	2,890	56.14
1858	36,071	6,215	3,724	2,491	59.93
1859	36,218	5,509	3,294	2,265	59.58
1860	35,832	5,604	3,105	2,499	55.40
1861	35,832	6,59:	3,484	3,108	52.89
1862	35,832	6,810	3,613	3,197	51.58
1863	35,832	8,403	4,896	3,535	58.29

The business of the road for the ten years ending with 1863 is shown in the following table:

Fiscal year.	Mileage of trains.	Passengers— Number.	Passengers— Mileage.	Tonnage— Tons.	Tonnage— Mileage.
1854–55	633 288	471,325	24,753,989	386,344	25,616,758
1855–56	926,023	552,0 8	30,791,207	68 ,807	40,913,166
1856–57	1,153,894	612,753	31,420,941	69 ,808	42,794,695
1857 (8 months)	788,355	404,032	17,422,871	341,887	28,567,731
1858	808,235	394,713	17,996,396	342,317	27,854,767
1859	896,114	375,176	15,810,583	332,443	28,690,023
1860	[illegible]	[illegible]	14,162,324	3 1,188	33,338,698
1861	1,123,454	51 ,1 3	13, ,63	409,421	47,740,877
1862	1,273,791	389,339	16,607,182	497,632	47,581,169
1863	1,297,945	465,876	20,402,129	511,710	49,166,259

The share capital, bonds and floating debt at the end of each fiscal year have been as follows:

1849–50	$261,430	$136,971	$38,950	1857	$6,023,800	$3,899,015	$66,133
1850–51	354,498	397,571	37,699	1858	6,026,400	3,901,015	15,516
1851–52	838,114	681,500	85,806	1859	6,027,700	3,623,200	20,265
1852–53	1,857,159	520,500	41,443	1860	6,028,300	3,524,200	25,906
1853–54	2,682,167	1,382, 00	276,369	1861	6,028,400	3,414,700	32,644
1854–55	4,334,800	1,910,000	505,013	1862	6,028,400	3,353,000	35,421
1855–56	5,441,500	2,814,330	514,246	and—			
1856–57	6,013,000	2,958,015	672,7 8	1863	6,028,400	3,506,000	40,79

No separate statement of the operations of this road for the five months ending with May, 1864, has been published. The gross earnings of the Galena and Northwestern together were—January, $273,875 56, February, $317,839 43, March, $390,355 10, April, $421,363 04, May, $466,830 10, making a total of $870,263 23.

The following table shows the fluctuations of Galena stock at the New York stock exchange for the last four years of the separate existence of the company.

	1860–61.	1861–62.	1862–63.	1863–64.
July	62¾@73¾	60½@66½	66½@ 71¾	90¾@100
August	73 @82¾	63 @66½	67½@ 74¾	100 @114
September	76½@80	66¾@69¾	70¾@ 81¼	103½@112½
October	67½@78¾	69½@71¾	79¾@ 88	108¾@114¼
November	55 @73	69½@74	80 @ 86	104 @113¾
December	58½@67¾	63 @71¾	80 @ 83¾	103¼@109¼
January	63 @74½	65¼@69¼	86½@ 93¾	[illegible]
February	68¼@74½	65¾@ 79	88½@ 95	.....
March	68½@74	67¼@ 70	90 @ 95	.....
April	55 @73¾	66¾@68¾	91½@ 96½	.....
May	55½@61	66½@70	97½@112½	111½@140
June	56 @61¾	69¼@72¾	92 @107	138 @146
Year	55 @82¾	60¾@74	66½@112½	90¾@146

CHICAGO AND NORTHWESTERN RAILWAY.

On the 19th August, 1848, the Legislature of Wisconsin granted a charter to the Madison and Beloit Railroad Company, authorizing it to construct a railroad from Beloit, or from any other point on the north line of Illinois, viz: Janesville, Madison and La Crosse, to a point on the Mississippi at the line of Minnesota near St. Paul, and also from Janesville to Fond du Lac. By a subsequent act, approved February 8, 1850, the name of the Company was changed to that of the Rock River Valley Union Railroad Company and its powers extended.

On the 12th February, 1851, the Legislaure of Illinois chartered the Illinois and Wisconsin Railroad Company, with powers to construct a railroad from Chicago to the north line of the State, and to unite and

consolidate with any other company in the State of Wisconsin; and the work of construction on this line was commenced.

By an act of the Legislature of Wisconsin, approved March 10, 1855, the consolidation of the above two companies was authorized; and the consolidation was perfected to the 30th of the same month, the consolidated company assuming the title of the Chicago, St. Paul and Fond du Lac Company.

At this period the Illinois and Wisconsin Company had completed their road to Woodstock, 52 miles from Chicago and the Rock River Company, their road from Fond du Lac to Chester, 18 miles.

The object of the Chicago, St. Paul and Fond du Lac Company from the beginning, was the extension of their line from Janesville northwest, via Madison, &c., to St. Paul, and from Janesville to Fond du Lac, and ultimately to the mineral region of Lake Superior. Application was made to Congress for a grant of lands in aid of both these lines, which grant, chiefly through the efforts of this Company, was obtained in June, 1856, at which time Congress granted six sections per mile to the State of Wisconsin to be used in aid of the construction of the lines of road designated. In the fall of the same year an extra session of the State Legislature was called, at which a contest arose between different railroad companies seeking to have these lands conferred upon them. The result was that the lands upon the northwestern line were given by the State to the La Crosse and Milwaukee Company, and those upon the northern line to the Wisconsin and Superior Company, a corporation chartered at the same session, October 11, 1856. Thus the Chicago, St. Paul and Fond du Lac Company were deprived of the grant of lands, mainly if not wholly obtained by its own efforts.

Eventually, however, the contestant companies agreed to consolidate, and having obtained the legislative sanction by two acts dated Feb. 12 and 28, 1857, the consolidation was carried into effect on the 5th of the following month, the consolidation retaining the name of the Chicago, St. Paul and Fond du Lac Railroad Company. Subsequently, but in the same year, the land grant railroad companies of Michigan were also taken into the consolidation, which now possessed all the land grants for railroads from Fond du Lac northward to the State line, and thence in separate lines to Marquette and Ontonagon.

The financial revulsion of 1857 carried down with it, and suspended for a time, all further progress of the Chicago, St. Paul and Fond du Lac Railroad Company; and in consequence the Michigan Companies retreated from the consolidation, and abandoned the grants to the State again.

Early in 1859 re-organization was proposed as the only remedy for the troubles of the company, and the sanction of the Legislature of Wisconsin (that of Illinois being already granted) having been obtained to such a proceeding, the entire property of the Company was sold, June 2, 1859, the bondholders being the purchasers; by whom a new company was formed on the 6th of the same month under their present comprehensive title.

At this time the road was in operation from Chicago to Janesville, 92 miles. The 18 miles already completed from Fond du Lac to Chester remained as isolated as in 1855, except that in 1857 the road had been extended 17 miles further north to Oshkosh. The company now bent all

their energies to fill up the gap between Janesville and the northern section of the road, which was accomplished in the summer and fall of 1859. In the fall of 1860 and early in 1861, the line was extended to Appleton, 20 miles further, and in 1862 to Green Bay, 28 miles. This completed the main line of the road from Chicago to Green Bay, 242 miles.

In 1863 the Kenosha & Rockford Railroad Company whose line extended from Kenosha on Lake Michigan to Rockford on Rock River, 73 miles, became embarrassed and foreclosure and sale followed.

The property having been bought in by the bondholders, the company was re-organized; but eventually the securities of the company were exchanged for stock of the Northwestern company.

Thus the lines contributed by the Northwestern company to the consolidation of July, 1864, had a total length of 315 miles, viz: from Chicago to Green Bay 242, and from Kenosha to Rockford 73 miles.

The accounts of the company before the reorganization of 1859 are not available for statistical purposes. Those presented since that event show the following results.

The financial condition of the company on the 1st April, yearly, has been as follows:

April 1st.	Share Capital.	Funded Debt.	Other Liabilities.	Balance Income.	Total Amount.
1860	....	$7,260,035	$75,830	$93,461	$7,438,3[illegible]6
1861	2,893,759	7,279,000	326,962	343,580	10,823,29
1862	2,955,296	8,035,000	264,676	562,615	11,817,52
1863	3,731,316	8,335,000	226,642	854,178	13,147,13

Against which is charged—

April 1st.	C.,St.P.&F.du L. R.R. Purchase.	New constr'n & equipment.	Securities on hand.	Materials on hand.	Other Assets.
1860	$6,401,796	$706,132	$176,532	$82,480	$61,086
1861	9,312,749	1,333,034	31,125	61,691	84,700
1862	10,131,239	1,461,065	20,075	88,198	116,950
1863	10,849,939	1,986,933	19,750	100,743	189,771

The equipment on the road at the same dates was thus:

April. 1st.	Locomotive Engines.	Number of Cars— Pass.	Freight.	Total.
1860	26	24	402	426
1861	36	28	641	669
1862	36	31	639	670
1863	36	31	697	728

The earnings and expenses were as shown in the following accounts:

Years Ending.	Gross Earnings— Pass'nger.	Freight.	Mail,&c.	Total.	Operating Expenses.	Nett Earn'gs
Apr. 1 1860 (10 mos)	$153,167	$212,631	$18,861	$384,659	$322,587	$162,072
" 1861 (year)	241,226	451,495	27,984	720,705	350,236	370,469
" 1862 "	309,309	505,188	35,222	849,719	434,891	404,828
" 1863 "	376,098	671,534	35,422	1,083,054	569,781	513,278

And from net earnings were disbursed:

Year Ending,	Taxes.— State.	U. S.	Interest on bonds, &c.	Sundry Accounts.	Surplus to credit.
April 1, 1860	$11,098	.. ..	$46,959	$10,554	$93,461
" 1861	11,615	.....	119,925	9,110	230,119
" 1862	22,199	.....	180,347	13,247	239,035
" 1863	24,903	7,373	174,640	14,907	291,568

The following reduces the cost and earnings, &c., to their proportions per mile of road:

Fiscal term.	Aver. miles operated.	Earnings per mile.	Expenses per mile.	Profits per mile.	Expenses per cent.	Cost of road per mile.
1859-60 (10 mo)	166	$2,317	$1,470	$847	63.45	$38,342
1860-61 (9 mo)	200	2,819	1,335	1,484	47.35	49,823
1861-62	213	3,993	2,042	1,951	51.15	52,280
1862-63	228	4,750	2,706	2,044	56.96	53,045
1864 (June 1)	315	....	....	....	.....	47,300

No regular accounts were published after 1863. We have thus a financial interregnum of 14 months to June 1, 1864, when the new company began operations. The gross earnings of the two consolidated roads for the year ending 31st May, 1864, amounted to $4,681,807 40.

The following table shows the prices of the Northwestern stock at the New York Stock Exchange for the two and a half years ending June 20, 1865:

	1863.	1863-64.	1864-65.
July	.....	27½@28	48½@58
August	.....	32 @38¼	52 @58¼
September	.....	33 @37½	44½@54
October	.....	36 @47½	34 @46
November	.....	43½@50½	40½@47½
December	.....	43½@49	38 @44½
January	16 @23	45½@56	32½@42½
February	16 @21	47½@56	33 @43
March	16 @18¼	65½@88	29½@41
April	16 @26	47 @77	21½@35
May	25 @43	48¾@65¼	21½@32
June	28½@35¼	50 @60	26 @30
Year	16 @43	27½@88	29½@58

The preferred stock which was issued first for the 2d mortgage bonds, and those for consolidation purpose has undergone the following fluctuations:

	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.
1864	61 @67	65 @65	71 @87	70 @97	72 @94¼	86 @91½
	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.
1864	84 @93	85½@91¾	77 @86¾	67½@81	75½@85¼	69½@75½
	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.
1865	61¼@71¾	60¾@66½	48¼@63¾	48 @65¼	52¾@62	58½@64

—ranging in the eighteen months between 48 and 94½.

PENINSULA RAILROAD.

The Peninsula Railroad extends from Escanaba, on Green Bay, to nearly all the great iron mines of Lake Superior, and, connecting at the Jackson Mine with the railroad from Marquette to the mines, makes a through line to Lake Superior. It was opened in December, 1864.

The length of the Peninsula Road from the harbor and docks at Escanaba to the Jackson Mine, at Negaunee, and to its junction with the Marquette Railroad at that point is about 62 miles, and its extension from that point to the end of the Peninsula Railroad at the Cleveland Iron Mountain and the New York Company's mines, is about three miles further.

Branches from the main line to some five or six other mines, recently opened, and to the neighborhood of others proposed to be opened, amount in all to about five miles more of track, making the entire length full 70 miles; besides which there are several miles of side track, including ore-dock tracks at Escanaba. This dock is 32 feet high, 37 feet wide, and a quarter of a mile long, and is constructed to receive and hold some 20,000 to 30,000 tons of ore in pockets at one time, and for shuting it thence into the holds of vessels without re-handling. Its cost was $200,000.

Efforts were made from time to time by the Northwestern Company, previous to the consolidation of June, 1864, to secure a permanent connection or union with this road; and at the meeting of June, 1864, authority was conferred on the directors to carry out, if terms acceptable could be obtained, an object so desirable. This was accomplished, and in October, 1864, a consolidation was effected by an exchange of stocks, the

Northwestern giving half common and half preferred shares for Peninsula shares at par.

The distance from Escanaba to the main line of the Northwestern Railroad at Green Bay is about 110 miles. To connect these a road will b constructed along the shore of Lake Michigan.

The Peninsula Railroad purchase includes the lands granted o that road by Congress and the State of Michigan, amounting n all to 1,200,000 acres, and estimated to be worth about $2.500,000.

Previous to the consolidation of June, 1864, the Galena and Northwestern companies were active competitors at their several points of contact. This rivalry was as unwise as injurious, and if it had been continued would probably have ruined both companies. This state of things naturally called for a remedy, and, as such, consolidation of interests was proposed and accepted. With the sanction of a large majority of the stockholders of both lines, the Galena and Northwestern consolidated into the present company on the 2d June, 1864. This consolidation was further ratified and confirmed by the Legislature of Illinois by an act passed Feb. 15, 1865. The Galena company was admitted on the basis of one share of preferred and one share of common Northwestern stock, together with three dollars cash for each share of Galena stock—the cash being considered as equivalent to the usual half yearly dividend.

The advantages thus far resulting from this consolidation are all that were anticipated. By it the management has been improved, the use of the engines and cars extended, and the earnings of the roads largely increased; and as soon as the company can establish one general central depot at Chicago for the accommodation of its different lines, the business of all can be conducted there with a large reduction of expense.

To carry out and perfect the company's plans the Directors found it necessary to secure a controlling interest in the Chicago & Milwaukee Railroad, the only remaining line in competition with the Company's roads; and to effect this an exchange of the Northwestern Company for a majority of the stock of the Milwaukee Company was effected.

The principal efforts of the company are now directed towards the perfecting of their lines of road and supplementing the equipment thereof. For these purposes large sums of money will be necessary. This will be obtained on loan, a general mortgage having been given on the whole property of the company to secure the issues of bonds that may be made under it. These are denominated the "Consolidated Sinking Fund Bonds" of which the first $2.000.000 are convertible into preferred stock at any time before May 1, 1870. These first bonds are for equipment and improvements, and after February, 1866, $500.000 more may be issued. But after these last, no further issue can be made unless to take up a like amount of existing securities. These bonds, indeed, are to become the company's one and only series, into which all their other bonds may be consolidated.

SOUTHERN PRIVATEERS.

The capture of the Shenandoah closes the history of Southern privateers, and we give, therefore, a complete list of vessels destroyed or bond-

ed by them. It will be seen that there have been 4 steamers, 78 ships, 43 brigs, 82 barks, 68 schooners, in all 275 vessels of nearly 1,000,000 tons in the aggregate captured. We now add a short account of each vessel fitted out in behalf of the South.

The first Southern privateer was the Savannah, formerly Pilot boat No. 7, a schooner of 55 tons. She sailed from Charleston about June 1, 1861, under command of J. Harrison Baker, and captured the brig Joseph bound from Honduras for Philadelphia, with cargo sugar, &c. She accompanied the Joseph to Georgetown Bar, and on June 3 was captured by the U. S. brig Perry, and sent with prize crew to New York, where she was subsequently sold. She carried one eighteen pound gun, and her capture created much excitement, as her crew were at first held as pirates, though subsequently released.

The Sumter was built by C. H. & W. M. Crump in 1857, and called the Habano, afterwards the Alfonzo. She was 180 feet long, 30 feet beam, 10 feet depth of hold, drawing 9 feet 6 inches, and 500 tons burden, 9 guns, crew about 200 men. She left the Mississippi River on the 30th June, 1861, under command of Raphael Semmes, and captured several prizes, which were sent into Cienfuegoes, but subsequently released or recaptured. July 24, 1861, at Curacoa, and left; July 26, 1861, at Porto Cabello, with prize brig Abbie Bradford (released); August 20 she arrived at Surinam, and left August 31; September 16 was at Maranham, and October 10th among the Windward Isles; November 9 arrived at Martinique, and on November 20 was in lat. 20.35 N., lon. 57.12 W., making captures; January 4, 1862, she was at Cadiz, and arrived at Gibraltar January 19, 1862, where she remained some four months watched by U. S. cruisers, until escape becoming hopeless she was sold to English parties.

The privateer Jeff Davis, Captain Coxetter, was fitted out at Charleston, and in June, 1861, captured the bark Rowena; on July 9 she was off Nantucket, and next heard of about 800 miles east of Cape Florida, where she captured the ship John Crawford, and finally was wrecked on St. Augustine Bar August 17, 1861, having captured 7 vessels.

The privateer J. O. Nixon was fitted out at New Orleans, about August 1, 1861, but the blockade prevented her from doing much damage.

The Calhoun, Captain Wilson, was a steamer formerly on the line between Charleston and Savannah, and with the Joy and Music was fitted out at New Orleans.

The privateer Petrel, formerly the Revenue Cutter Aiken, was sunk by the U. S. S. St. Lawrence off Charleston about August 1, 1861.

The privateer Judah was destroyed at Pensacola Sept. 13, 1861, by an armed expedition in a boat sent from the U. S. blockade forces.

The Winslow was fitted out at Wilmington in 1861, and made five captures.

The schooner Sallie, formerly the Virginian, under command of Capt. Libby, left Charleston Oct. 10, 1861, making two captures.

The Nashville, Captain R. P. Pegram, 2,100 tons, was formerly in Spofford & Tileston's line of steamers between New York and Charleston, and was in Charleston at the beginning of the rebellion under command of L. M. Murray, who joined the rebels. She sailed from Charleston Oct. 26, 1861, evading the blockade, and arrived at Southampton November 20th, having captured and burnt the ship Harvey Birch. She

left Southampton February 3, 1862. the U. S. Steamer Tuscarora being prevented from pursuing her by the British Frigate Shannon. February 20 arrived at Bermuda; left 24th, and arrived at Beaufort, N. C., February 28, having ran the blockade March 18; she left Beaufort, and on the 27th was at Nassau. Her career was mainly as a blockade runner, and she was finally blockaded and burnt by U. S. iron clads near Savannah.

The Alabama was built at Birkenhead; 1,040 tons, 220 feet long, 32 feet beam, 17 feet depth of hold, engines 300 horse power. She left the Mersey July 29, 1862, arrived at Porto Praya Aug. 19th. On Sunday, Aug. 24, Capt. Raphael Semmes assumed command, hoisting the confederate flag, she cruized and captured several vessels in the vicinity of Flores. Cruizing to the westward and making several captures, she approached within 200 miles of New York, thence going southward, arrived on the 18th Nov. at Port Royal, Martinique. On the night of the 19th she escaped from the harbor, and the United States steamer San Jacinto, and on the 26th Nov. was at Blanquilla coaling. On Dec. 7th captured the United States steamer Ariel in the passage between Cuba and St. Domingo. On Sunday, Jan. 11, 1863, sunk the United States gunboat Hatteras off Galveston, and on the 30th arrived at Jamaica. Cruizing to the eastward and making many captures, she arrived on 10th April at Fernando de Noronha, and on 11th May at Bahia, where on the 13th she was joined by the rebel steamer Georgia. Cruizing near the line, thence southward toward the Cape of Good Hope, numerous captures were made, and on the 21st June, 1863, the bark Talisman wa commissioned as a cruizer in the rebel service. On the 29th July anchored in Saldanha Bay, South Africa, and near there, on the 5th Aug was joined by the rebel bark Tuscaloosa, Commander Low, same day anchored at Table Bay. September 16, 1863, was at St. Simon's Bay awaiting coals. October 6 was in the Straits of Sunda, and up to Jan 20, 1864, cruized in the Bay of Bengal and vicinity, visiting Singapore Dec. 22, 1863, and making a number of very valuable captures, includ ing the Highlander, Sonora, &c. From this point she cruized on her homeward track via Cape of Good Hope, capturing the bark Tycoon and ship Rockingham, and arrived at Cherbourg, France, June 11, 1864, where she repaired and was watched by the United States steamer Kearsarge, the battle resulting in her destruction occurring on the 19th June, 1864.

The Florida was formerly the Oreto, and in Aug. 1862, was under seizure at Nassau, but being released she ran into Mobile, Sept 4, 1862. She was then refitted and under command of Capt. J. N. Maffitt formerly of the United States Navy, she ran out through the blockade fleet at Mobile on the night of Jan. 15, 1863. She carried eight guns, and on Jan. 20th arrived at Havana, having captured the brig Estelle. Leaving on Jan. 22 she captured the brig Windward off the coast of Cuba. Jan. 26, 1863 arrived at Nassau. Feb. 12, 1863, in lat. 23 N., lon. 45 W., she captured the ship Jacob Bell, and on March 6 the ship Star of Peace. March 13th the schooner Aldebaran, April 24 the ship Oneida, in lat. 1.40 S., lon. 34. May 15th she captured the ship Crown Point in lat. 7 S., lon. 34. July 8, 1863, was not more than 60 miles from New York and chased the United States steamer Ericsson. On July 10th she captured the steamer Electric Spark in lat. 37.35 N. and lon. 74.25

W. July 16th, 1863, arrived at Bermuda. The capture of the Florida in the harbor of Bahia is well known and her career ended in her sinking in Hampton Roads.

The brig Clarence was captured by the rebel steamer Florida, May 6, 1863, and manned with one 12 pound howitzer, 20 men and 2 officers under command of Lieut. Reed, and subsequently captured the bark Tacony, June 12th in lat. 37.18 N., lon. 75.4 W. The guns, &c. were transferred to the Tacony and the Clarence burnt, as well as the schooner M. A. Shindler.

The Tacony, Lieut. Read, captured the brig Umpire, lat. 37.37 N., lon. 69.57, June 14th. Fishing boat L. A. Macomber of Norwalk, Ct., June 20th, 22 miles S. E. South Shoal Light. Ship Isaac Webb, lat. 40.35 N., lon. 68.45 W. (bonded). Ship Byzantium, bark Goodspeed off coast of Mass., June 21st. Schooners Marengo, Florence, fishing vessels Elizabeth Ann, Rufus Choate and Ripple, June 22, and was destroyed by her crew who left in the schooner Archer, and were subsequently captured by an expedition from Portland.

The Georgia formerly called the Japan cruized in the north and south Atlantic in 1863, capturing nine vessels. She was a British vessel fitted out like the Alabama from British ports.

The Echo, the Boston, the Conrad, the Tuscarora and the St. Nicholas each made one or more captures in 1862 and 1863.

The Retribution captured three vessels early in 1863 and was afterwards sold in the Bahamas.

The Tallahassee made two raids from the port of Wilmington, N. C. in 1864, capturing and destroying nearly 30 vessels, a number being fishing vessels. On Aug. 13, 1864, being within six miles of Nantucket Light Ship and ran back to Wilmington.

The Chicamauga, under command of Lieut. Wilkinson, left Wilmington Oct. 24, 1864.

The Shenandoah was built in October, 1863, at Glasgow, and called the Sea King. She is 790 tons, 200 horse power, iron frame, wood planking, owned by Wm. Wallace of London, being, like the Alabama, entirely of British origin and equipment.

In September, 1864, she was sold to Richard Wright of Liverpool, and under command of Capt. P. L. Corbett, who received written authority to sell her for not less than £45,000 within six months from October 7, 1864. She cleared at London for Bombay and arrived at Madeira, off which port she afterwards received guns and crew from the British Bark Laurel. She was christened the Shenandoah, and under command of Captain Waddell she sailed towards St. Helena, near which she destroyed a few vessels, thence going to Bay of Bengal and Straits of Sinda. She put into Melbourne for coal, and thence proceeded to the Arctic Sea, where, between the 1st of April and end of June, 1865, she destroyed 29 vessels.

She arrived at Liverpool, November 6, 1865, and surrendered to a British man-of-war, where she should fitly end her career, though late accounts state she has been surrendered to, and accepted by, an American Consul to send to the United States. Her origin, like that of the Alabama and Florida, was British, and her end should be British.

ALPHABETICAL LIST OF VESSELS CAPTURED BY REBEL PRIVATEERS.

REPORTED UP TO NOVEMBER 18, 1865, WITH NAME OF MASTER, PORT OF CLEARANCE, DESTINATION, DATE, PLACE OF CAPTURE, AND TONNAGE.

[PREPARED BY CAPT. I. H. UPTON, SECRETARY AMERICAN SHIPMASTERS' ASSOCIATION, FOR THE MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.]

Vessels.	Master.	Where from.	Where to.	Date.	Captured by.	Tons.
Abigail, bark		New Bedford	Whaling	May 27, 1865	Shenandoah, Ochotsk sea	375
Abbie Bradford, schr			Porto Cabello	July 25, 1861	Sumter (recaptured)	180
A B. Thompson, ship	J. M. Small	Savannah	New York	May 19, 1861	Off Port Royal, S. C	800
Ada, schr		Gloucester	Fishing Banks	June 23, 1863	Privateer Tacony	90
Adelaide, bark	Williams	Boston	Whaling	Oct. 13, 1864	Shenandoah, (bonded)	437
Adriatic, ship	Moore	London	New York	August 12, 1863	Tallahassee	998
A. J. Bird, sch	French	Rockland	Washington	Nov. 3, 1864	Olustee	178
Albert Adams, brig	Cousins	Cuba	New York	July 5, 1861	Steamer Sumter, off Cuba (Released)	192
Albion Lincoln, b rk	Bibber	Portland	Cuba	Oct. 29, 1864	Chickamauga	237
Aldebaran, schr.	Hand.	New York	Maranham	March 13, 1863	Steamer Florida	187
Alert, bark	Church	New London	Hurd's Island	Sept 9, 1862	Steamer Alabama, off the Flores 15 m	891
Alfred H Partridge, schr		Gloucester	Fishing Banks	June 7, 1863	Privateer Clarence (bonded)	100
Alina, bark		Newport, Eng	Buenos Ayres	Oct, 1864	Shenandoah	470
Alleghanian, ship	Barstow	Baltimore	London	Oct. 21, 1862	Destroyed by Rebels off the Rappahannock	1,142
Alliance, schr.		Philadelphia	Port Royal	Sept. 1863	Rebels	190
Altamaha, brig	Grey	Sippican	Atlantic Ocean	Sept 13, 1862	Steamer Alabama, off the Flores 15 m W.	300
Alvarado, bark		Capetown	Boston	June. 1861	Sumter, burned by Vincennes Aug. 5	299
Amanda, bark.	Larrabee	Manilla	Falmouth	Oct. 6, 1863	Steamer Alabama, Off Java Head	595
Amazonian, bark	Lovland	New York	Montevideo	June 2, 1863	Alabama, lat. 14. 15 S, lon. 34. 30 W	481
Anglo saxon, ship	Caverly	Liverpool	New York	Aug. 21, 1863	Florida, near Kinsale	868
Anna F. Schmidt, ship	Trembly	St. Thomas	San Francisco	July 2. 1863	Alabama, lat. 3 N, lon. 29 W (bonded)	784
Arabella, brig	J. W. Lindsay	Aspinwall	New York	Jan 12, 1863	Florida, (bonded)	291
Arcade, schr	Smith	Portland	Guadaloupe	Nov. 20. 1861	Sumter, lat 20 35 N, lon 57.12, W	122
Ariel, steamer	Jones	New York	Aspinwall	Dec 7. 1862	Steamer Alabama, E. end Cuba	1,295
A Richards, brig	Donovan	Glace Bay, C. B.	New York	August 11, 1863	Tallahassee	240
Arabella, brig	Conover	Gloucester	Fishing Banks	June 12, 1863	Privateer Tacony (bonded)	200
Archer, schr.		Gloucester	Fishing Banks	June 24, 1863	Privateer Tacony (recaptured)	100
Arcole, ship	Boreham	New Orleans	New York	Nov. 3, 1863	Tallahassee	663
Atlantic, schr	Wass.	Addison, Me.	New York		Tallahassee	240

ALPHABETICAL LIST OF VESSELS CAPTURED BY REBEL PRIVATEERS—(*Continued.*)

Vessels	Master.	Where from.	Where to.	Date.	Captured by	Tons.
Avon, ship	Howes	Howlands Island	Queenstown	March 29, 1864	Steamer Alabama, lat. 14, N. lon. 84 w	930
Baron de Castine, brig	C. W. Haskell	Castine	Cuba	Oct 29, 1862	Str Alabama, lat. 39 N, lon. 69 W. (bond)	267
Bay State, bark	Sparrow	Alexandria, Va	Boston	August 11, 1863	Tallahassee	199
Benj Dunning, brig	Farney	Cuba	New York	July 5, 1861	Steamer Sumter, off Cuba (released)	284
Benj. Tucker, ship	Childs	New Bedford	Whaling	Sept. 14, 1862	Steamer Alabama, off the Flores 30 m W.	800
Betsy Ames, brig		Cuba		Oct 1861	Sch. Sallie	265
Bethial Thayer, ship	Pendleton	Callao	Nantes	March 1, 1863	Steamer Alabama (bonded)	896
B. F. Hoxie, ship		Mazatlan	Falmouth	June 16, 1863	Florida, lat. 12 N, lon. 30 W	1,387
B. F Martin, brig	French	Philadelphia	Havana	June 16, 1861	Steamer Sumter	293
Billow, brig	Reed	Calais, Me	Baltimore	August 10, 1863	Tallahassee	173
Bold Hunter, ship	Crosby	Dundee, Scotland	Calcutta	Dec. 9, 1863	Georgia, Lat. 19.30, long 20.35 W	797
Boston, tug	Tibbetts	On Bar	New Orleans	June 9, 1863	Rebels at mouth of Mississippi, on bar	100
Brilliant, ship	George Hagar	New York	Liverpool	October 3, 1862	Steamer Alabama, lat. 40 N, lon. 50.30	839
Brunswick, bark	Potter	New Bedford	Whaling	June, 1865	Shenandoah, Arctic sea	226
Byzantium, ship	Robinson	London	New York	June 16, 1863	Privateer Tacony, lat. 41, lon. 69.10	1,048
Caleb Cushing cutter	Lieut Davenport	Portland	In Harbor	June 24, 1863	Clarence	150
California, bark	S. S. Hawthorne	St. Thomas	Cork	1861	Steamer Sumter	299
Catharine, bark		New Bedford	Whaling	June 26, 1865	Shenandoah, Arctic sea	226
Carrie Estelle, brig	Thurlow	Machias	Providence	August 11, 1864	Tallahassee	200
Castine, ship	Smith	Callao	England	Jan. 25 1863	Tallahassee	962
Charter Oak, schr	Kelley	Boston	San Francisco	Oct. 1864	Shenandoah	140
Charles Hill ship	Percival	Liverpool	Montevideo	Nov. 25, 1863	Alabama, lat. 7.30 N., lon. 26.20 W	699
Chastelain brig	Handy	Guadaloupe	Cienfuegos	Jan. 27, 1863	Steamer Alabama, off St. Domingo	240
Chesapeake, str.	Willetts	New York	Portland	Dec. 7, 1863	Rebels 20 m. N. of Cape Cod	460
City of Bath, ship	Cooper	Callao	Antwerp	June 28, 1863	Str. Georgia lat. 21 S, long. 29.10 (bonded)	786
Clarence, brig	Phinney	Bahia	Baltimore	1863	Steamer Florida	253
Commonwealth, ship	McLellan	New York	San Francisco	April 17, 1863	Florida, lat. 20 S, lon. 31 E	1,245
Congress 2d, bark		New Bedford	Whaling	June 28, 1865	Shenandoah, Arctic sea	375
Constitution ship	Webster	Philadelphia	Valpa raiso	June 25, 1863	Georgia, lat. 20 S, lon. 28 E	997
Conrad, bark	Maloney	Montivedeo	New York	June 20, 1863	Alabama, South Atlantic	347
Contest ship	F. G. Lucas	Yokahama	New York	Nov. 11, 1863	Alabama	1,093
Coral Wreath, brig	Blake		Providence	August 11, 1863	Tallahassee, lat. 5.15	260

Corris, Ann brig	Small	Philadelphia	Cardenas	Jan 22, 1863	Steamer Florida	235
Courser, schr	Young	Provincetown	Whaling	Sept 13, 1862	Steamer Alabama, off Flores	200
Covington, bark	Jenks	Warren, R. I	Whaling	June 23, 1865	Shenandoah, Artic sea	300
Cre shaw, schr	Nelson	New York	Glasgow	Oct. 26, 1862	Steamer Alabama, lat. 40 N., lon. 65 W	273
Crown Point, ship	John N. Geit	New York	San Francisco	May 15, 1863	Georgia, lat. 7 S., long. 34	1,098
Cuba, brig	J. G. Foster	New York	Vera Cruz	July 4, 1861	Steamer Sumter, off Cuba (released)	199
Daniel Trowbridge, schr	W. H. Morrow	New York	Demerara	Oct. 27, 1861	Steamer Sumter	200
David Lapsley, bark	Brown	Sombrero	Philadelphia		Florida	289
D. C. Pierce, bark	Quisls	Remedios	England	June, 1861	Privateer Jeff. Davis	396
Delphine, bark	Nichols	London	Akyab	Jan. 13, 1865	Shenandoah	698
D. Godfrey, bark	Hall	Boston	Valparaiso	Dec. 1864	Shenandoah	299
Dictator, ship	Phillips	Liverpool	Hong Kong	April 25, 1863	Georgia, lat. 25 N. lon. 21.40 W	1,293
Dorcas Prince, ship	Melcher	New York	Shanghae	April 26, 1863	Steamer Alabama lat. 7.35 S., lon. 31.35 W	699
Dunkirk, brig	Johnson	New York	Lisbon	October, 1862	Steamer Alabama, lat. 40.30, lon. 54.20 W	292
Eben Dodge, bark	Hoxie	New Bedford	Whaling	Dec. 8, 1861	Steamer Sumter	1,222
Edward, bark		New Bedford	Whaling	Dec. 4, 1864	Shenandoah	420
Edward Cary, bark		San Francisco	Whaling	April 1, 1865	Shenandoah, Ascension Island	370
Electric Spark, str	J. C. Graham	New York	New Orleans	July 10 1864	Florida, lat. 37.35 N, lon. 74.25	1,400
Elizabeth-Ann, schr	Thomas	Gloucester	Fishing	June 22, 1863	Privateer Tacony	100
Elisha Dunbar, bark	David R. Gifford	New Bedford	Whaling	Sept. 18, 1862	Alabama, lat. 39.50 N. lon. 35.20 W	300
Ella, schr	Warren	Tampico	New York	1861	Privateer Jeff. Davis	92
Emily Farnham, ship	Sines	Portsmouth	Moulmain	Oct. 3, 1862	Alabama, off Rio, (released)	1,119
Emily Fisher, brig	Staples	St. Jago	Guantanamo	March, 1863	Retribution	230
Emma L. Hall, bark	Geo. W. Coggins	Cardenas	New York	October 31, 1864	Chickmauga, lat. 39.20 N, lon. 70 W	492
Emma Jane, ship	Jordan	Bombay	Moulmain	Jan'y 14, 1864	Alabama, off Cochin	1,096
Empress Teresa, bark	W. C. Walker	Rio Janeiro	Baltimore	Nov. 1, 1864	Olustee	316
Enchantress, schr	Deveraux	Boston	St. Jago de Cuba	July 16, 1861	Privateer Jeff. Davis, 260m. from S. Hook	200
Estella, brig	Brown	Manzanilla	Boston	Jan. 17, 1863	Steamer Florida, lat. 23.50, lon. 84.17	300
Etta Caroline, str	Poor		Providence	August 10, 1863	Tallahassee	175
Euphrates, ship		New Bedford	Whaling	June 21, 1865	Shenandoah, Arctic sea	597
Express, ship	Frost	Callao	Antwerp	July 6, 1863	Alabama, lat. 8 S, lon. 25 W	1,072
Favorite, bark	Young	Fair Haven	Whaling	June 28, 1865	Shenandoah, Arctic sea	360
Flora Reed, Schooner	Jewett		Georgetown, Me	Aug. 15, 1863	Tallahassee	150
Florence, schr	Gardner	Gloucester	Fishing	June 22, 1863	Tacony (bonded)	200
E F. Lewis, schr	Lee	Portland	Philadelphia	Nov. 3, 1864	Olustee	197
Francis B. Cutting, ship	J. T. Maloney	Liverpool	New York	Aug. 6, 1863	Florida, lat. 41.10, lon. 44.20, (bonded)	796

ALPHABETICAL LIST OF VESSELS CAPTURED BY REBEL PRIVATEERS—(*Continued.*)

Vessels.	Master.	Where from.	Where to.	Date.	Captured by.	Tons.
Geo Griswold, ship	Pettengill	Caruiff	Callao	June 18, 1863	Georgia (bonded)	1,280
Geo. Latimer, schooner	Smith	Baltimore	Pernambuco	May 18th	Florida, lat 38 N, lon. 70 W	198
George V Baker, schr		Galveston	New York	Aug. 9 1861	Privateer York (recaptured)	100
Gen Berry, bark	Hooper	New York	Fortress Monroe	July 10th	Florida, lat. 38 N., lon. 70 W	469
Gen. Pike bark		New Bedford	Whaling	June 22, 1865	Shenandoah, (bonded)	425
Gen. Williams, ship	Benjamin, S. F.	New London	Whaling	June 25, 1865	Shenandoah, Arctic sea	469
Gipsey, bark		New Bedford	Whaling	June 26, 1865	Shenandoah, Arctic sea	390
Glen, bark	Holmes	Philadelphia	Tortugas	July, 1861	Steamer Sumter	287
Glenavon, bark	Watts	Glasgow	New York	Aug. 18th, 1863	Tallahassee	795
Golconda, bark	Winslow	Talcahuano	New Bedford	Jly 8th, 1864	Florida, lat. 37 N. lon. 72	331
Golden Eagle, ship	Swift	Howland's Island	Queenstown	Feb. 21, 1863	Steamer Alabama, lat. 29 N., lon. 46 W.	1,273
Golden Rule, bark	P H Whiteberry	New York	Aspinwall	Jan'y 26, 1863	Steamer Alabama, lat. 17 45 N	250
Golden Rod, schooner	Bishop	Holmes' Hole	Chesapeake Bay	Sept. 1863	Rebels in Chesapeake Bay	130
Golden Rocket, ship	Pendleton	Havana	Cienfuegos	July 13, 1861	Steamer Sumter	608
Good Hope bark	Gordon	Boston	Algoa Bay	June 22, 1863	Georgia, lat 22.29 S., lon. 42.39 W	486
Goodspeed bark	J. L Dutton	Londonderry	New York	June 21, 1863	Privateer Tacony, 40 m S E Nantucket	629
Goodspeed, schr.	Baxter	Boston	Philadelphia	Nov. 2, 1864	Tallahassee, off Block Island Light	280
Greenland, bark	Everett	Philadelphia	Pensacola	July 9, 1864	Florida	549
Grenada, brig	A. C. Pettingill	Neuvites	New York	Oct. 13, 1861	Schr. Sallie	255
Hannah Balch, brig	Matthews	Cardenas	Boston	July 6, 1862		149
Hanover, schooner	Case	Boston	Aux Cayes	Jan'y 31, 1863	Privateer Retribution	900
Harriet Spaulding, bark	Peabody	New York	Havre	Nov. 18, 1863	Steamer Alabama	300
Harriet Stevens, bark	Wormell	Portland	Cienfuegos		Florida	320
Harriet Ann U. S. str	Blake	Galveston	Blockade	Jan. 11, 1863	Rebels at Galveston	952
Harvest, bark		Honolulu	Whaling	April 1, 1865	Shenandoah, Ascension Island	525
Harvey Birch, ship	Nelson	Havre	New York	Nov. 19, 1862	Steamer Nashville	800
Hatteras, gunboat	Blake	Galveston	Blockade	Jan'y 13, 1863	Steamer Alabama, off Galveston, Texas	800
Hector, ship		New Bedford	Whaling	April 1, 1865	Shenandoah, Ascension Island	
Henry Nutt schr	Burnett	Key West	Philadelphia	August, 1861	Steamer Sumter	235
Henrietta bark	Brown	Baltimore	Rio Janeiro	1863	Steamer Alabama	489
Herbert, schr	Martin			July 18, 1861	Privateer Winslow	100
Highlander, ship	Snow	Singapore	New York	Dec. 26, 1863	Alabama, Straits of Malacca	1,149

Hillman, ship	Macomber	New Bedford	Whaling	June 27, 1865	Shenandoah, Arctic sea	600
Howard, bark	Burr		Providence	Aug. 15, 1864	Tallahassee	598
Isabella, bark		New Bedford	Whaling	June 27, 1865	Shenandoah, Arctic sea	394
Isaac Howland, ship		New Bedford	Whaling	June 28, 1865	Shenandoah, Arctic sea	900
Isaac Webb, ship	Hutchinson	Liverpool	New York	June 20, 1863	Tacony, lat. 40.35, lon. 68.46, (bonded)	1,300
Ivanhoe, brig	Conley	Nuevitas	New York	Aug. 4, 1861	Steamer Winslow	300
James Littlefield, ship	Bartlett	Cardiff	New York	Aug. 14, 1864	Tallahassee	599
James Maury, bark		New Bedford	Whaling	June 28, 1865	Shenandoah, Arctic sea	400
James L Gerity	I. Nichols	Matamoras	New York	Oct. 1863	Rebels as passengers	90
J. H. Howes, schooner	Freeman	Gloucester	Fishing	Aug. 14, 1864	Tallahassee	81
Jabez Snow, ship	Ginn	New York	Montevideo	March 25, 1863	Alabama, lat. 36 N., lon. 38 W	1,070
John Crawford, ship	Edge	Philadelphia	Key West	Aug. 1861	Privateer eff Davis	
John Watt, ship	Winchell	Maulmain	Falmouth	Oct 1863	Georgia (bonded)	974
John Jacob Bell, ship	Frisbee	Foochow	New York	Feb. 12, 1863	Steamer Florida, lat. 24, lon. 65	1,382
Jireh Swift bark		New Bedford	Whaling	June 23, 1865	Shenandoah, Arctic sea	360
John Adams, schr	C. B Areral	Provincetown	Whaling	May, 1861	Calhoun	100
John A. Park, ship	Cooper	New York	Buenos Ayres	March 2, 1863	Steamer Alabama, lat. 36 N., lon. 38 W	1,050
John Welsh, brig	Fifield	Trinidad	Falmouth, Eng	July 16, 1861	Privateer Jeff. Davis	275
Joseph, brig	Myers	Cardenas	Philadelphia	June 15, 1861	Privateer Savannah	171
Joseph Maxwell, bark	Davis	Philadelphia	Laguayra	July 27, 1861	Steamer Sumter, off Porto Cabello, releas'd	295
Joseph Parks, brig		Pernambuco	New York	Dec. 25, 1861	Steamer Sumter	300
J. P. Ellicott, brig	Deveraux	Boston	Cienfuegos	Jan. 10, 1863	Retribution	237
J. R. Watson schr	Eldridge	New York		July 13, 1861		200
J. S. Harris, ship	G. W. Collier	Cuba	New York	1861	Steamer Sumter	800
Justina bark	Miller	Rio Janeiro	New York	May 25, 1863	Alabama, lat. 12 S., lon. 35.30 W, (bonded)	400
J. W. Seaver, bark	Snow	Boston	Hong Kong	June 22, 1863	Georgia, (bonded)	340
Kate Cory, brig	Flanders	Westport	Whaling	April 15, 1863	Steamer Alabama, off Fernando de Noronha	125
Kate Dye, ship	A. Dyer	Callao	Antwerp	June 17, 1863	Lapwing (bonded)	1,278
Kate Prince, ship	Libbey	Cardiff	Rio Janeiro	Nov. 12, 1864	Shenandoah, (bonded)	997
Kate Stewart, schr	W. B. Wood	Philadelphia	Newcastle	June, 1863	Str Florida, lat. 37.10, lon 75.04, (bonded)	587
Kingfisher schr	Lambert	Fairhaven	Whaling	March 28, 1864	Alabama, lat. 12 N., lon. 35 W.	125
Lapwing, bark	Bolger	Boston	Batavia	March 27, 1863	Steamer Florida, lat 31, lon. 62	590
Lafayette, ship	Small	New York	Belfast, Ireland	Oct. 23, 1862	Steamer Alabama, lat 40 N., lon. 64 W	945
Lafayette bark	Lewis	New Bedford	Whaling	April 15, 1863	Alabama, off Fernando de Noronha	300
Lamplighter, bark	Harding	New York	Gibraltar	Oct. 15, 1862	Steamer Alabama, lat. 41.30 S., lon. 59.17 W	279
L. A. Macomber, schr	Potter	Noank	Fishing	June 20, 1863	Privateer Tacony	100

ALPHABETICAL LIST OF VESSELS CAPTURED BY REBEL PRIVATEERS—(*Continued*).

Vessels.	Master.	Where from.	Where to.	Date.	Captured by	Tons.
Lamont Dupont, schr.	Corson.	Wilmington, Del.	Ang. 13, 1864.	Talahassee		194
Lauretta, bark	W. M Wells	New York	Messina	Oct. 28, 1862	Steamer Alabama, lat. 39.45 N., lon. 68 W.	284
Lenox, bark	Seth Cole.	New York	New Orleans	June 12, 1863.	Boston, at mouth of Mississippi	370
Levi Starbuck, ship	McMellen.	New Bedford	Whaling	Nov. 2, 1862.	Steamer Alabama, lat. 35.30, lon. 66	376
Living Age, ship	Emery	Akyab	Falmouth	Sept 13, 1863.	Tuscarora, lat. 4·48, lon. 2 E.	1,198
Lizzie M. Stacey, schr	Whaley	Boston	Honolulu	Nov. 13, 1864.	Shenandoah	140
Louisa Hatch, ship.	Grant.	Cardiff	Singapore	1863	Steamer Alabama	835
Louisa Kilham, bark	White	Cienfuegos	Falmouth, Eng	July 6, 1861	Steamer Sumter, off Cuba, released	468
Lydia Francis, brig	Campbell			June 15, 1862.	Off Hatteras	262
Machias, brig	Shoppy			July 4, 1862	Steamer Sumter, off Cuba	250
Magnolia, schr.	Chase			Aug. 15, 1864.	Tallahassee	170
Manchester, ship.	Landerkin	New York	Liverpool	Oct. 11, 1862.	Alabama, lat. 41.25 N., lon. 55.50 W.	1,075
Marengo, schr.	Freeman	Gloucester	Fishing	June 22, 1863.	Privateer Tacony	200
Mary E. Thompson, brig.	Havener			July 9, 1862.	Privateer Echo	210
Mark L Potter, bark.	R. T. pley	Bangor	Ship Island	Oct. 30, 1864.	Chickamauga, lat. 39.20 N, lon. 70 W.	400
Mary Alice, schr.	Walsh	Porto Rico	New York	July, 1861	Privateer Winslow	181
Mary Alvina, brig.	Crobich	Boston	New Orleans	June, 1863	Steamer Florida, lat. 34.25 N., lon. 74.23.	266
Mary Goodell, schr.	McGilvery			July 9, 1862	Privateer Echo	200
Mary Pierce, schr.	Dodge	Boston	Washington	July 1, 1862.	Privateer St. Nicholas	192
Margaret, schr	Hansen			June 29, 1862.	Privateer St Nicholas	206
Martha Wenzell, bark	Sears.	Akyab	Falmouth	Aug. 9, 1863.	Alabama, False Bay (Released)	578
Martha 2d. bark.	Macomber.	New Bedford	Whaling	June 28, 1865.	Shenandoah, Arctic sea	298
M. A. Schindler, schr.	Wm. Ireland	Port Royal	Philadelphia	June 12, 1863.	Steamer Florida, lat. 37.18, lon. 75.4	249
Martaban, ship	Pike	Maulmain	England	Dec. 24, 1863.	Alabama, off Pulo Pisang	807
Margaret Y. Davis, schr.	West.	Port Royal	New York	July 9, 1864	Florida, lat 38 N, lon. 71 W.	270
Mercy Howe, schr.	Smith.	Chatham		Aug. 15 1864.	Tallahassee	148
Mermaid, schr.	Soper.	Provincetown.	Whaling	May, 1862.	Privateer Calhoun	200
Milo, ship		New Bedford	Whaling	June 28, 1865.	Shenandoah, (bonded)	500
M. J. Colcord, bark	Rufus Harriman.	New York	Cape Town, C.G.H.	March 30, 1863.	Steamer Florida, lat. 28, lon. 33	374
Mondamin, bark.	Crowell.	Rio Janeiro.	Baltimore	Sept., 1864.	Florida	886
Monticello, brig	Hopkins	Rio Janeiro.	Baltimore	July 1, 1862	Privateer St. Nicholas	300
Morning Star, ship.	Burgess.	Calcutta	London	March 23, 1863.	Steamer Alabama, lat. 2 N (bonded)	1,105

Naiad, brig	Chase			July 6, 1861	Steamer Sumter, off Cuba, (released)	800
Nassau, ship	Green	New Bedford	Whaling	June 28, 1865	Shenandoah, Arctic sea	450
N. Chase, schr	Doane	New York	Antigua	Sept. 1861	Steamer Sumter	150
Neapolitan, bark	Burdett	Messina	Boston	Feb. 1862	Steamer Sumter	322
Nile, bark		New London	Whaling	June 22, 1865	Shenandoah, (bonded)	380
Nimrod, bark		New Bedford	Whaling	June 25, 1865	Shenandoah, Arctic sea	340
Nora, ship	Adams	Liverpool	Calcutta	March 25, 1863	Steamer Alabama, lat. 7.30 N., lon 26.20 W.	800
North America, schr	Mamwaring	Conn	Fishing	1864	Tallahassee	95
Nye, bark	Barker	New Bedford	Whaling	April 24, 1863	Steamer Alabama, off Fernando de Noronha	300
Ocean Rover, bark	Clark	Mattapoisett	Whaling	Sept. 8, 1862	Steamer Alabama off Flores	766
Ocean Eagle	Luce	Rockland	New Orleans	1861	Steamer Sumter	290
Ocmulgee, ship	Osborne	Edgartown	Whaling	Sept. 6, 1862	Steamer Alabama, off the Flores	300
Olive Jane, bark	Kallock	Bordeaux	New York	Feb. 21, 1863	Steamer Alabama, lat 29 N, lon 45 W	300
Oneida, ship	Potter	Shanghae	New York	April 24, 1863	Steamer Alabama, lat 1 40 S, lon. 29 W	420
Palmetto, schr	O. H. Leland	New York	Porto Rico	Feb. 8, 1864	Steamer Alabama, lat 26 N, lon. 67 W	172
Panama, brig	Cook	Provincetown	Whaling	May 29, 1861	Privateer Calhoun	153
Parker Cook, bark	Fulton	Boston	Aux Cayes	Nov. 30, 1862	Steamer Alabama, lat. 18 30 N	180
P. C. Alexander, bark	Merryman	New York	Pictou	1864	Tallahassee	284
Pearl, schr	Smith		Fishing	Aug. 16	Tallahassee	183
Pearl, schr	Tuthill	Moriches	York River	1862	Rebels in York River,	183
Pearl, bark		New London	Whaling	April 1, 1865	Shenandoah, Ascension Island	275
Prince of Wales, ship	Morse	Callao	Antwerp	July 16, 1863	Georgia, (bonded)	960
Protector, schr	J. Clark	Cuba	Philadelphia	June, 1861		200
Priscilla, schr	Crowther	Curacao	Baltimore	July, 1862	Privateer Winslow	144
Punjaub, ship	Miller	Calcutta	Liverpool	March 15, 1863	Steamer Alabama, (bonded)	760
Rasselas, schr	Woodward	Boothbay, Me	Fishing	Aug. 23, 1863	Tallahassee	90
Red Gauntlet, ship	Howes	Buena Vista	New York	May 26, 1863	Florida, lat. 29.23, lon. 86 W	1,038
Renzi, schr	Avery	Provincetown	Fishing	July 7, 1863	Florida, 75 M, Gay Head	95
Ripple, schr	Gearing	Gloucester	Fishing	June 22, 1863	Privateer Tacony	150
Roan, brig	Rogers	Salisbury		Aug. 20, 1864	Tallahassee	127
Robert Gilfillan, schr	Smith	Philadelphia	St. Domingo	Feb. 26, 1862	Steamer Nashville, Gulf Stream	240
Rockingham, ship	Gerrish	Callao	London	April 23, 1864	Alabama	976
Rowena, bark	Wilson	Laguayra	Philadelphia	June, 1861	Privateer Jeff Davis	340
Rufus Choate, schr	Smith	Gloucester	Fishing	June 22, 1863	Privateer Tacony	100
Sarah A Boyce, schr	Adams	Boston	Philadelphia	Aug. 11, 1864	Tallahassee	220
Sarah Louisa, schr	Palmer			1864	Tallahassee	61

ALPHABETICAL LIST OF VESSELS CAPTURED BY REBEL PRIVATEERS—(*Continued.*)

Vessels.	Master.	Where from.	Where to.	Date.	Captured by	Tons.
Santa Clara, brig	C. Jordeson	Porto Rico	Boston	1861	Steamer Sumter	189
Santee, ship	Parker	Akyab	Falmouth	Aug. 5, 1863	Conrad, (bonded)	898
Sea Bird, schr.	Scott	Philadelphia	Newbern	1863	By rebels, at the mouth of Neuse River	200
Sea Bride, bark	White	New York	Capetown	Aug. 5, 1863	Alabama, near Capetown	447
Sea Witch, schr	W. Egbert	Baracoa	New York	1861	By rebels, at the mouth of Neuse River	95
Sea Lark, ship	Peck	Boston	San Francisco	May 3, 1863	Steamer Alabama, lat. 9.35 S., lon. 31.20 W.	974
Sebasticook, ship	Chase	Liverpool	Charleston	1861	Steamer Sumter	549
S. Gildersleeve, ship	McCullum	Sunderland	Calcutta	May 25, 1863	Steamer Alabama, off Brazil	847
Shattemuc, ship	J. H Oxnard	Liverpool	Boston	June 24, 1863	Privateer Tacony, lat. 43.10, lon 68.4 (bond)	849
Shooting Star, ship	N. Drinkwater	New York	Panama	Oct. 31, 1861	Chickamauga lat. 39.20, lon. 70 W	947
S. J. Waring, schr	Smith	New York	Buenos Ayres	July 16, 1863	Privateer Jeff Davis, (recaptured)	372
Sonora, ship	Brown	Singapore	New York	Dec 26, 1863	Alabama, lat. 2 S. lon 106 E.	707
Sophia Thornt n, ship	New Bedford	Whaling		June 28, 1865	Shenandoah, Arctic sea	400
Southern Rights, ship	Knowles	Rangoon	Falmouth	Aug. 22, 1863	Florida (bonded	830
Southern Cross	Lucas	Boston	Hay Kay	June 6, 1863	Florida, lat. 34 S, lon. 36 W	988
Spokane, schr	Sawyer	Calais	Philadelphia	Aug. 12, 1864	Tallahassee	126
Starlight schr	Doane	Fayal	Flores	Sept. 7, 1862	Steamer Alabama, off the Flores 5 m	205
Star of Peace, ship	Hinckley	Calcutta	Boston	March 6, 1863	Steamer Florida	941
Sunrise, ship	R. Luce	New York	Liverpool	July, 1863	Florida lat. 40 N., lon. 68 W., (bonded)	1,174
Susan Abigail, bark		San Francisco	Whaling	June 28, 1865	Shenandoah	159
Susan, brig	F. W. Hansen	San Francisco	Rio Grand del Sud	June 4, 1865	Shenandoah, (bonded) lt. 4.30 N, ln. 26.40 W	
Tacony, bark	Wm. G. Mundy	Port Royal	Philadelphia	June 12, 1863	Steamer Florida, lat. 37.18, lon. 75.04	294
Talisman ship	Howard	New York	Shanghae	June 5, 1863	Alabama, lat. 9 40 S, lon. 32.30 W	1,289
T. B Wales, ship	Lincoln	Calcutta	Boston	Nov. 8, 1863	Steamer Alabama, lat. 14 S., lon. 34 W	599
T. D. Wagner, brig	J. Bergman	Ft. Monroe	New York	Nov. 3, 1864	Olustee	390
Texana, bark	Thos E Wolfe	New York	New Orleans	June 12, 1863	Privateer Boston, at mouth of Miss.	588
Tonawanda, ship	T. Julius	Philadelphia	Liverpool	Oct. 9, 1862	Alabama, lat. 28.30 N, lon. 58 W. (released)	1,300
Transit schr	H. Knowles	New London		July 15, 1861	Steamer Winslow	195
Tycoon, bark	Ayers	New York	San Francisco		Alabama	785
Umpire, brig	Perry	Laguna	Boston	June 15, 1863	Privateer Tacony, lat. 37, lon 69.57½	196
Union Jack bark	O. P. Weaver	New York	Shanghae	May 3, 1863	Steamer Alabama, lat. 9.35 S, lon. 3.20	800
Union, schr	Young	Baltimore	Jamaica	Dec. 5, 1862	Bonded, off Cuba	115

Varnum, H. Hill, schr		Provincetown	Cruising	June 27, 1862	Florida, lat. 30 N, lon. 48.50 (bonded)	90
Vigilant, ship	R. Minott	New York	Falmouth	Dec. 3, 1861	Sumter, lat. 29. 12 N, lon. 57.20 W	650
Virginia, bark	S. R. Tilton	New Bedford	Whaling	Sept. 17, 1862	Alabama, lat 39.10 N., lon. 32.30 W	300
Wanderer, schr		Gloucester	Fishing	June 22, 1863	Privateer Tacony	125
Washington, ship	White	Callao	Cork	Feb 27, 1863	Alabama, (released)	1,655
Waverly, bark	Holley	New Bedford	Whaling	June 28, 1865	Shenandoah, Arctic sea	450
Wave Crest, bark	Harmon	New York	Cardiff	Oct. 7, 1862	Alabama, lat. 40.25 N., lon. 54.25 W	409
Weather Guage, schr	G. Clark, Jr.	Provincetown	Whaling	Sept. 4, 1862	Steamer Alabama, off the Flores	200
West Wind, bark	Saunders	New York	New Orleans	July 6, 1861	Steamer Sumter, off Cuba, released	429
Whistling Wind, bark	Butler	Philadelphia	New Orleans	June 6, 1863	Privateer Clarence, lat. 33.38, lon. 71.29	349
William B. Nash, brig	Coffin	New York	Marseilles	July 8, 1863	Florida, lat. 40 N., lon. 70 W	299
William Thompson, ship		New Bedford	Whaling	June 22, 1865	Shenandoah, Arctic sea	600
W. McGilvery, brig	Harriman	Cardenas	Philadelphia	July, 1861	Privateer Jeff Davis	198
Windward, brig	Roberts	Matanzas	Boston	Jan 22, 1863	Steamer Florida, off Cuba	199
Winged Racer, ship	Cumming	Manilla	New York	Nov. 10, 1863	Alabama, in Straits of Malacca	1,767
Wm. C. Clark, brig	Farnsworth	Machias	Matanzas	June 17	Florida	338
Wm. C. Nye. bark		San Francisco	Whaling	June 26, 1865	Shenandoah, Arctic sea	388
W. S. Robbins, bark		Arroya	New York	June, 1861	Steamer Sumter	460
Zealand, bark	Shackford	New Orleans	Eastport, Me	June 10, 1846	Florida	380

COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW.

The Late Stringency—Return to Specie Payments cannot be done suddenly—Contraction without Disaster is possible if carried on wisely—Causes for the Decline in Government Securities—Prices of Same—The Stock Market—The "Corner" in Prairie du Chien—Course of Gold in November—Rates of Exchange, &c.

THE past month has been marked by considerable monetary anxiety, without there being any violent fluctuations in the rate of interest. Early in the month the market received an impulse towards stringency, but later there was a decided relief, although great caution is still used in the employment of money. This, together with the incertitude that prevails, is exerting a depressing influence over the operations of legitimate business in all parts of the country. The rate of interest has been as follows:

		Discount.	
	Call loans.	A 1 names.	Lower grades.
November 5	.7	7 @ 9	10 @ 15
" 11	.7	8 @10	10 @ 15
" 18	6 @ 7	8 @10	10 @ 15
" 25	6 @ 7	7 @ 9	10 @ 15

Great anxiety is felt to know the plans of Mr. MCCULLOCH, and what he will recommend to Congress, since upon the acts of the Treasury depends the state of the money market. There are, of course, many and different rumors; one party claiming that we are, under the guise of contraction, to have more inflation; another that we are to return slowly and surely to a specie basis; and still another that there is to be a sudden contraction; a leading daily paper suggesting that two hundred millions of paper money are to be in a very short interval destroyed.

Without claiming any especial private knowledge of these recommendations and future actions of Mr. MCCULLOCH, one or two points must be evident to all, which, if well understood, would relieve much of the present anxiety. And first the withdrawal of two hundred millions of currency is absolutely impracticable. It, of course, means the negotiation of a loan for that sum; and no such amount of bonds could be negotiated in an uneasy money market, except at a sacrifice which would defeat its own purpose, and compromise the national credit at home and abroad. Indeed, it is impossible that any movements of the Treasury towards currency contraction should cause serious prolonged stringency. Such perturbations always cause government securities to be forced on the market; because the weaker holders are compelled to sell in order to protect their credit, preserve their solvency, and meet the sudden interruption of the accommodation they had previously been relying on. These securities would compete in the market with the contraction loan offered by the government with what result it is easy to see.

The great safeguard of our financial system, however, and its chief protector against stringency is found in the call loans. Of these there are in the Treasury no less than $100,000,000 at 4, 5, and 6 per cent interest. Now, the very earliest tremors of monetary perturbation cause a demand upon the Treasury for the re-

payment of part of these demand loans, and the drain continues until the equilibrium is restored and the stringency passes away.

Not to mention others then, there are these two reasons why no plan adopted by the Treasury with a view to contraction, can for some time to come produce serious disturbance in the rate of interest. First the market is too heavily burdened with government securities to admit of the sale of a contraction loan by Mr. McCulloch when money is not extremely easy; and secondly if stringency, from any cause, supervenes, it is immediately followed by a drain on the call loans which gives renewed elasticity to the currency, and brings out legal tenders from the Treasury vaults until the evil is corrected, and confidence revives.

But it may be urged that if this be so, contraction and restoration of the currency are impossible. In answer we need only point to the fact that during the space of a few months, and without any disturbance of the money market, the active currency has been in effect diminished to the extent of more than 150 millions of dollars by the almost unperceived agency of the compound interest notes. If, then, compound notes are in their turn absorbed by long bonds offered in judicious amounts, and at fit times; and if our 428 millions of greenbacks are gradually replaced by new compound notes, which can be hereafter absorbed; it is probable that by slow, gentle steps we shall achieve the object which would baffle and defy more violent and hasty efforts, and shall be able to withdraw all our government paper money, leaving the field of the currency free to the national bank notes based on government bonds, and redeemable in coin on demand. Even should this process of currency reform require several years for its complete accomplishment, it will only be because the work is so great, and cannot probably be sooner done.

Government securities during the month have also suffered—the prices of gold-bearing bonds as well as the short currency obligations being lower. Many causes have united to produce this result. Chief among them is undoubtedly the undue expansion and consequent weakness of some of our banks. The reports of our city banks, says a daily newspaper "show that a very large increase in loans has been made by such banks as have large country connections. This is, no doubt, caused by the circumstance that some of the interior banks have been expanding beyond all safe limits, and have had to seek accommodation here in consequence. We may mention one country bank as an example. Its capital is two hundred and fifty thousand dollars, all of which is invested in government bonds, and placed at Washington as security for circulation, or for government deposits. Notwithstanding this investment of its available means, the officers have actually lent to their customers no less than four millions of dollars. Under the recent pressure it need not be wondered at that this institution had to sell at a sacrifice a considerable amount of Seven-thirties."

The merchants, operators, and other persons who receive this accommodation were not slow to enter into the spirit of the banks that granted it. They were carried away with the same contagious example of expansion, and plunged recklessly into speculations attended with unusual risk. The warning was, therefore, not uncalled for, which Mr. McCulloch is reported to have uttered on a recent

occasion, that the banks were compromising themselves by "discounting paper the soundness of which depends on continued high prices."

But this expansion of credit to speculators in breadstuffs, cotton and other commodities was not the only means by which the banks weakened their position. During the negotiation of the last 230 millions of seven-thirties, it was observed that an unusually small aggregate was taken in the Atlantic cities. Nearly all was absorbed in the interior, and passed in some cases into banks whose means were already too deeply pledged by prior engagements. Indeed Western bank officers, during the last week or two, have been seeking accommotion here, whose accounts showed that they held seven-thirties to an amount equal to three or four times their capital. From motives into which we may enquire more particularly hereafter, these institutions have been induced to load themselves up with a burden of seven-thirties, ten-forties, and five-twenties far beyond their strength. They ventured in fact to invest in these and in other descriptions of government paper not available for paying their debts, so large a portion of their means, that they found themselves under the necessity of refusing accommodation to their customers, or of depending on their correspondents here to an extent which no sound conservative bank officer, in the most tranquil times, could contemplate without grave apprehension.

While the money market was easy, and accommodation could be had at a low rate of interest, no harm seemed to come of this reckless expansion, and the frail barques which were carrying so much sail and so little ballast, seemed to be making a prosperous swift voyage. At the same time the contractors who had received in part payment considerable amounts of the second series of seven-thirties under a promise not to sell them until four months had elapsed from the date of issue, were raising heavy loans on them at 4 or 5 per cent interest. When the rate, however, was advanced to 6 and 7 per cent, these contractors became eager to sell out. Large amounts of the seven-thirties were thus pressed on the market, and had to be offered at a concession in price to tempt purchasers.

Such was the state of things when the usual autumn demand set in for money to move the crops. The interior banks which ought to have reserved their strength to meet this drain upon their resources, had been venturing beyond their depth, and had locked up their available means in securities which had already begun to depreciate upon their hands. At this critical moment, too, came Mr. McCulloch's contraction loan, which absorbed some of the compound interest notes held as reserve. This loan could have been easily disposed of had it appeared a few weeks earlier, but cooperating with the other causes of derangement, it added for the moment another element of weakness to the position of the banks. Moreover, they were suddenly called to pay off the government deposits.

These causes operating on the banks and others, forced government securities largely on the market. At the same time the foreign demand for these securities fell off, due probably to the rise in the Bank of England rate of discount, and the uncertain state of our foreign relations. More recently our foreign affairs have assumed a still more threathening aspect, and prevented the reaction in government which would otherwise have taken place. Many find it impossible to

resist the conclusion that the events of the past few weeks point to a forcable solution of the Mexican question. The general sentiment of the people; the movements of large bodies of troops towards the Mexican frontier; the acts and words of our leading generals, and the assumed position of the government; all, it is claimed, indicate a fixed purpose of interferrence with, or, at least, of opposition to further measures on the part of France to uphold Maximillian. We do not believe, however, in the correctness of this conclusion. No war with France will result from this Mexican question. The people do not wish it; the country cannot afford it; and the government is too wise to plunge us into it. But so long as these rumors and reports find believers Governments must be depressed.

The following table shows the prices of Governments and Gold since July:

PRICES OF UNITED STATES PAPER AND GOLD.

	6's, 1881.		5-20's, new iss.				
	Reg.	Coup.	Reg.	Coup.	10-40's.	1 year certif.	Gold price.
July 5,....	110¼	110¼	104	105	97⅛	99⅞	139¼@140⅛
" 12,....	107¼	107⅛	105	105⅛	97⅛	99⅛	140⅛@142⅛
" 19,....	107¼	107⅛	104⅛	105	97	99⅞	142¼@143
" 26,....	107	107¼	105	105¼	97	98	143¼@143⅝
Aug. 5,....	107	107⅛	104⅞	105¼	97¼	97⅝	145⅛@143⅞
" 12,....	106¼	106⅝	104¼	104⅝	97¼	97⅝	141⅛@142
" 19,....	106¼	106¼	104⅛	104⅞	97⅞	98⅛	143⅝@144¼
" 26,....	106⅝	106⅞	104⅝	104⅞	98¼	98¼	144 @144⅛
Sept. 2,....	107¼	107¼	104⅝	104⅞	94⅝	98¼	144¼@144⅛
" 9,....	107⅛	107⅛	105¼	105⅝	94¼	98⅞	144⅛@144⅝
" 16, ...	107⅛	107⅛	105⅛	105½	94	98⅝	142⅞@143½
" 23,....	107¼	108	106¼	106¼	94⅛	98⅝	143¼@143⅝
" 30,....	107⅛	107⅝	106	107	94¼	98⅝	144 @144¼
Oct. 7,....	107⅛	107⅝	101½	101	93⅝	98½	146 @146⅛
" 14,....	107	107⅞	102	102	93⅛	98½	144⅛@144⅞
" 21,....	106	106⅞	101⅛	101⅛	93	97⅝	145⅛@146⅛
" 28,....	106	106⅞	101	101½	92⅞	98	145⅛@145⅞
Nov. 4, ...	106½	106⅛	101⅛	101⅛	92⅝	97⅝	146⅜@147¼
" 11,....	105½	105⅝	100⅛	100¼	91¼	97¼	146⅝@146⅞
" 18,....	105⅜	105⅞	100⅛	100⅛	91⅛	97⅝	146⅞@ 47
" 25, ...	106	105⅞	100	101⅛	91	97⅛	146⅞@147¼

The stock market during the month has shown considerable buoyancy, but is particularly remarkable on account of the "corner" a few speculators worked in one of the small western railroad stocks. These men, some of whom are reported to have been concerned in the disgraceful speculation in Harlem stock last year, have for months been secretly organizing their present operations, the common stock of the Prairie du Chien Railroad being the one selected Their first efforts were directed to the buying up of the stock, which consists of about 29.000 shares, and was selling a few weeks ago at 40. Next, they lent out several thousand shares to their neighbors, and by these and other means a large number of short contracts were supposed to be floating in Wall street. On Monday last the mine so long preparing was sprung. The firms that had borrowed the stock were notified suddenly to return it. Those who had sold it short were similarly required to deliver. Some were prepared and made their deliveries. Others rushed to the Stock Exchange to buy. But none was to be had except at a fabulous price. For stock that cost 40, 200 was asked, or even more. So sudden and flagitious a movement was never known in Wall street before. The little

knot of speculators had "cornered" their neighbors: the victors had sprung a trap upon their victims, and, as it seemed, had been wholly in their power. The entire losses are variously estimated. One hundred and twenty-five thousand dollars are reported to have been paid by one firm. And settlements have been made at rates ranging from 110 to 210. The clique seem, however, to have sprung their mine too soon. And the report is that, notwithstanding the contributions they have levied on their neighbors and on the public, the whole scheme will pay but little pecuniary profit

The following table exhibits the price of the leading railway shares:

PRICES OF RAILWAY SHARES.

	July 24.	Aug. 25.	Sept. 23.	Oct 28.	Nov. 22.
New York Central	95¼	97⅞	94	97½	98½
Hudson River	...	109½	109½	106½	107⅛
Erie	95	87⅛	88	91⅛	9 ⅛
Reading	106	105⅝	109½	114¼	11⅞
Mich. So and N. I.	66⅝	64	68	73⅛	73⅝
Illinois Central	...	122	129	131⅛	132
Cleveland and Pittsburg	71	71½	71½	82⅝	91⅝
Chicago and N. W.	27½	7⅛	28	30	3 ⅛
Chicago and R. I.	108½	109½	112⅝	107½	107½
Fort Wayne	96½	96½	98⅝	99½	100⅛

There has been little variation in the price of gold during during the month. The following table shows the fluctuations of gold daily during November, and monthly since Jan. 1, 1865:

DATE	Open'g	Highest	Lowest	Closing	DATE	Open'g	Highest	Lowest	Closing
Nov. 1	145⅜	145⅞	145⅜	145⅞	Nov. 17	147	147	146⅝	147⅛
" 2	146	146⅜	146	146⅜	" 18	147	147	146⅝	146⅞
" 3	145⅝	147	145⅝	145⅝	" 20	147	147	146⅝	146⅝
" 4	145⅞	147⅛	146⅜	146⅛	" 21	146⅝	146⅝	146⅛	146⅛
"	147⅛	147⅜	147	147	" 22	147	147	146⅝	146⅝
" 7	146⅝	146⅝	146⅛	147	" 23	146⅛	147	146⅛	146⅛
" 8	146⅝	147⅛	146⅜	146⅝	" 24	146⅝	146⅞	146⅜	146⅜
" 9	146⅜	146⅝	146⅜	146⅜	" 25	146⅝	147⅛	146⅝	146⅝
" 10	146⅝	146⅝	146⅜	146⅜	" 27	146⅜	147⅜	146⅜	146⅜
" 11	146⅜	146⅝	146⅜	146⅜	" 28	146⅜	146⅝	146⅜	146
" 14	146⅜	146⅜	146⅜	146⅜	" 29	146	146⅛	146	146⅛
" 15	147	147⅛	147	147	" 30	146⅛	146⅝	146⅛	146⅜
" 15	147⅛	147⅜	147⅜	147⅜					
" 16	147⅜	147⅜	147⅜	147⅜	Month	145⅜	148⅜	145⅜	147⅜

The monthly fluctuations since the commencement of the year have been as follows:

January	2.6	284⅜	197⅜	204⅜	July	141	146⅛	138⅝	144
February	202⅜	216⅛	195⅞	202	August	144⅜	145⅜	140⅛	144⅝
March	200⅜	241	148⅝	157⅜	September	144⅜	145	142⅝	144⅝
April	151	154⅜	143⅜	146⅜	October	144⅜	147	144⅝	146⅜
May	145⅜	145⅞	125⅜	137⅜	November	145⅛	148⅞	145⅜	147⅜
June	147⅜	147⅜	135⅛	141⅜					
Eleven months						226	244⅜	125⅜	146⅜

Exchange has also ruled steadily.

RATES OF EXCHANGE IN GOLD.

	London, 60 days.	Paris, 60 days.	Amsterdam.	Frankfort.	Hamburg.	Berlin.
July 7	1 8 (@ 9⅜	5.22½(@5.16¼	4 ¼(@11	40 ⅛(@40⅜	35½(@36⅛	71 (@71⅛
" 14	109 (@109½	5.17½(@ ...	40⅛(@40⅜	40¼(@40⅜	35½(@36	71 (@71⅛
" 21	108¾(@109	5.18½(@ ...	40¼(@40⅜	40¼(@40⅜	35⅜(@ 35⅞	70⅞(@71⅛
" 28	108⅝(@109	5.18¾(@5.17½	40½(@40⅜	40¼(@40⅜	35½(@37	70⅝(@ 1⅜
Aug 5	108½(@ 08½	5.22½(@5.21¼	40 (@40⅜	40 (@40⅜	35½(@35⅝	70½(@71
" 12	108½(@109½	5.17½(@5.16¼	40¼(@40⅛	40¼(@40⅛	35½(@35⅞	70½(@71

	London, 60 days.	Paris, 60 days.	Amsterdam.	Frankfort.	Hamburg.	Berlin.
" 19	109⅜@109⅞	5.15 @5.13¾	40⅜@40½	40½@40⅝	35⅝@36⅛	71 @71⅜
" 26	109¼@109⅜	5.16¼@5.15	40¼@41	40½@40⅞	35⅝@36⅛	71 @71⅜
Sept. 2	109¼@109⅜	5.17½@5.16¼	40½@40⅝	40⅝@40¾	35¾@36⅛	71 @71½
" 9	109⅜@109⅝	5.17½@5.16¼	40⅜@40⅞	40⅝@40¾	35¾@36⅛	70⅞@71⅜
" 16	109½@109½	5.17½@5.16¼	40⅜@40⅞	40⅝@40¾	35¾@36⅛	70¾@71⅜
" 23	109⅞@110	5.15 @5.13¾	40⅜@41	40⅝@40⅞	35⅝@36⅛	71½@71⅜
" 30	109½@110	5.18¾@5.15	40½@41½	40½@41	35⅞@36⅛	71½@71⅜
Oct. 7	109¾@110	5 16¼@5.15	40⅜@41	40⅝@41	35⅞@36⅛	71½@71⅜
" 14 ...	108⅝@109½	5.18¾@5.17½	40⅝@41	40½@41½	35¾@36⅛	70⅝@71⅜
" 21	109½@109½	5.18¾@5.17½	40½@40⅞	40½@40¾	35⅞@36⅛	70⅝@71½
" 28	108⅝@109	5.21¼@5.17½	40⅜@40½	40½@40⅝	35¾@36⅛	70½@71½
Nov. 4	107½@108½	5 22½@5.18¾	40⅜@40⅝	40⅝@40⅝	35⅞@36⅛	70½@71½
" 11 ..	107 @107¾	5.25 @5.20	40⅜@40⅝	40½@40⅝	35⅞@36⅛	70½@71½
" 18	108½@108½	5 23½@5.18¾	40½@40⅝	40⅝@40⅝	35¾@36⅛	71 @71½
" 25 ...	108¼@108¾	5.20 @5.16¼	40⅜@40⅝	40⅝@40½	36 @36⅜	71½@71⅜

Statement of the aggregate transactions of the Custom House and Sub-Treasury, weekly, since July 1:

Weeks ending	Custom House.	Sub-Treasury Payments.	Sub-Treasury Receipts.	Sub-Treasury Balances.		Changes in Balances.
July 1.....	$1,643,507	$32,420,347	$27,420,618	$42,827,099	Dec.	$4,990,784
" 8.....	1,493,592	26,804,905	23,403,204	39,420,398	Dec.	3,501,701
" 15.....	2,834,349	24,213,367	33,213,240	48 420,270	Inc.	8,999,872
" 22.....	2,378,662	22,965,427	27,620,621	53,075,464	Inc.	4,655,194
" 29.....	2,516,631	23,598,588	31,012,926	60,489,802	Inc.	7,414,338
Aug. 5.....	2,943,682	33,224,646	33,675,538	60,940,689	Inc.	450,887
" 12.....	2,790,822	26 305,162	23.991,766	58,627,293	Dec.	2,313,399
" 19.....	2,072,490	26,097,010	20,866,095	53,396,378	Dec.	5,230,915
" 26.....	3,254,659	24,819,346	30,954,029	59,522,061	Inc.	5,125,683
Sept. 2.....	2,236,726	14,930,586	17,107,883	61,699,358	Inc.	6,177,297
" 9.....	3,665.972	27,040,040	33,576,124	68,235.442	Inc.	6,536,084
" 16.....	2.715.437	16,699,260	19,774,593	71,340,775	Inc.	3,105,303
" 23.....	2,999,351	28,096,866	27,426.545	75,070,454	Inc.	3,729,679
" 30.....	2,628.310	38,602,389	24,504,101	70,972,166	Dec.	4,098,288
Oct. 7.....	3,590,114	25,408.765	24,335,221	69,898,621	Dec.	1.073,544
" 17.....	1,991,742	21,552,912	19,367,370	67,713,079	Dec.	2,185,542
" 21.....	2,561,580	21,530,488	18,799,937	64,978,528	Dec.	2,739,551
" 28.....	1,932,368	39,360,735	34,547,904	60,157,697	Dec.	4,815,830
Nov. 4.....	2,687,656	25,798,070	20,717,008	55,706,845	Dec.	5,081,051
" 11.....	2,734,164	11,448,939	14,784,631	58,376,337	Inc.	3,299,692
" 18.....	2,555,485	21,211,285	22,792,745	59,959,797	Inc.	1,581,460
" 25.....	1,949,099	20,188,787	18,411,039	68,180,049	Inc.	842,238

JOURNAL OF BANKING, CURRENCY, AND FINANCE.

Increase in Bank Currency—The Proposed Amendment of the Banking Law Unpopular—Gold not an Index of the Depreciation of the Currency—Causes Effecting the Price of Gold—Deposits of Gold and Gold Notes—Progress of National Banks.

THE rapid increase in the issue of currency by our banks is well illustrated in the last returns for the city of New York. The circulation reported through the Clearing-house November 25, 1865, compared with the same week of the previous year, is as follows:

Merchants'	$150,909	Tradesmen's	$306,210
Mer Exchange	277,583	Seventh Ward	104,608
Commerce	1,705,920	Broadway	816,757
Ocean	400,000	Mercantile	298,950
Pacific	129 960	Republic	448,583
Market	876,000	St. Nicholas	433,691
Shoe and Leather	430,000	Marine	222,500
Park	947,715	East River	217,174
Fourth	1,497,055	Second	269,546
Central	1,214,352	Continental	307,871
Mechanics'	293,003	Importers'	362,127
New York	170,083	Ninth	890,[illegible]
M. Association	200,000	First	338,810
Metropolitan	792,192	Am. Exchange	206,484
Commonwealth	221,427		
Total 29 National Banks			$14,015,756
Total 29 other National and Local Banks			1,324 762
Total on Clearing House return, Nov. 25, 1865			$15,350,328
" " " " " 26, 1864			3.615,548
Increase during the year			11,734,880

The total circulation of the National Banks November 25, 1865, was $221,220,215 and the State Bank circulation still outstanding was about $50,000,000.

Mr. McCulloch, in the efforts he is now making to return to specie payments, must, of course, be influenced and in a measure kept in check by these bank issues. All his efforts must be futile unless our total bank currency and government paper is reduced to an amount which the business of the country requires. The intention, therefore, of some of our National Banks to apply to Congress for an increase of three hundred millions of bank currency, is looked upon with the greatest disfavor; and the action of the Boston and Chicago boards of trade, and New York Chamber of Commerce against this measure, indicates what is the general sentiment of our business men.

In this connection we wish to say a word with regard to the common error that the premium on gold is an index of the depreciation of the currency, and as gold ranges lower or higher, the purchasing power of our greenbacks is supposed to be greater or less. It is on account of this belief, which is partly right and partly wrong, that so much interest has been taken in the task of regulating the price of specie. By keeping gold down, it was imagined the value of the currency was kept up, however large might be the issues of legal tenders. This is much as if a gardener, ordered to keep his conservatory at a given temperature, should neglect his fires and devote his chief attention to tampering with the thermometer. Every one who has learned the simplest rudiments of financial science is aware that depreciation of the currency is a sign of redundancy. The shrinking of the value of the paper dollar is caused by the fact that there are too many paper dollars afloat. If this paper were redeemable in coin on demand, the depreciation could not advance beyond a fractional limit; as the notes would be presented for payment, and the volume afloat would contract itself to its just dimensions. If, however, the notes be not redeemable, there is no such spontaneous limitation of the issue. The elasticity with which a re-

deemable currency adjusts itself to monetary exigencies is gone. And as these monetary requirements vary greatly at different times, the redeemable volume of the currency, from its rigid inelasticity, may be insufficient toward the close of the year and redundant three months later. Now, under our paper money system, the price of gold, if uninfluenced except by the currency, might be a true measure of the redundancy and depreciation of that currency. But the trouble is that as gold coin is our international medium of exchange, it is from this and other causes exposed to a number of perturbing forces, which modify its price independently of the movements of our domestic currency. Hence, the price of gold would not be an infallible measure of depreciation in all cases.

But as we have said, there are other causes besides the oscillations of foreign exchange which increase the incertitude. Among these is the interference of government, which assists in preventing the price of gold from being a correct indicator of the purchasing power of our paper currency. We do not here discuss the general policy of such interference, but simply point out the fact. The first time that public attention was very specially called to this interference was in the summer of 1863, when Mr. CHASE secretly and suddenly sold a very large amount of coin, and took measures at the same time to make money tight. The result was magical. Mr. CHASE had only to show himself at the Sub Treasury and the price of the precious metals at once gave way. Gold fell swiftly 25 per cent. A few months later, in April, 1864, the same experiment was tried again; but this time it produced a panic, the memory of which will long live in Wall street. Gold, instead of going down, went higher than ever before, and soon afterwards Mr. CHASE resigned. The history of the numerous attempts made at various times to control the price of gold will be curious and instructive; and since, with the close of the war, the chief reasons for secrecy have passed away, Congress will, it is hoped, order the facts to be fully published as soon as consistent with the public interests.

Now, it is affirmed that the policy of controlling the price of gold is not exploded, and that the government sales of coin have been so adjusted to the condition of the market as to check any advance. In confirmation of this view we are pointed to the fact that since July last the price has been almost stationary, the explanation being that when the price shows a tendency to advance, the Treasury sales are large, and when the price goes down the Treasury sales are stopped. This manipulating and regulating of the price of gold makes it artificial, and prevents that price from being an accurate measure of depreciation. On the currency itself this regulating process has no effect whatever. It does not enhance the purchasing power of greenbacks, or prevent the necessaries of life from being more costly now than when gold was at 280. Indeed, all schemes which, by tampering with the gold market, to bring down prices that depend on inflation of the currency, are as wise and as efficient as would be the attempt to control the temperature of a house by regulating the thermometer.

The deposits of gold at the Sub-Treasury for gold notes commenced on the 15th of the month, and the following are the amounts deposited and the redemptions up to the latest dates we have received:

	Deposits.	Redemptions.		Deposits.	Redemptions.
Nov. 15	$556,000	$38 800	Nov. 22	$829,600	$214.100
" 16	319,000	49,400	" 23	755,340	245.700
" 17	648,900	88,900	" 24	916,640	202,300
" 18	684,400	88,0 0	" 25	720,360	.....
" 20	659,400	161,100			
" 21	615,400	166,000	Total 10 days ..	$6,500,040	$1,284,300

The $5.000 notes appear to be most in demand. Of these $5,210,000 have been taken; of the $1,000. $631,000; of the $100, $183,800.

The authority under which this new gold currency is issued is the 5th section of the Act of March 3, 1863, which is as follows:

"And be it further enacted, that the Secretary of the Treasury is hereby authorized to receive deposits of gold coin and bullion with the Treasurer or any Assistant Treasurer of the United States, in sums not less than twenty dollars, and to issue certificates therefor in denominations of not less than twenty dollars each, corresponding with the denominations of the United States notes. The coin and bullion deposited for or representing the certificates of deposit shall be retained in the Treasury for the payment of the same on demand; and certificates representing coin in the Treasury may be issued in payment of interest on the public debt, which certificates, together with those issued for coin and bullion deposited, shall not at any time exceed twenty per centum beyond the amount of coin and bullion in the Treasury; and the certificates for coin or bullion in the Treasury shall be received at par in payment for duties on imports."

This law, it will be seen, allows an excess of 20 per cent. Consequently if 100 millions of coin were in the Treasury, notes to the amount of 120 millions might be issued.

The progress of National Banks in respect to number, capital, and circulation since July 1 has been as follows:

NATIONAL BANKS.

Date.	Banks.	Capital.	Circulation
July 1, ...	$1,378	$340,938,000	$146,927,975
" 8, ...	1,410	356,230,986	149,093,605
" 15, ...	1,447	364,020,756	154,120,015
" 22, ...	1,481	372,635,756	157,907,665
Aug. 5, ...	1,504	377,574,281	165,794,440
" 12, ...	1,523	379,731,701	169,598,960
" 19, ...	1,530	390,000,100	172,664,460
" 26, ...	1,534	392,614,333	175,:65,640
Sept. 2, ...	1,549	394,104,333	177,457,220
" 9, ...	1,556	394,960,333	179,961,520
" 16, ...	1,560	396,310,333	183,402,570
" 23	1,567	397,066,701	186,061,720
Oct. 7, ...	1,578	399,344,212	194,182,630
" 14, ...	1,592	401,406,013	197,798,380
" 21, ...	1,597	402,071,130	200,925,:80
" 28, ...	1,560	402,573,793	203,877,355
Nov. 4, ...	1,665	403,508,793	207,212,930
" 11, ...	1 668	403,708,793	210,264,940
" 18, ...	1,610	403,491,803	217,956,290
" 25, ...	1,612	403,916,893	221,220,215

Below we give the returns of the New York City Banks to the latest dates:

NEW YORK CITY BANKS.

(*Capital, Jan.*, 1864, $69,494,577; *Jan.*, 1865, $69,658,787; *April*, $76,658,787.)

Date.	Loans.	Specie.	Legal tender.	Circulation.	Net Deposits.	Clearings.
July 1,	216,585,421	15,854,990	60,304,454	5,818,445	191,656,773	475,720,318
" 8,	218,541,975	19,100,590	62,519,708	9,001,774	198,199,005	875 504,141
" 15,	221,285,052	20 400,441	60,054,646	6,250,945	200,420,283	550,959,312
" 22,	222,960,205	22,342,903	52,756,229	6,589,766	193,790,096	517,174 950
" 29,	222,341,766	20,773,115	46,956,782	7,085,454	186,766,671	494 854,139
Aug. 5,	219,102,793	19,400,380	48,581 973	7,856,870	178,247,674	576,961,325
" 12,	215,409,342	20,163,292	48,006,428	8,050,361	175,738,185	463,488,275
" 19,	210,827,581	19,604,686	45,588,980	7,639,575	174,593,016	492 697,782
" 26,	209,428,305	16,923,815	54,249,806	7,982,414	179,088,676	872,124,309
Sept 2,	211,394,870	14,448,827	57,241,739	8,509,175	180 316,658	895,963,678
" 9,	214,189,842	13,715,824	56,320,734	8,811,142	179,353,511	434,257,874
" 16,	215,552,381	14,604,159	53,153,285	9,104,550	177 501,785	427,195,276
" 23,	215,879,454	14,222,062	54 018,175	9,294 805	177,420,789	393 503,366
" 30,	221,318,640	13,643,182	57,665,674	10 645 697	183,830,716	463,352,118
Oct. 7,	228,520,727	14,470,184	58,511,752	10,970,397	188,504,466	572,703,232
" 14,	227,541,884	15,890,775	50 459,195	11,722 847	182,364,156	699,318,496
" 21,	224,080 679	15,587,540	46,169,855	12,383,441	174,192,110	559,166,848
" 28,	213,965,689	14,910,561	46,127,027	12,8 .3,725	173,624,751	575,945 581
Nov. 4,	220,124,961	13,724,268	47,778,719	13,289,381	178,538,674	568 521,873
" 11,	224,005,572	11 995,201	47,918,688	13,825,209	174 199,142	583,441,832
" 18,	224 711,853	13,459,939	47,737,570	14,383,163	173,610,464	503,757,650
" 25,	225,345,177	12,343,542	49,997,271	15,840,528	175,565,673	452,612,434

Statement of the operations of the Clearing House for the weeks corresponding with those of the above bank averages:

Weeks ending	Clearings—Total of week.	Clearings—Daily averages.	Balances—Total of week.	Balances—Daily averages.
July 1.....	$478,720,318	$79,953,386	$17,388,010	$2,930,501
" 8.....	875,504,141	62,551,023	18 284,535	3,039,091
" 15.....	550,959,312	91,826,552	20,150,787	3,358,464
" 22.....	517,174,956	86,395,826	22,396,086	3,732 680
" 29.....	494,854,139	82,475,622	18,577,262	3,086,210
Aug. 5.....	576,961,325	96,161,221	21,707,926	3,617,987
" 12	463,488,276	77,247,212	19,874,247	3,229,041
" 19.....	492,697,783	82,116,297	19 132,977	3,188,829
" 26.....	372 124,310	62,020,728	19,720,131	3,287,688
Sept. 2	395,963,697	65,993,946	18,944 140	3,157,257
" 9	434,251,378	72,208,563	17,976,061	2,996,010
" 16.... ...	427,195,277	71,199,213	17,562,813	2,927,135
" 23	393,503,666	65,583,944	18,551 60	3,092,243
" 30.....	463,852,113	77,225,352	19,484,342	3 247,390
Oct. 7	572,703,232	95,450 539	19 185,250	3,248,041
" 14.... ...	669,548,497	111,558,083	25,406,909	4,241,185
" 21..... ..	554,166,848	92,361,141	21,851,249	3,641,857
" 28	575,945,581	95,990,930	19,662,938	3,277,156
Nov. 4.....	568,524,873	93,920,812	20,137,736	3,356,239
" 11.... ...	583,441,862	98,073,644	19,229,022	3,204,827
" 18.....	503,757,650	83,956,275	19,114,657	3,185,776
" 25.....	452,612,135	75,465,355	18,642,308	3,107,050

The following are the returns of the Philadelphia Banks:

PHILADELPHIA BANKS.

(*Capital, Jan.*, 1863, $11,740,080; 1865, $13,315,720; *Feb.*, 1865, $14,485 450.)

Date. 1856.	Loans.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Legal tenders.
July 3,...	$50,449,619	$1,216 213	$6,886,488	$39,127,301	$19,664,918
" 10,...	50,188,778	1,157,700	6,758,585	41,344,056	20,501,492

Date. 1865.	Loans.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Legal tenders.
" 17,...	50,221,528	1,152,911	6,821,938	43,966,927	19,860,500
" 24,...	52,454,760	1,154,537	6,886,449	46,166,928	19,413,564
" 31,...	53,877,799	1,158,070	6,941,625	49,121,554	21,328,423
Aug 7,...	54,357,695	1,154,005	6,986,662	47,762,160	21,219,466
" 14,...	54,529,718	1,153,931	6,989,217	44,561,749	20,845,048
" 22, ..	51,920,580	1,160,222	7,076,537	41,348,173	20,561,963
" 29,...	50,577,243	1,155,197	6,988,523	38,864,910	19,640,768
Sept. 4,...	50,096,499	1,100,242	6,980,826	38,417,473	19,038,164
" 11,...	49,698,065	1,079,685	7,007,727	37,082,478	17,695,755
" 18,..	49,931,573	.....	7,014,580	37,461,269	.....
" 25,...	49,603,283	1,089,880	7,038,408	37,405,333	....
Oct. 3,...	49,924,281	1,092,755	7,056,984	38,347,232	17,267,021
" 10,...	49,742,086	1,087,705	7,082,197	37,238,078	16 403,360
" 17,...	49,682,819	1,060,579	7,084,687	36,252,038	16,201,787
" 24,...	48,959,072	1,052,357	7,074,066	35,404,524	15,875,105
Nov. 7,...	48,509,360	1,050,251	7,064,866	34,741,494	15,752,473
" 14,...	48,048,189	955,924	7,064,766	34,582,031	15,303,491
" 21,..	46,679,961	917,372	7,059,451	34,067,872	14 879,136
" 28,...	45,415,040	903,181	7,065,275	34,050,109	15,245,474

The following statement exhibits the condition of the several incorporated banking institutions of the State of Ohio, on the first Monday of November, 1865, as shown by their returns, made under oath, to the Aditor of State:

RETURNS OF THE OHIO BANKS—RESOURCES.

	State stock Banks.	Br'h's State Banks of Ohio.	Total of all Banks.
Specie	$134,347	$20,875	$155,224
Eastern deposits	392,894	53,228	446,123
Notes of other Banks and U. S. Notes..	1,325,129	134,526	1,459,656
Due from other Banks and Banks..	97,004	320,836	417,841
Notes and Bills discounted	1,433,194	832,514	2,265,708
Bonds of State of Ohio, other States and United States	419,360	....	419,360
Safety Fund	....	487,889	487,889
Real Estate and Personal Property.....	80,000	90,233	170,233
Checks and other C'h Items	44,803	1,244	47,047
Other resources	26,687	745,382	872,020
Total	3,954,423	2,686,711	6,641,134

LIABILITIES.

	State stock Banks.	Br'h's State Bank of Ohio.	Total of all Banks.
Capital Stock	$790,000	$811,500	1,601,500
Permanent Reserved Fund	....	138,862	138,862
Circulation	6,000	923,952	929,952
Due to Bank and Bankers	227,124	88,095	315,220
Due to Ind'l Depositors	2,730,520	276,560	3,007,081
Dividends unpaid	....	72,375	72,375
Contingent Fund and Undivided Profits .	173,682	100,833	274,516
Discount, Interest, &c	24,761	108,313	133,104
Bills Payable and Time Drafts	2,332	2,756	5,089
Other Liabilities	....	168,430	168,430
Total Liabilities	5,954,433	2,686,711	6,641,134

The following is a statement of the quarterly reports of National Banks as made to the Comptroller of the Currency on the first Monday of November, 1865:

	Dr.		Cr.	
Loan and discounts ...	$485,814,029	39	Capital stock paid in..	$393,157,206	00
Overdrafts	1,856,106	90	Surplus fund.....	38,713,380	73
Real estate, &c.	14,703,281	77	Notes in circulation....	171,321,908	00
Expense account.....	4,539,525	11	Individual deposits....	495,979,813	36
Premiums paid... ...	2,585,201	06	U S deposits	48,170,381	31
Remittances and other cash items..... ...	72,309,854	44	Dividends unpaid.....	4,931,059	62
Due from Nat. Banks.	89,978,980	55	Due to National Banks.	90,041,837	08
Due from other banks	17,393,232	25	Due to other Banks....	24,336,182	27
U. S. Bonds to secure circulation.....	272,634,200	00	Profits	32,350,278	97
Other U. S. securities.	150,577,400	00	State Bank circulation.	59,768,983	00
Bills and checks of other banks....	16,247,241	29	Other items.....	944,054	20
Specie.....	14,966,143	42		$1,359,768,074	49
Other lawful money...	193,094,365	16			
Other items.....	19,048,513	15			
	$1,359,768,074	40			

The following are the returns of the Bank of England:

THE BANK OF ENGLAND RETURNS (IN POUNDS STERLING).

Date. 1865.	Circulation.	Public Deposits.	Private Deposits.	Securities.	Coin and Bullion.	Rate of Discount.
July 5,...	42,717,616	9,348,667	14,448,335	33,629,456	15,099,943	3 "
" 12,...	22,943,563	4,590,233	16,229,345	31,559,914	14,561,150	3 "
" 19,...	22,789,406	4,932,103	14,894,217	30,992,455	15,033,367	3 "
" 26,...	22,590,254	4,770,902	15,939,813	32,181,100	13,603,050	3½ "
Aug. 2,...	23,203,757	5,214,377	14,681,727	31,054,027	13,603,815	3½ "
" 9,...	23,331,857	5,264,739	14,688,181	31,726,066	13,345,060	4 "
" 16,...	23,387,419	5,326,453	14,962,787	32,071,253	13,242,850	4 "
" 23,...	23,677,930	5,582,243	14,714,595	31,798,183	13,270,775	4 "
" 30,...	22,132,681	6,094,785	14,492,034	31,737,925	14,489,612	4 "
Sept. 6,...	22,236,008	5,985,710	14,207,995	31,816,545	14,322,275	4 "
" 13,...	21,949,755	6,321,640	13,860,979	31,724,718	14,155,579	4 "
" 20,...	21,843,863	6,830,869	13,567,577	34,813,637	14,219,842	4½ "
" 27,...	22,033,528	7,330,010	13,789,628	33,003,525	13,960,819	5 "
Oct. 4,...	23,321,786	6,891,910	13,798,588	34,651,489	13,183,837	6 "
" 11,...	22,861,769	7,228,736	13,506,498	33,994,718	12,736,346	7 "
" 18,...	22,834,153	8,589,353	14,013,614	30,870,760	12,789,958	7 "
" 25,...	22,370,245	8,793,682	13,279,933	29,408,656	13,219,213	7 "
Nov. 2,...	22,385,346	4,163,517	12,979,790	29,482,542	13,227,803	7 "

The following are the returns of the Bank of France:

BANK OF FRANCE.

		Loans.	Cash and Bullion.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Interest.
July	6	591,852,987	521,352,745	859,170,675	221,419,987	3½
"	13	594,467,935	498,683,812	884,390,025	188,481,698	3½
"	20	601,711,488	493,997,271	899,347,175	179,473,477	3½
"	27	610,976,748	494,212,341	898,722,675	199,182,020	3½
August	3	629,135,610	493,250,442	898,333,075	219,283,186	3½
"	10	619,750,846	486,367,696	897,359,923	200,211,070	3½
"	17	623,258,456	488,170,183	877,349,725	202,153,615	3½
"	24	591,746,248	500,449,290	879,828,825	189,888,513	3½
"	31	637,672,453	498,958,920	916,501,325	192,331,850	3½
September	7	585,602,649	503,716,844	849,749,975	217,788,826	3½
"	14	579,090,374	499,224,478	850,146,625	209,987,979	3
"	21	578,177,257	499,913,894	841,097,725	194,689,060	3
"	28	589,891,292	492,693,492	834,850,575	220,883,613	3
October	5	658,011,120	470,917,716	883,268,625	217,360,539	4
"	12	688,430,122	437,755,457	893,590,675	192,576,954	4
"	19	675,462,862	431,107,984	875,756,475	179,977,447	4
"	26	657,921,623	430,775,953	868,969,875	166,315,716	4
November	8	706,180,940	418,526,952	889,642,025	187,608,824	4

THE UNITED STATES DEBT.

We give below the statement of the Public Debt, prepared from the reports of the Secretary of the Treasury, for September, October, and November, 1865.

Denominations.	September 30.	October 31.	November 30.
DEBT BEARING INTEREST IN COIN.			
6 per cent, due December 31, 1867	$9,415,250	$9,415,250	$9,415,250
6 do July 1, 1868	8,908,342	8,908,342	8,908,342
5 do January 1, 1874	20,000,000	20,000,000	20,000,000
5 do January 1, 1871	7,022,000	7,022,000	7,022,000
6 do December 31, 1880	18,415,000	18,415,000	18,415,000
6 do June 30, 1881	50,000,000	50,000,000	50,000,000
6 do June 30, 1861, exch'ed for 7.30s	139,331,000	139,231,400	139,231,450
6 do May 1, 1867–82 (5.20 years)	514,780,500	514,780,500	514,780,500
6 do November 1, 1868–84 (5.20 years)	100,000,000	100,000,000	1,000,000,000
6 do November 1, 1870–85 (5.20 years)	.....	44,479,100	50,520,900
5 do March 1, 1874–1904 (10.40s)	172,770,100	172,770,100	172,770,100
6 do July 1, '81 (Oregon war)	1,016,000	1,016,000	1,016,000
6 do June 30, 1881	75,000,000	75,000,000	75,000,000
Aggregate of debt bearing coin interest	$1,116,658,192	$1,161,137,692	$1,167,169,942
DEBT BEARING INTEREST IN LAWFUL MONEY.			
4 per cent Temporary Loan (10 days' notice)	$618,128	$612,728	$612,928
5 do do do	36,249,660	21,309,710	21,644,710
6 do do do	79,017,961	67,185,907	67,266,148
6 do Certificates (one year)	62,899,000	55,905,000	55,921,000
5 do One and two-years' notes	22,954,230	22,536,901	22,536,901
6 do Three years' comp. interest notes	217,012,141	178,012,141	167,012,141
6 do Thirty-year bonds, (Cen'l Pacific R.)	1,258,000	1,258,000	1,258,000
6 do do (Union Pacific R. E. Div.)	.....	.....	640,000
7.20 do Three years' treasury notes, 1st series	300,000,000	300,000,000	300,000,000
7.30 do do do 2d series	300,000,000	300,000,000	300,000,000
7.30 do do do 3d series	230,000,000	230,000,000	230,000,000
Aggregate of debt bearing lawful money int	$1,260,009,120	$1,191,819,787	$1,177,531,149
DEBT ON WHICH INTEREST HAS CEASED.			
7.30 per cent Three years' notes	$322,250	$308,150	$290,700
do Texas indemnity bonds	760,000	760,000	726,000
Other bonds and notes	307,070	305,770	304,980
Aggregate of debt on which int. has ceased	$1,389,320	$1,373,920	$1,321,680
DEBT BEARING NO INTEREST.			
United States Notes	$400,000,000	$400,000,000	$399,981,194
do do (in redemp. of the temp loan)	28,160,569	28,160,569	28,160,203
Fractional currency	26,487,755	26,057,469	26,165,197
Gold certificates of deposit	.....	.....	7,200,440
Currency	$454,648,324	$454,218,038	$460,647,033
Uncalled for pay requisitions	1,220,000	660,900	508,231
Aggregate of debt bearing no interest	$455,868,324	$454,878,938	$460,556,264
Amount in Treasury—			
Coin	$32,740,789	$34,554,987	$47,224,379
Currency	56,236,441	33,800,591	44,587,141
Total in Treasury	$88,977,230	$68,355,578	$91,811,520
RECAPITULATION.			
Debt bearing interest in coin	$1,116,658,192	$1,161,137,691	$1,167,169,942
Debt bearing interest in lawful money	1,260,009,120	1,191,819 787	1,177,531,149
Debt on which interest has ceased	1,389,320	1,373,920	1,321,680
Debt bearing no interest (currency)	454,648,324	454,218,038	460,647,033
Uncalled for requisitions	1,220,000	660,900	508,231
Aggregate debts of all kinds	$2,833,924,956	$2,809,210,336	$2,806,178,575
Cash in treasury	88,977,230	68,355 578	91,811,520
ANNUAL INTEREST PAYABLE ON DEBT.			
Payable in gold	$65,001,570	$67,670,340	$68,032,275
Payable in lawful money	72,547,646	71,267,738	70,864,680
Aggregate amount of int. payable annually—not including int. on the 3 years' comp. int. notes, which is payable only at maturity.	$137,529,216	$138,938,078	$138,896,955
LEGAL TENDER NOTES IN CIRCULATION.			
One and two years' 5 per cent notes	$32,954,230	$32,536,901	$32,536,901
United States notes (currency)	428,160,569	428,160,569	428,160,236
Three years' 6 per cent compound int. notes	217,012,141	217,012,141	167,012,141
Aggregate legal tender notes in circulation	$678,126,940	$633,126,940	$626,290,436

COMMERCIAL AND INDUSTRIAL STATISTICS.

SHOE-MAKING MACHINERY.

The shoe business is in a most thriving condition. The war reduced a part of the country to bare feet, and as the existing shoe factories had during the war only been able to supply the loyal States, the extension of their market makes them very busy. Wonderful progress has been made in the shoe business within a few years. A machine is had for everything, and girls to tend machines, and men to finish when the machines stop. There is a machine to roll the leather, which was formerly hammered; a machine to split the leather, which was done slowly by hand in other times; a machine to form the soles which formerly were cut to patterns by hand, a machine to skive the stiffenings which is now done at a rapid rate; a machine to channel the soles, which in olden times was done with the knife and rimmed out with an iron; machines to stitch the upper leathers or cloths, and bind the edges; and finally, a more important machine that sews the upper to the sole; and then there are machines for putting on the heels and forming them. By these means, from five to ten times the work can be done by a given number of hands than could have been accomplished twenty years ago under the old system, and we are assured it is done quite as well or better than then. But it brings another change—the labor must be associated.

WOOL MANUFACTURES IN THE UNITED STATES.

On the 6th September an assemblage of gentlemen representing all the largest woolen manufacturers of the country met in convention at Philadelphia to consider the condition of the wool interest. Among the papers read was an interesting history of wool manufacturers in all the principal countries of the world, and a special report on the manufactures in the United States for 1864. From the latter we make the following abstract, which will prove of great utility to all interested in the subject.

Early in the spring of 1864 circulars were issued by the Department of Agriculture, addressed to the woolen manufacturers throughout the country, one thousand seven hundred and four in number, as appeared by exhibits upon the books of the United States assessors. Answers were promptly received from seven hundred and forty-six of the principal and heaviest manufacturing establishments, representing twenty-one different States, with many valuable suggestions relative to the quality of wool desired and mode of preparing it for market. The quantity consumed by the seven hundred and forty-six was represented at one hundred and eighteen millions seven hundred and twenty-nine thousand six hundred pounds, and from a careful analysis of the information received, it is quite apparent that not more than three-fourths of the total consumption of the year has been reported, which would give fully one hundred and sixty millions of pounds as the consumption of the past year, being double the consumption of the whole country in 1859. The present condition of the country gives assurances of increased consumption.

A striking exhibit of the increased consumption is shown by comparing the full census returns of 1860 with the partial returns to the department for the year. Take, for example, the States of Massachusetts, New York, and Pennsylvania:

	1859.	1864—partial.
Massachusetts	26,271,200 lbs.	43,022,000 lbs.
New York	11,708,220 "	17,936,000 "
Pennsylvania	6,223,850 "	12,557,500 "

So far as received these returns indicate a higher rate of increase in Pennsylvania than in either New York or Massachusetts.

The following tables show the aggregate amount consumed, so far as returned in the several States, with the number of sheep, pounds of wool, and yield per head in the Northern States:

WOOL CONSUMED.

States.	Factories.	Wool, lbs. consumed. Total.	Domestic.	Foreign.
New York	129	17,936,000	10,864,250	7,076,750
Pennsylvania	128	12,557,500	10,462,000	2,047,500
New Hampshire	41	7,827,000	6,285,000	1,322,000
Indiana	88	1,406,000	1,406,000	7,500
Vermont	24	4,805,000	2,015,000	2,265,000
Wisconsin	9	190,000	190,000	.....
Ohio	41	1,099,000	1,099,000	.....
Iowa	15	435,000	415,000	.....
Minnesota	1	25,000	25,000	6,250
Massachusetts	154	43,022,000	32,109,750	10,400,750
Rhode Island	39	9,215,000	7,257,500	2,097,500
Connecticut	56	11,684,500	5,479,750	5,846,250
Missouri	2	170,000	150,000	20,000
Illinois	13	437,000	437,000	.....
New Jersey	11	2,505,600	2,248,000	313,600
Maine	20	4,280,500	2,394,800	1,611,500
Maryland	4	131,000	131,000	.....
Michigan	15	425,500	421,500	4,000
Kentucky	2	275,000	275,000	.....
Oregon	1	350,000	350,000	.....
Delaware	8	263,000	68,000	60,000
Total	746	118,729,600	84,283,550	33,087,600

The following table gives the number of sheep, wool produced, and yield per head in the same States for a series of years:

Year.	Sheep.	Wool, lbs.	Per head
1840	15,782,551	.....	....
1850	16,777,468	44,460,200	2 65
1860	17,198,219	51,766,639	3 10
1862	18,880,340	66,081,190	3 50
1864, January	24,846,391	91,298,965	3 75
1865, January	28,647,269	114,589,076	4 00

CALIFORNIA WOOL.

Years.	Number.	Years.	Number.
1859	2,378,000	1862	6,400,000
1860	3,260,000	1863	7,600,000
1861	4,600,000	1863	8,000,000

WOOL IMPORTED INTO NEW YORK.

Years.	Number.	Years.	Number.
1863	48,744,901	1865	56,874,128

TOTAL WOOL IN 1864 AS ABOVE.

States as above	91,298,965	Imported into New York	56,874,128
California	8,000,000		
Total pounds			156,173,000

The following table was presented, showing the value of woolen goods manufactured in the United States for the year ending June 30, 1864 :

Maine	$3,476,483 67	Ohio	$400,877 67
New Hampshire	9,079,887 00	Indiana	558,613 33
Vermont	3,708,721 67	Illinois	359,084 33
Massachusetts	40,603,651 00	Michigan	151,843 33
Rhode Island	10,892,700 33	Wisconsin	105,817 67
Connecticut	15,866,641 00	Iowa	118,305 33
New York	13,977,775 00	Minnesota	9,146 00
New Jersey	2,778,084 00	Kansas	14,947 67
Pennsylvania	16,599,713 33	California	538,956 00
Delaware	548,134 67	Oregon	128,620 67
Maryland	451,912 00	Nebraska	45 67
West Virginia	63,753 00		
Kentucky	359,905 00	Total	$121,868,250 00
Missouri	75,344 00		

Statement of aggregate results up to September 1, 1865. in reply to a circular of February 25, 1865, and May 30, addressed to woolen manufacturers in twenty-five States.

Returns received, 931 ; sets reported, 4,073 , weekly consumption of scoured wool, in pounds, 2,275,855 ; weekly consumption of domestic wools, pounds, 1,636,821 ; of foreign wool, 639,034 ; per centage of foreign wool, 23 35; weekly average, per set, 559 ; mills to be heard from, 608. Of these 28 returns were from Philadelphia. Sets reported, 97.

Weekly consumption of scoured wool, lbs	182,200
" " domestic "	88,650
" " foreign "	48,550
Percentage of foreign wool	36¼
Weekly average per set	1,873
Mills to be heard from	94

In the remainder of the State there were 56 returns; sets reported, 94 ; weekly consumption of scoured wool in pounds, 40,650.

MINES AND MINING STATISTICS.

COAL IN CALIFORNIA.

The *Mercantile Gazette*, of San Francisco, says :—Our coal mines are yielding freely, and their products are improving in quality as they become more fully opened. The increased production of the Bellingham Bay and Mount Diablo mines, and the comparative cheapness of their coals, have seriously interfered with the trade in anthracite, both for consumption upon steamers in our inland waters and for local steam purposes generally, in mills, factories, etc.

The Bellingham Bay Company report their product for 1863 at 10,000 tons, and during 1864 at 11,500 tons. From January 1st of this year to March 31st, their receipts in this city amounted to 3,650 tons, the average market value ranging from $10 to $10 50.

The several companies at Mount Diablo, seven in number, report their aggregate products for March, 1865, thus—

Companies.		Companies.	Tons.
Eureka	2,035	Manhattan	460
Black Diamond	1,543	Teutonia	120
Union	990	Central	100
Pittsburg	560		
Total for March, 1865			5,808

—of which 20 per cent were screenings. The prices ranged from $7 to $8 for coal and from $4 50 to $5 25 for screenings.

The product of the several mines for the full years to the end of 1864 and for the 1st quarter of 1865 have been—

Years.	Eureka.	Black Diam'd.	Union.	Pittsburg.	Manhattan.	Total.
1861	....	7,200	....	5,400	...	12,600
1862	....	12,600	1,800	8,000	8,000	30,400
1863	5,268	18,175	3,000	12,000	7,000	45,443
1864	4,754	16,285	13,150	10,000	6,500	50,095
1865, 1st qr	2,591	4,000	1,400	1,000	700	10,691
Total	12,608	58,260	19,356	36,400	23,200	149,725

and, including the Teutonia and Central, about 150,000 tons.

BRITISH MINERAL PRODUCTS.

The following facts concerning the products of mines and collieries in Great Britain, from records kept by Mr. HUNT in the Museum of Practical Geology, are extremely interesting:

COAL.—There were at work during 1864 no less than 3,268 collieries in Great Britain and Ireland. In 1853 there appear to have been only 2,397. The quantity of coal raised, sold and used during last year from all these works was 92,787,873 tons. The largest quantities were produced from the following coal fields:

	Tons.
Durham and Northumberland	23,243,367
Scotland	12,400,000
Lancashire	11,530,000
Staffordshire and Worcestershire	14,425,350
South Wales and Monmouthshire	10,976,500
Yorkshire	8,809,600

There was an increase in our exportations of coal to foreign ports in 1864 of 525,208 tons, the quantity exported in 1863 being 8,275,212 tons against 8,800,420 tons in 1864. From the coal fields the quantities of shipping coal sent to ports in the United Kingdom amounted to 10,588,132 tons in 1863, and in 1864 they had risen to 10,970,711 tons; the quantities of coal brought by railway and sea, within the London district, during the last three years, being as follows:

	Tons.
1862	1,524,849
1863	1,786,713
1864	2,351,342

IRON.—The extension of our iron manufacture, and the increasing development of iron ore-producing districts, is strikingly shown by these returns. Last year we obtained 10,064,890 tons of iron ore from our own rocks. Even this large quantity was insufficient for our wants, and we imported 75,194 tons

more. This was employed to feed 612 blast furnaces, which produced of pig iron:

	Tons.
In England	2,620,472
In Wales	988,729
In Scotland	1,158,750
The total make of the Kingdom being	4,767,951

Of pig iron we exported 565,951 tons; all the rest was converted into merchant iron. This was effected at 127 iron works, where 6,262 puddling furnaces were in activity, and 718 rolling mills perform their Herculean labors of producing bars and rails.

GOLD.—During 1864 this precious metal was obtained from five mines in Merionethshire; 2,336 tons of auriferous quartz were crushed and treated by the amalgamating processes From this the adventurers obtained 2,887 ounces of gold, the value of which was £9,991. By an improvement in the process of amalgamation, the discovery of Mr. WILLIAM CROOKES, F.R.S., the well-known discoverer of the new metal thalium, it is expected that the production of British gold will be considerably increased during the current year.

TIN.—The tin obtained from the mines of Cornwall and Devonshire in 1864 was certainly in excess of that ever before procured, although the tin mines and stream works of this, our only stanniferous district, have been diligently worked for more than 2,000 years. 15,211 tons of tin ore were raised by the miners, the largest quantity from very deep mines. This produced of metallic tin 10,108 tons. The price of tin during 1864 was lower than it has been during any year since 1853, and more than £14 a ton below the price of 1859. The system of mining which prevails, renders it imperative on the managers of mines to use every effort to satisfy the shareholders by the regular payment of dividends, or at all events, in depreciation in the value of the shares by avoiding "call." To obtain this end, tin ore has been raised, "dressed," and also in an already glutted market at whatever price the smelter could offer. Hence the value of the ore sold, £925,069, which was upwards of £38,000 less than the money value of the block tin sold in 1863.

COPPER.—From 192 mines in Southwestern England, and about 30 distributed over other parts of the United Kingdom, 214,604 tons of copper ore, producing 13,302 tons 13 cwt. of metallic copper, were obtained. In addition to this our smelters imported 67,283 tons of ore, 26,081 of copper regulus, 10,015 tons of bricks and pigs, and 14,924 tons of copper bars, etc., from our own colonies and other countries.

LEAD AND SILVER.—There was an increase in our production of lead in 1864; 94,433 tons of lead ore, principally galena, were dressed, sold, and smelted. This produced 61,283 tons of lead, and gave us 641,088 ounces of silver.

Of ZINC ORES, nearly all being the sulphide of zinc (commonly called black jack), 15,047 tons were mined, producing 4,040 tons of metal.

The total value, at the place of production, of the minerals obtained in 1864 (exclusive of building stones, bricks, and the like) was £31,604,047. The value of the metal smelted from the metalliferous ores was £15,281,869, so that, if

we add to this the value of our coals at the pit's mouth, £23,197.968, and £1.500,000, the estimated value of the other earthly minerals, of which returns are given in the "Mineral Statistics," we have as the aggregate value of mineral treasures £39,979,837.

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

CHICAGO CHAMBER OF COMMERCE.

The new Chamber of Commerce building, the most magnificent edifice of its kind in the United States, is now complete. Its exterior may be said to be imposing, but cannot be called beautiful; it belongs to what we might term a peculiarly "American composite" order of architecture, in which the great feature is intense utility, and for the attaining of this, recognized "orders" of architecture are jumbled together with perfectly fantastic looseness. But it is a huge building, massive even in its details, and conveys to the beholder a strong sense of enduring solidity, a very proper idea when connected with an institution typical as this is of the wealth and might of commerce in this great Northwest.

Passing the entrance, which is an exception to the generally imposing character of the exterior, and ascending the staircase leading up to the great hall, one cannot but regret that it has not been made wider and loftier. The two iron stairways, each five and a half feet in width, and the succeeding wooden ones, at right angles with them, five feet each in width, all seem small and insufficient when viewed in connection with the great exterior and huge hall to which they lead. They are, however, no doubt quite sufficient for all the requirements to be made upon them, and are very elegantly finished.

The great hall is without doubt the grandest meeting room of any commercial body in this country. It is one hundred and forty-three feet in length by eighty-seven in width and forty-five in height. Light is during the day admitted by ten windows on each side and five in front, each twenty-five feet in height and of proportional width, and at night the hall may be brilliantly illuminated by ten gigantic reflectors, which dot the panels of the ceiling. At the southern end of the hall are private rooms for the president, treasurer, secretary and directors of the board, on the western side of the building, and on the eastern side a reading room, telegraph office, wash rooms, closets, &c., all fitted up in the most superb style appropriate to their several uses. On the floor above, on a level with the gallery, is the Grain Inspector's room, fifty by forty feet in extent, the arrangements in which are of the most perfect description. The janitor's room and some storerooms are also on this level.

The entire cost of the Chamber of Commerce has been about four hundred thousand dollars.

AMERICAN SHIPMASTERS' ASSOCIATION.

Previous to the year 1854 attempts had been made to regulate the appointment of masters of merchant vessels in Great Britain, and in that year was passed what is known as the Merchant Shipping Act of 1854. This act requires all masters and officers of merchant vessels to be examined, and to hold certificates

issued in accordance with the provisions of the act, before they can clear a vessel from any English custom house. Local boards of examination are established in the out-ports, London being the head office, from which all certificates issue, under the control of the Board of Trade. A fee of £2 is paid by a master, and proportionably less by subordinate officers. The system is not extended to the British colonies, though a modification of it is in use in the East Indies.

Some mode of examining those who are to have the control of vessels is in operation in Norway, Sweden, Prussia, Germany, France, Spain, Italy, and Mexico.

The want of a similar system has been long felt in the United States, and the underwriters have attempted in some measure to supply it by private efforts. In 1860 an organized attempt was made by influential ship-owners, merchants and underwriters, which resulted in the establishment of the American Shipmasters' Association, an institution chartered by the Legislature of New York, for the purpose of "examining and certifying to the qualification of masters and officers of vessels." The plan met with very general favor, and the association is now permanently established.

It has upon its published register about four thousand three hundred names, and on the list are to be found very many of those who have taken the highest rank as shipmasters. It proved of important service to the Government during the war, and its members were well represented in the ranks of our volunteer navy. Applicants for a certificate of the Shipmasters' Association are examined by competent persons in seamanship and navigation, and the reports submitted to a committee of experienced shipmasters. Each commission issued bears a number, which is not changed, and this is used as a signal somewhat upon the system adopted in the commercial code, or simply by exhibiting a blue flag with red border on which the number of the master's commission appears. A book or register is printed, which gives every number, the name corresponding to it, and the name of the vessel to which the holder of each commission is attached. Thus at sea, as far as the flag can be seen and the number made out, an intelligible signal is readily made.

HONDURAS—MEXICAN BOUNDARY QUESTION.

The following correspondence between her Britannic Majesty's Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary in Mexico, and his Excellency Senor RAMIREZ, published by order of his Excellency Governor AUSTIN, in the official *Gazette*, (Belize,) settles finally the vexed question of Mexican jurisdiction over the colony of British Honduras:

THE OFFICIAL CORRESPONDENCE.

COLONIAL SECRETARY'S OFFICE,
BELIZE, August 17, 1865.

His Excellency the Lieutenant Governor has been pleased to order the publication of the following for general information.

AUSTIN WM. COX, Acting Colonial Secretary.

MEXICO, March 6, 1865.

Her Britannic Majesty's Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary, Mexico, to his Excellency Senor RAMIREZ:

The undersigned, &c., &c, has the honor to inform Senor RAMIREZ that the atten-

tion of her Majesty's government has been drawn to a proclamation or decree issued by certain Commissioners of the Emperor of Mexico, on the 19th of September last, and published in the *Gazette* of Yucatan of the 23d of that month, wherein the boundary of the Province of Yucatan is traced in such a manner as to comprise within its limits the British colony of Honduras. The undersigned is ordered formally to declare to the Mexican Ministers for Foreign Affairs on the part of her Majesty's government, and does hereby declare, that Mexico has no claim whatever to any part of the territory which forms the colony of British Honduras, and which is under the exclusive sovereignty of the British crown. The undersigned, &c.

P. C. SCARLETT.

[True copy.] MALCOLM MACGREGOR, Ensign Second West India regiment, Private Secretary.

MEXICO, March 9, 1865.

His Excellency Senor RAMIREZ to her Britannic Majesty's Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary, Mexico:

The undersigned has the honor to acknowledge the receipt of Mr. SCARLETT'S note of the 6th instant, in which he acquaints him that his Imperial Majesty's Commissary in Yucatan issued, on the 19th of September last, an announcement or decree fixing the boundaries of that department so as to comprise within their designation those of the English colony of Honduras; for which reason Mr. SCARLETT formally declares, in the name of the government of her Britannic Majesty, that Mexico has no title whatever to any part of that territory, as it belongs exclusively to the sovereignty of the British crown.

The undersigned in his turn has the satisfaction to declare to her Britannic Majesty's Minister that there must be some error in the case, as Mexico has never enunciated the pretensions indicated. If anything has been done to the contrary the Emperor's government will correct it immediately, for, as it is jealous of the inviolability of its frontiers, so will it religiously respect that of its neighbors.

The undersigned hopes to have the pleasure of giving to Mr SCARLETT explanations which shall suffice to remove all doubts on seeing the antecedents of the affair.

F. J. RAMIREZ.

[True copy.] MALCOLM MACGREGOR, Ensign Second West India regiment, Private Secretary.

THE BOOK TRADE.

Report of the Commissioners of Quarantine. Albany: C. WENDELL. Legislature Printer.

THE annual report of the Commissioners of Quarantine for the last year, contains a variety of important matter. In it we have the announcement that the vexed question of the removal of Quarantine is now definitely settled, and that when the whole establishment shall be completed, under existing laws, we shall have a quarantine system in the port of New York so thorough that our citizens will be entirely secure against the spread of infectious diseases imparted through our commerce; and moreover our merchants will cease to have just cause of complaint, in that while they submit to the burdens of Quarantine their property is destroyed through want of proper facilities for its protection.

The report of the Health Officer, Doctor Swinburne, to the commissioners, states that there are no warehouses, wet docks or wharves, as contemplated by law. The anchorage ground is in the lower bay. There is one floating hospital. The hospital ship has received 216 cases of yellow fever since 1858; of which number 157 recovered. From 1806 to 1859 there were 818 cases at the Marine hospital, of which 553 recovered, and 256 died.

The diseases subject to quarantine regulation are yellow fever, cholera, typhus

or ship fever, and small pox—also "any new disease not now known, of a contagious or infectious nature." During the last year 38 vessels arrived here with small-pox, 5 with ship fever, and 56 with yellow fever, which last came from twenty-two infected ports.

Except, perhaps, the season of 1856, no period has been fraught with more danger to the port of New York than the last.

The report also contains a series of answers made by Doctor Theodore Walser, Deputy Health Officer, in relation to yellow fever, its contagious character, and best modes of disinfection. He states in these answers that it is identical with the coast fever of Africa, and its virus is ascribed by many authors to a fungus readily germinated and diffused by the three essential conditions of vegitation, air, moisture and darkness. Hence shipping is admirably calculated for its propagation; and light and air are far best available disinfectants. New vessels are less liable than old ones to carry the disease. It has not been known to prevail as an epidemic at any port north of this, and is entirely unknown in England. It has never been reported in China or the Indian Ocean, where there is no trade with Africa.

The conditions which favor its communication by cargo are to be found in the vessel itself and in the length of time the cargo has remained in the confined air and darkness of the hold. Only those substances containing nitrogenous matter absorb and transmit the infection. Heated air carried through the hold of a vessel will destroy the *formites et fungus* of the disease. Put ventilation by free exposure to air and light must constitute our chief reliance.

The city of New York is liable to infection by reason of its commerce with tropical ports. Its local condition favors this liability. Yellow fever seldom exists a mile inland from the sea or its navigable inlets; but this rule exempts no part of New York. The drainage of the city also endangers it The main sewers discharge their contents slowly into open docks and basins occupied by shipping at a level hardly below high water. Besides, the present system of wharves and piers, even in a state of costly decay and exhaling typhoid odors, rivalled only by the filthy streets, double the risk of pestilence.

But the virus of yellow fever is not multiplied through the agency of the disease which it produces, like small-pox and other eruptive diseases. Each new case is from the original source, the specific gumra sporales which constitutes the virus, and can extend no further.

The period of incubation of yellow fever is from five to seven days, and it is not necessary, therefore, to restrain a person longer than that time.

The attention of the Commissioners has been directed to the rumor of cholera in Brooklyn, which has proved to be unfounded. If quarantining can avert its coming they will succeed. In a few years the whole system has made a gigantic advance, and New York is thereby the gainer.

Ship Canal between the St. Lawrence and Hudson Rivers. Remarks of S. DeWitt Bloodgood, one of the Delegates from the New York Chamber of Commerce to the Detroit Commercial Convention of July, 1865.

A prominent topic of discussion at the Commercial Convention at Detroit was, as our readers are aware, the feasibility of transporting grain economically from the lake ports to tide water without breaking bulk.

The enlargement of the existing canals and the construction of new ones of sufficient dimensions for ships, were debated at several sessions. Mr. Bloodgood, accordingly, as his contribution, submitted the project of a ship canal from Lake Champlain to the Hudson River. This project is by no means utopian, but deserves consideration; for the present Champlain Canal has been the most profitable of any within the State of New York. Nor is it a novel idea. A convention was held at Saratoga in 1849 which adopted it. The best engineers of the State have recommended the route as affording transportation from Chicago to New York cheaper than that of the Erie Canal. Mr. William J. McAlpine estimated transportation by these routes as follows:

From Chicago to New York by way of Buffalo, the Erie Canal and Hudson River, 1,418 miles, by sailing vessels, $5 30 per ton; by steamer, $6 98.

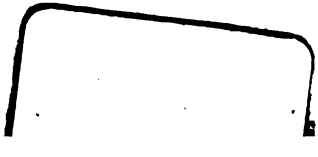
By way of the Welland Canal, Oswego and the Erie Canal, 1,410 miles, by sailing vessels, $4 46 per ton; by steamer, $6 36.

By the Lakes, Welland Canal, the St. Lawrence, Caughnawauga and Champlain Canals and Hudson River, 1,632 miles, by sailing vessels, $3 76; by steamer, $6 21 per ton.

These calculations are based on the present dimensions of the Champlain Canal; whereas, if the proposed enlargement should be made, the expense of transferring cargoes at Whitehall would be obviated. There would also be additional facilities afforded for importing lumber from the British Provinces, at the present time of great importance. These considerations, which Mr. Bloodgood has clearly adduced, deserve candid attention.

United States Bond Record. Published by JOHN R. WALSH & Co., corner Dearborn and Madison streets, Chicago, Ill. Sent free, by mail, on receipt of $3 50.

This volume is of about one hundred and seventy-five pages, and so ruled, with printed headings, as to make an excellent record book for all United States bonds that may be bought and sold by brokers and others. It contains blank spaces for entering the date of purchase, number, series, act under which bonds are issued, denomination, kind of bond, of whom bought, to whom sold, together with date of sale; thus furnishing a full and complete memorandum of each transaction for future reference. We think all dealers in United States securities will find it very useful.

CONTENTS OF DECEMBER NUMBER.

ART.		PAGE
1.	Will the Old State Debts of the South be Paid?	469
2.	Advantages of the Lake Superior Iron Region for Producing Charcoal Iron	472
3.	Franklin Expedition. Hall's Search for the Survivors	477
4.	British Coal and Iron	480
5.	Commercial Law.—No. 28. Marine Insurance	483
6.	Analyses of Railroad Reports. No. 3	489
7.	Southern Privateers	495
8.	Commercial Chronicle and Review	498
9.	Journal of Banking, Currency, and Finance	503
10.	The United States Debt	510
11.	Commercial and Industrial Statistics	511
12.	Mines and Mining Statistics	513
13.	Mercantile Miscellanies	516
14.	The Book Trade	518